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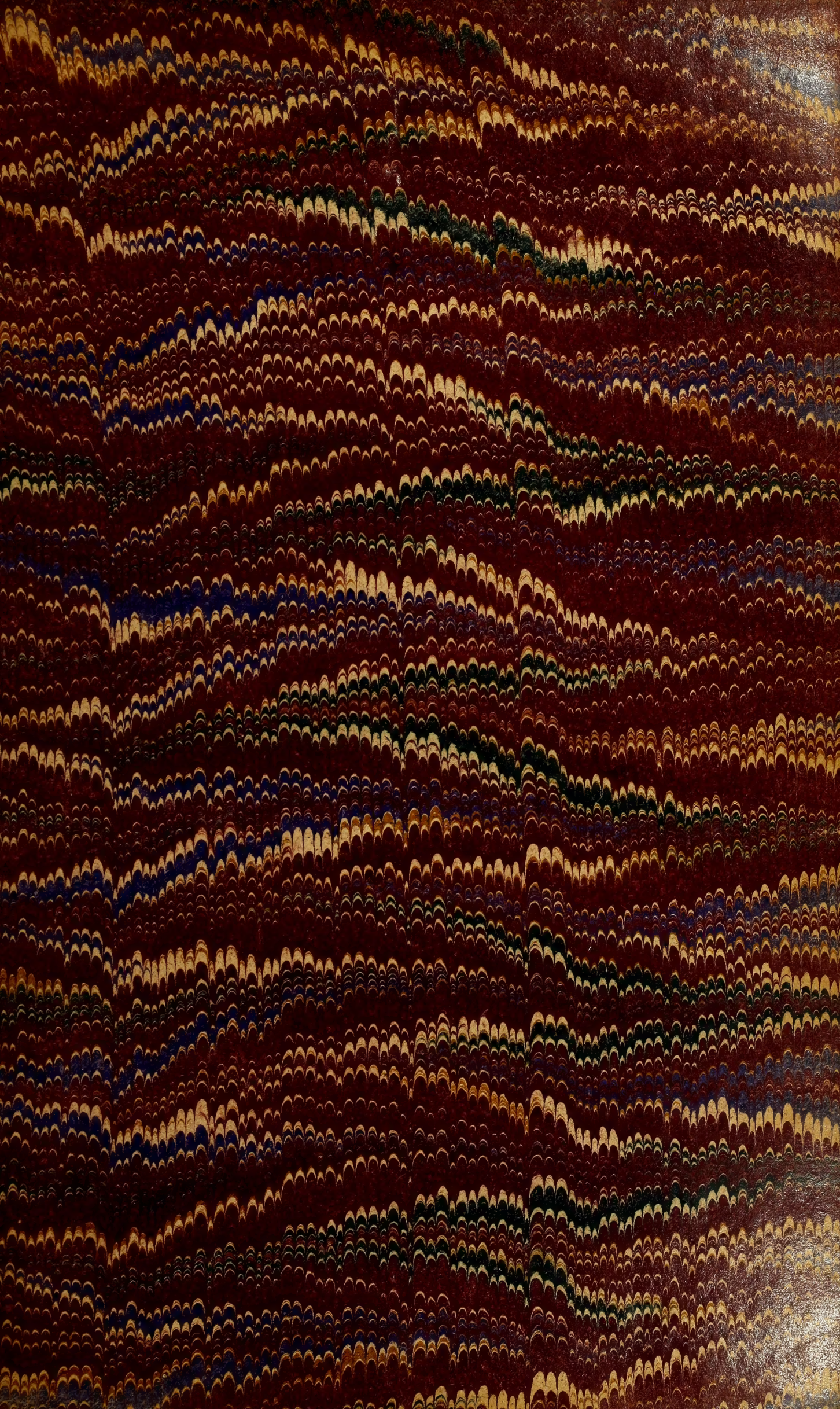
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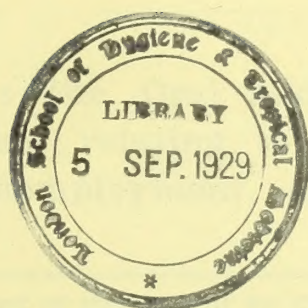


ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE POOR LAWS
AND RELIEF OF DISTRESS

APPENDIX VOLUME III

MINUTES OF EVIDENCE

APPENDIX





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ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE POOR LAWS AND RELIEF OF DISTRESS.

APPENDIX VOLUME IX.

MINUTES OF EVIDENCE

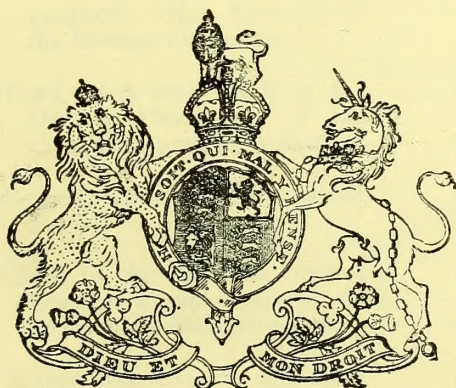
(140TH TO 148TH DAYS,
150TH TO 156TH DAYS, AND 158TH DAY)

WITH

APPENDIX.

(This Volume contains the Oral and Written Evidence of
Witnesses further relating to the subject of
Unemployment, &c.)

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of His Majesty.



LONDON:
PRINTED FOR HIS MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE,
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1910.

MINUTES OF EVIDENCE

APPENDIX

A List of the Appendix Volumes to the Reports of the Royal Commission on the Poor Laws and Relief of Distress will be found at the end of this Volume.



LONDON:

PRINTED FOR THE MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE
BY WYMAN AND BONS, PRINTERS, 15, FLEET STREET, E.C. 4.

As the Commission was directed to report on the state of the law relating to the poor, and on the measures for their relief, it was necessary to collect evidence from all parts of the country. The evidence was collected by the Commission's Agents, who were appointed in each of the principal towns and districts. The evidence was then brought together at the Commission's Office, and was there examined and discussed. The result of the Commission's inquiries is set forth in the following Reports.

ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE POOR LAWS AND RELIEF OF DISTRESS!

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF ORAL WITNESSES.

NAME OF WITNESS.	OFFICIAL OR OTHER QUALIFICATIONS.	NO. OF DAY'S EVIDENCE.	NO. OF QUESTIONS.	PAGE.
ACLAND, A. H. D.	Chairman of the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education.	146	93358-93384	207
ANDERSON, REV. J. H.	Rector of Tooting	144	92402-92530	147
ANDERSON, W. F.	Member of the Corporation of the City of Glasgow and Deputy Chairman of Distress Committee.	141	89904-90113	40
BARNES, F.	Overseer at Laindon	150	95342-95744	289
BLANKENBERG, J. F. L.	Member of the Town Council of Amsterdam.	158	100020-100299	469
BRAY, R. A.	Member of the London County Council.	151	96218-96609	315
BROODBANK, R. V.	General Secretary for Poplar Borough Municipal Alliance.	143	91592-91803	109
CAMPBELL, A., J.P.	Solicitor in the Supreme Courts of Scotland. Clerk and Law Agent to the Distress Committee of the City of Edinburgh.	152	97153-97299	358
CLARKE, J.	Master of the Laindon Workhouse.	150	95324-95744	289
CONNOLLY, J. B.	Town Clerk of the Borough of Drogheda. Hon. Secretary of the Distress Committee.	156	99145-99259	459
COOPER, J. R.	Town Clerk and Clerk to the Distress Committee of the County Borough of Walsall.	142	90982-91138	82
CROOKS, W., M.P.	Representative of the Labour Party.	143	91307-91591	94
CROWTHER, G. M.	Clerk to the Bradford Distress Committee and Clerk to the Bradford Board of Guardians.	142	90619-90981	68
CROXFORD, A. J.	Representative of the Metropolitan Rate Collectors' Association.	146	93503-93610	228
DAWSON, W. H.	Representative of the Board of Trade.	156	98826-99144	445
DYE, C. G.	Secretary of the Firewood Trade Association.	143	91804-91856	117
ELLIS, C. C.	In charge of the Branch of the Local Government Board for Scotland which deals with the administration of the Unemployed Workmen Act.	140	89048-89441	1

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF ORAL WITNESSES--*continued.*

NAME OF WITNESS.	OFFICIAL OR OTHER QUALIFICATIONS.	NO. OF DAY'S EVIDENCE.	NO. OF QUESTIONS.	PAGE.
FERGUSON, JAMES	Indoor Assistant Inspector of Poor, under the Glasgow Parish Council, and Chief Investigator under the Glasgow Distress Committee.	141	90114-90497	49
FOX, A. WILSON, C.B. ...	Comptroller-General of the Commercial Labour and Statistical Department of the Board of Trade.	156	98826-99144	445
GAGEBY, R.	Member of the Corporation of Belfast.	156	99260-99350	463
GARDENER, MRS. DUNN ...	Member of the Chelsea Committee and the Central Unemployed Body for London.	144	92112-92401	135
GORDON, MRS. OGILVIE, D.Sc. (Lond.), Ph.D. (Munich), Fellow of the Linnean Society, of London.	Hon. Corresponding Secretary of the National Council of Women. Vice-President of the National Union of Women Workers.	152	97300-97472	365
GRAY, E., M.A.	Representative of the London County Council.	153	97473-98066	377
HAMILTON, W. F., K.C. ...	Representative of the Church Army.	147	93611-94038	234
HARBEN, H. A.	Chairman of St. Mary's Hospital.	154	98067-98365	413
HARPER, EDGAR, J.	Representative of the London County Council.	153	97473-98066	377
HELBY, J. T.	Chairman of the Metropolitan Asylums Board.	144	91857-92111	121
JONES, W. L.	Representative of the Church Army.	147	93611-94038	234
MALLOCH, J.	Clerk to the Dundee Harbour Trust.	141	90498-90618	63
MCLEOD, F. H.	Representative of the Board of Trade.	156	98826-99144	445
MUENSTERBERG, DR. EMIL (Berlin).		158	100300-100590	480
MURPHY, Sir SHIRLEY F., M.D.	Representative of the London County Council.	153	97473-98066	377
NEWMAN, G., Doctor of Medicine, F.R.S. (Edinburgh), D.P.H. (Cambridge).	Chief Medical Officer of the Board of Education.	148	94283-94628	262
NEWSHOLME, DR. A., M.D., F.R.C.P.	Medical Officer for Brighton.	145	92531-93029	155
PARK, COL. JOHN SMITH, M.V.O.	Shipowner.	140	89615-89771	26
PILDITCH, P. E.	Representative of the London County Council.	153	97473-98066	377
PROPERT, REV. P. S. G. ...	Chairman of the Fulham Board of Guardians. Representative of the Metropolitan Committee of the Poor Law Unions Association.	155	98366-98685	423

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF ORAL WITNESSES—*continued.*

NAME OF WITNESS.	OFFICIAL OR OTHER QUALIFICATIONS.	NO. OF DAY'S EVIDENCE.	NO. OF QUESTIONS.	PAGE.
RAEBURN, W. H.	Shipowner.	140	89772-89903	34
RICHARDSON, J., M.Inst.C.E.		147	94039-94281	252
RICHARDSON, T., J.P. ...	Alderman and Chairman of the Trade and Commerce Committee and the Schools and Charities Committee of the Corporation of Newcastle-on-Tyne.	142	91139-91306	88
ROBERTS, J. H.	Representative of the Metropolitan Rate Collectors' Association.	146	93503-93610	228
SADLER, M. E.	Professor of the History and Administration of Education in the University of Manchester.	146	93385-93502	211
SKEGGS, J. B.	Deputy Town Clerk and Clerk to the Valuation of Rating Department of the Borough of Poplar.	150	95745-96007	300
SMITH, DR. W. R., J.P. ...	Ex-Mayor of the Borough of Holborn. Member of the Metropolitan Asylum's Board. Chairman of the Guardians of the Poor for St. Giles and St. George.	155	98686-98825	438
STONE, H.	Representative of the Metropolitan Rate Collectors' Association.	146	93503-93610	228
TAWNEY, R. H.	Junior Assistant to Professor Smart, Glasgow.	151	96610-96919	329
THORPE, A. E.	Member of the Poplar Borough Municipal Alliance.	143	91592-91803	109
URWICK, E. J.	President of the Morley College for working men and women. Lecturer to the School of Sociology and Social Economics.	152	96920-97152	349
WATSON, F.	Chairman of the Bradford Distress Committee.	142	90619-90981	68
WATTS, H. H.	Assistant Manager and Staff Inspector of the London and India Docks Company.	150	96008-96217	308
WEBB, SIDNEY, LL.B. ...	Member of the London County Council and Chairman of the Board of Studies in Economics and Political Science of the University of London.	145 146	93030-93357	182
WILKIE, BAILIE A.	Member of the Town Council of Aberdeen.	140	89442-89614	19

ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE POOR LAWS AND RELIEF OF DISTRESS.

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF NON-ORAL WITNESSES.

NAME OF WITNESS.	OFFICIAL OR OTHER QUALIFICATIONS.	NO. OF APPENDIX.	PAGE.
ADMIRALTY		LXXXVI.	1036
ANGEL, R. J., M.INST.C.E., A.R.I.B.A.	Borough Engineer and Surveyor to the Metropolitan Borough of Bermondsey.	LXXXVIII.	1050
BAIRD, ROBERT	General Manager and Secretary to the Scottish Mine Owners' Defence and Mutual Insurance Association, Limited.	CXVI.	1095
BAKER, J. T.	Senior Rate Collector for the Metropolitan Borough of Islington.	XXIII.	804
BALDEN, EDWARD H.	Agent at Birmingham to the Right Hon. Lord Calthorpe.	XXXII.	813
BARTLETT, MISS CONSTANCE R.		XXIV.	805
BEALE, PEYTON T. B., F.R.C.S. ...	Member of the Committee of Management, Great Northern Central Hospital.	XLVIII.	848
BELL, WALTER	President, Edinburgh Trades and Labour Council.	CXVII.	1096
BLACK, A.	Superintendent of the Association for the improvement of the condition of the poor in Leith.	XCVI.	1075
BOOTH, REV. WILLIAM	General and Commander-in-Chief of the Salvation Army.	LVIII.	883
BURDETT, SIR HENRY, K.C.B. ...	Founder and Editor of <i>The Hospital</i> ...	XLIX.	854
BUTLER, W., M.B., D.P.H. ...	Medical Officer of Health, Willesden. Late Medical Superintendent, Isolation Hospital, Willesden, &c., &c.	XLIII.	827
CAMERON, REV. DUNCAN	Minister of the Parish of Bridge of Allan (Stirlingshire).	CXVIII.	1096
CAREY, A. E., M.I.C.E.		LXXXIX.	1051
CHELSEA COMMITTEE OF THE CHARITY ORGANISATION SOCIETY		LIX.	893
CHRYSTAL, W. J.	Chemical Manufacturer, Rutherglen, near Glasgow.	XCVII.	1075
CLARKE, G. W.	Barrister. Town Clerk of Stepney	XXV.	806
CLIFFORD, MISS MARY		LX.	899
CLOSE, MRS. ELLINOR, C.L. ...		LXI.	900
COPE, A. E., DR.	Representative of the Association of Public Vaccinators of England and Wales.	LII.	860
CRAIG, F. McCULLOCH	Stevedore, Glasgow	CXIX.	1098
CREE, T. S., LL.D.	Author of "A Criticism of the Theory of Trades Unions," "Evils of Collective Bar- gaining," "Business Men and Modern Economics."	XCVIII.	1076
CROOKS, WILLIAM, M.P., L.C.C....	Late Chairman of the Poplar Board of Guardians.	LXII.	906

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF NON-ORAL WITNESSES—*continued.*

NAME OF WITNESS.	OFFICIAL OR OTHER QUALIFICATIONS.	NO. OF APPENDIX.	PAGE.
CROUCH, F. B.	Secretary to the Peabody Donation Fund ...	XXXIII.	813
DALGLISH, MISS M. M.	Secretary of the Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Association.	LXIII.	913
DANCE, MAJOR	(Late R.E.) Agent to the Marquis of Northampton.	XXXIV.	821
DAVIES, SIDNEY M.A. (Honours), M.D. (Oxon.), M.R.C.S. (Eng.), L.S.A., D.P.H. (Cambs.)	Medical Officer of Health, Borough of Woolwich. Fellow of the Society of Medical Officers of Health, and Royal Sanitary Inst., &c., &c.	XLIV.	829
DAWSON, WILLIAM	Deputy City Surveyor, Bradford	XC.	1051
DOUGLAS, CHARLES		CXX.	1098
DRURY, ARTHUR	Representative of the Association of Public Vaccinators of England and Wales.	LII.	860
DUNLOP, J. G.	Joint Managing Director, Messrs. John Brown & Co., Ltd., Shipbuilding and Engineering Works, Clydebank.	CXXI.	1102
ESSLMEONT, G. B., M.P., J.P.	Town Councillor, Aberdeen	XCIX.	1078
FIELD, F. HAYWARD		XXXV.	822
FIFE, H. L.	Agent to the Right Hon. Lord Barnard ...	XXXVI.	822
GOLDIE, JAMES	Managing Director of James Goldie & Son, Ltd., Builders and Contractors, Glasgow.	C.	1083
GORDON, W.	Town Clerk, Aberdeen.	CXXII.	1103
GRACIE, ALEXANDER	Fairfield Shipbuilding Works, Govan, Glasgow.	CXXIII.	1103
HALL, MESSRS. J. & W. D., F.S.A.A.	Accountants and Auditors, Glasgow. Secretaries of the Scottish Firewood Manufacturers' Association.	CX.	1090
HILL, MRS. G. F.	Hon. Secretary of the School of Sociology and Social Economics.	LXIV.	917
HODGE, J. M.	Partner in the Firm of Messrs. Keay & Hodge, Fruit-growers in the Blairgowrie District of Perthshire.	CI.	1084
HOME OFFICE		LXVI.	923
HOWARD, E. STAFFORD, C.B., J.P., D.L.	Commission of His Majesty's Woods, Forests, and Land Revenues.	LXV.	922
HUSBAND, MISS AGNES	Member of Dundee Distress Committee, Dundee School Board and Dundee Social Union. Late Member of Dundee Parish Council.	CXXIV.	1104
HUTTON, JOHN		LXVII.	926
HYETT, F. A.		LXV.	922
JACK, JAMES M.	General Secretary, Associated Ironmoulders of Scotland.	CXXV.	1104
JAMESON, M. W., A.M.Inst.C.E.	Engineer to Borough of Stepney.	XCI.	1052
JEWELL, ALEXANDER	Superintendent of the Dundee Labour Exchange.	CH.	1085
KING EDWARD'S HOSPITAL FUND FOR LONDON.		LIII.	860

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF NON-ORAL WITNESSES—*continued.*

NAME OF WITNESS.	OFFICIAL OR OTHER QUALIFICATIONS.	NO. OF APPENDIX.	PAGE.
KLAASSEN, MISS H. G.	Hon. Secretary of the St. John the Divine (Kensington) Relief Committee.	LXVIII.	929
LAIDLAW, D.	Of Messrs. R. Laidlaw & Son, Ltd., Engineers and Iron Pipe Founders, Glasgow.	CIII.	1085
LEITCH, R. T.	Secretary of the Dundee Free Labour Bureau.	CIV.	1086
LESTER, WILLIAM R., M.A. ...	President of the English League for the Taxation of Land Values.	XCII.	1052
LOCAL GOVERNMENT BOARD ... As to internal arrangements for the administration of the Poor Law.		LXIX.	932
LOCAL GOVERNMENT BOARD (ENGLAND) On the subject of deaths attributable to, or accelerated by, privation or starvation.		LXX.	934
LOCAL GOVERNMENT BOARD ... Showing extent to which Guardians have resorted to exceptional measures for the relief of distress arising from want of employment.		XCIII.	1056
LOCAL GOVERNMENT BOARD ... As to the means which have been adopted apart from the Poor Law for relieving distress due to unemployment.		XCIV.	1073
LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL ... As to arrangements with regard to contracts for the supply of stores for institutions under the control of the Council.		LXXI.	935
LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL ... As to the incidence of cost of maintenance of pauper lunatics in London.		LXXII.	948
LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL ... As to industrial and reformatory schools, etc.		LXXIII.	954
LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL ... As to the quality of the work performed by the unemployed.		LXXV.	966
LONGAIR, WILLIAM	Lord Provost of Dundee.	CXXVI.	1105
MACFARLANE, JAMES	Of Messrs. Macfarlane, Lang & Co., Biscuit Makers, Glasgow.	CV.	1086
MCCLEARY, G. F., B.A., M.D., D.P.H.	Medical Officer of Health, Hampstead.	XLV.	834
MACOUAT, R. B.	Of the Rivet, Bolt and Nut Co., Glasgow.	CVI.	1089
MARTIN, BAILIE J. H.	Vice-Chairman of Dundee Distress Committee, Member of Dundee Town Council, &c., &c.	CXXVII.	1105
MARTIN, W. H. BLYTH, J.P. ...	Town Clerk and Clerk to the Distress Committee, Dundee.	CXXVIII.	1106
MASON, THOMAS	Partner of the firm of Messrs. Morrison & Mason, Builders and Contractors, Polmadie, Glasgow.	CVII.	1089
MEDICAL OFFICER OF THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT BOARD.		LIV.	862
MILLEDGE, WALTER	Secretary to the Bradford City Guild of Help	LXXVI.	967

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF NON-ORAL WITNESSES—*continued.*

NAME OF WITNESS.	OFFICIAL OR OTHER QUALIFICATIONS.	NO. OF APPENDIX.	PAGE.
MILLWARD, ALFRED A.	Clerk to the Guardians, St. Pancras Parish ...	LXXVII.	970
MOORE, ARTHUR	Secretary to the Improved Industrial Dwellings Co., Ltd.	XXXVII.	823
MOSTYN, E. J.	Agent at Arundel to his Grace the Duke of Norfolk.	XXXVIII.	823
NEW, F.	Secretary of the Association for Befriending Boys.	LXXVIII.	974
NICOL, WILLIAM, J.P.	Member of Glasgow Town Council and of Glasgow Distress Committee.	CXXIX.	1107
ORR, JOHN	Of Messrs. John Orr & Sons, Decorators, Glasgow.	CVIII.	1089
PATON, REV. J. B., D.D.		LXXIX.	977
PATTIN, H. COOPER	Doctor in Medicine, Master of Arts, Bachelor in Surgery, and Diplomate in Public Health of the University of Cambridge. Medical Officer of Health for the City of Norwich and County of the same.	XLVI.	841
PIGOU, A. C., M.A.		LXXX.	981
POTTER, WALTER	Chief Collector for the Borough of Brighton...	XXVI.	807
POTTS, SAMUEL COLLIER	Treasurer for the Borough of Huddersfield ...	XXVII.	808
PRIESTMAN, A., J.P.	Chairman of the Bradford Corporation Health Committee.	XCV.	1073
PROTHERO, R. E.	Agent-in-Chief to his Grace the Duke of Bedford.	XXXIX.	824
QUEEN VICTORIA'S JUBILEE INSTITUTE FOR NURSES		LV.	869
RANKINE, G.	Superintendent of the Curr Night Refuge, Dundee.	CIX.	1090
RAWLENCE AND SQUAREY	Land Agents, Salisbury, and 15, Great George Street, Westminster.	XL.	825
REID, PETER, J.P.	Member of Dundee School Board	CXXX.	1108
RENSHAW, SIR CHARLES BINE, Bart.		CXXXI.	1108
RICHARDS, H. M., M.D., B.S. (Lond.), M.R.C.S., L.R.C.P.	Fellow of University College, London. Medical Officer of Health, County Borough of Croydon, &c., &c.	XLVII.	844
SCHOOL DENTISTS' SOCIETY		LVI.	876
SCRIMGEOUR, THOMAS	Outdoor Superintendent of the Aberdeen Distress Committee.	CXI.	1091
SELLERS, MISS EDITH		LXXXII.	1001
SHERIFF, EDMUND	Rating Superintendent for the Borough of St. Marylebone.	XXVIII.	809
SHINGLER, CAPTAIN W. H.	Superintendent, Church Army Labour Home, Edinburgh.	CXXXII.	1109
SILK, DR. J. F. W.		L.	857
SIME, PROFESSOR	University College, Dundee	CXXXIII.	1110

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF NON-ORAL WITNESSES—*continued.*

NAME OF WITNESS.	OFFICIAL OR OTHER QUALIFICATIONS.	NO. OF APPENDIX.	PAGE.
SIM, J. D. STUART	Chief Registrar of Friendly Societies ...	LXXXI.	1001
SKINNER, MAJOR C. L. A.	London County Council	LXXXIV.	957
SMELLIE, ALEXANDER	Outdoor Manager with Messrs. James Currie & Co., Shipowners, Leith.	CXII.	1092
STIRTON, ROBERT		CXXXIV.	1110
TAGG, C. WILLIAM	Town Clerk for the Borough of Camberwell	XXIX.	810
TEMPLETON, J. S.	Senior Partner to the firm of James Templeton & Co., Carpet Manufacturers, Glasgow.	CXIII.	1693
THOMPSON, THEODORE, M.A., M.D. (Cantab.), M.R.C.P. (Lond.), F.R.C.S. (Eng.).	Assistant Physician to the London Hospital. Assistant Physician to the Hospital for Sick Children, Great Ormond Street. Physician to the Poplar Hospital.	LI.	858
TRAN, A.	Foreman of the Glasgow City Council's Relief Works at Westerhill.	CXIV.	1094
TWINING, MISS L.		LXXXIII.	1020
VALLANCE, WILLIAM	Late Clerk to the Guardians, Whitechapel Union.	LXXXIV.	1020
WADE, WILLIAM	Chief Cashier and Manager of the Rates Department of the City of Leeds.	XXX.	811
WAR OFFICE		LXXXVI.	1036
WAR OFFICE		LXXXVII.	1049
WILKINSON, THOMAS	Secretary to the East End Dwellings Co., Ltd.	XLI.	825
WILLIAMS, W. A.	Town Clerk, Hackney	XXXI.	812
WILSON, ROBERT	Member of the Parish Council of Urr. ex-Town Councillor of the Burgh of Dalbeattie, &c.	CXV.	1094
WOMEN'S LOCAL GOVERNMENT SOCIETY		LXXXV.	1022
WOOD, J. M.	Agent to the Earl of Leicester	XLII.	826
WORKHOUSE NURSING ASSOCIA- TION		LVII.	877
WORKMAN, W. S.	Member of the Firm of Geo. Smith & Sons, of the City Line of Steamers to India.	CXXXV.	1111

MINUTES OF EVIDENCE

TAKEN BEFORE

THE ROYAL COMMISSION

ON THE

POOR LAWS AND RELIEF OF DISTRESS.

ONE HUNDRED AND FORTIETH DAY.

Tuesday, 14th January, 1908.

AT SCOTLAND HOUSE, WESTMINSTER, S.W.

PRESENT.

The Right Hon. Lord GEORGE HAMILTON, G.C.S.I.,
etc., etc., etc. (*Chairman*).
Sir SAMUEL B. PROVIS, K.C.B.
Mr. F. H. BENTHAM.
Dr. A. H. DOWNES.
The Rev. T. GAGE GARDINER.
Mr. C. S. LOCH.
Mr. J. PATTEN-MACDOUGALL, C.B.

The Rev. L. R. PHELPS.
Professor WILLIAM SMART.
Mrs. BERNARD BOSANQUET.
Mrs. SIDNEY WEBB.
Miss OCTAVIA HILL.
Mr. FRANCIS CHANDLER.
Mr. R. H. A. G. DUFF (*Secretary*).
Mr. J. JEFFREY (*Assistant Secretary*).

Mr. CHARLES CLEVELAND ELLIS, called ; and Examined.

Mr. Charles
Cleveland
Ellis.

89048. (*Chairman*.) You are in charge of the branch of the Local Government Board for Scotland which deals with the administration of the Unemployed Workmen Act, are you not ?—Yes.

89049. You have been kind enough to prepare for us a very good Memorandum as to the administration of the Unemployed Workmen Act in Scotland, which, if you will hand in, we will take as your evidence-in-chief ?—If you please. (*The Witness handed in the following Statement.*)

1. I am in charge of the branch of the Local Government Board dealing with the administration of the Unemployed Workmen Act and am thus intimately acquainted with the procedure of the Board under the Act, and have been in close personal touch with the various distress committees that have been established.

2. I purpose to place before the Royal Commission statements containing (1) an account of the steps taken by the Local Government Board to carry out the provisions of the Act, and (2) an expression of my own opinion as to the working of the Act, coupled with suggestions for its amendment.

STATEMENT No. 1.

UNEMPLOYED WORKMEN ACT, 1905.

3. The Local Government Board for Scotland are charged with the administration of the above Act in Scotland. The Act is compulsory only in royal, parliamentary or police burghs having a population according to the last census for the time being of not less than 50,000. The Board may, however, extend it to counties, and to burghs having a population of less than 50,000 on the application of any county, town, or parish council, or, if they think it expedient, in certain cases, without any such application.

4. The first step taken by the Board was to issue on October 5th, 1905, a circular to burghs having a population of 50,000 and over, explaining the provisions of the Act. On October 23rd a similar circular was issued to county councils, and on October 25th a circular was also issued to burghs with a population of less than 50,000. For copies of these circulars see pages 100, 107 and 111 of Report of Local Government Board for Scotland, 1905.

5. In pursuance of the Act, distress committees were constituted in the nine burghs with populations of over 50,000, viz., Aberdeen, Dundee, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Govan, Greenock, Leith, Paisley, and Partick. The Board's Order constituting these distress committees was issued on October 17th, 1905. For copy see page 102 of Report of the Local Government Board for Scotland, 1905.

6. The question of the constitution of the distress committees received careful consideration. The Act provides that the distress committee shall consist partly of members of the town council and partly of members of the parish council of every parish situated wholly or partly within the burgh, and partly of persons experienced in the relief of distress, and that at least one member of the committee shall be a woman.

7. Having in view the fact that the Act (Sec. 2 (1)) described the distress committee as a "Committee of the Town Council," it was deemed advisable to give that body a majority of representatives on the committee.

8. Sec. 1 (1) of the Act provides that the number of co-opted persons shall not exceed one-fourth of the total number. The presumption appeared to the Board that the number should, if anything, be less than one-fourth; accordingly they fixed the number of co-opted persons at one-fifth of the whole. It will be observed that the largest number of members of any distress

Mr. Charles Cleveland Ellis. committee was allotted to Glasgow, viz., forty. The number of members in other cases was fixed in proportion mainly to population. The number of town and parish councillors was fixed in the proportion of approximately three to two.

14 Jan. 1908.

Basis for size of Committees.

Establishment of Distress Committees

in burghs having less than 50,000 inhabitants.

Orders constituting Distress Committees.

Constitution of Committees in Dumfries, Inverness, and Pollokshaws.

Queen's Unemployed Fund.

Dalbeattie Central Body and Distress Committee.

9. In four cases the Board exercised the power conferred on them by Sec. 2 (1) of the Act, and established, by request of the respective town councils, distress committees in the burghs of Dumfries, Inverness, Kilmarnock, and Pollokshaws,—each of these burghs having a population of less than 50,000.

10. The Orders constituting the distress committees are similar to the General Order already referred to (*Appendix No. 4*). The constitution of the committees is as follows:—Dumfries, Inverness and Pollokshaws had each fifteen members, viz., seven from the town council, five from the parish council, and three persons experienced in the relief of distress. The Kilmarnock distress committee consists of twenty members, viz., nine from the town council of Kilmarnock, six from the parish council of Kilmarnock, one from the parish council of Riccarton, and four persons experienced in the relief of distress.

11. In addition, an application was received by the Board from the town council of the burgh of Dalbeattie for assistance from the Queen's Unemployed Fund, which, in Scotland, was distributed on the Board's recommendation. The fund was to be allocated among the various distress committees under the Act, and to enable Dalbeattie to participate it was of course necessary to constitute a distress committee. The burgh depends largely on the granite quarries, and these, owing to slackness of trade, having been shut down for several months during the winter of 1905-6, a number of men were thrown out of employment. On inquiry, the circumstances appeared to the Board to be such as the Queen's Fund and the Act were intended to meet. A local committee had been formed to deal with the unemployed, and it was considered advisable to constitute temporarily this committee a central body and distress committee, in terms of Sec. 3 of the Act, until such time as a central body and a distress committee could be permanently established. In due course the central body and distress committee were constituted in terms of the statute. For copies of both Orders see page 104, Report of Local Government Board for Scotland, 1906.

Special Committees.

12. Where it is not considered advisable to have a distress committee, or a central body and a distress committee, the Act provides for the establishment in counties, and in burghs with a population of less than 50,000, but not less than 20,000, of special committees whose duties are merely to collect information with respect to the condition of labour within their area by establishing, taking over, or assisting labour exchanges and employment registers. Special committees have been established for the burghs of Hamilton and Motherwell and the county of Lanark.

13. In two cases the Board declined to put the Act in operation:—

Refusal to put Act in operation in certain cases.

(a) The first case related to an application from the town council of Stornoway to put the Act in operation in that burgh, and in the four parishes of the Lews. The application was based on the ground that there had been a very unsuccessful fishing season, and in consequence a number of people were thrown out of employment. The Board gave the matter very careful consideration, but they arrived at the conclusion that the circumstances were not such as to justify them in establishing organisation under the Act. The Board had regard to Sec. 2 (3) of the statute, which provides that the persons to be assisted are those honestly desirous of obtaining work, but are temporarily unable to do so from *exceptional* causes over which they have no control. They were not disposed to favour the view that an unsuccessful fishing season was an exceptional cause of unemployment in the sense of the Act. It appeared to them rather to be one of those normal causes to which the fishing populations in general were subject, and against which they must continue to provide as they have had to do hitherto.

(b) The second application was received through the Congested Districts Board. That Board forwarded to the Local Government Board a petition they had received on behalf of the inhabitants of the Stoer district of the parish of Assynt in Sutherlandshire. The petition was to the effect that the inhabitants had hitherto depended for their subsistence upon the herring fishing, that the new modes of equipment necessary for the successful prosecution of that industry were beyond their reach, that no available means existed by which they could support their families, that they were on the verge of destitution, and that they would become utterly destitute unless a scheme for relieving their condition was forthcoming. The petitioners suggested that some work of public utility should be initiated by the Congested Districts Board to give immediate employment and so to stave off what threatened to be a grave crisis in that locality. It was obvious that the Local Government Board had no means of dealing with the matter unless by establishing organisation under the Unemployed Workmen Act. The circumstances, however, were practically identical with those obtaining in the Lews, and the Board had no alternative but to decline to take action.

14. Sec. 4 (3) of the Act empowers the Board to make regulations for carrying the Act into effect. They gave the subject anxious consideration, and issued their regulations, with a relative circular, on November 14th. For copies see page 115 of Report of Local Government Board for Scotland, 1905. The Scottish Board had a conference with representatives of the English Local Government Board with a view if possible of making the regulations for the two countries as nearly identical as circumstances would permit. The Board were, however, unable to agree with the English Board on several points, the chief of which may be enumerated as follows:—

(I.) Reference may be made to Art. II. of both the English and Scottish regulations stipulating the conditions under which an application may be entertained by a distress committee. The English regulations provided that a distress committee before entertaining an application were to satisfy themselves: (a) "that the applicant is not, and has not been, during the period of twelve months immediately preceding the date of the application, in receipt of relief (other than medical relief) at the cost of the poor rate"; (b) "that he has not in two successive periods of twelve months immediately preceding the date of the application been employed on work provided by a central body, or on work towards the provision of which a central body have contributed."

No such restrictions are contained in the Scottish regulations. The Board were not disposed to regard as a disqualification the receipt by an applicant of parochial relief, and they further considered that cases might arise where even the restriction marked (b) would operate harshly.

It may here be mentioned that on December 6th, 1905, the English Board issued temporary regulations modifying the principal regulations in respect of applicants who have been in receipt of parochial relief. It was there provided that "where the distress committee have satisfied themselves that an applicant has, during the period of twelve months immediately preceding the date of these regulations, been in receipt of relief (other than medical relief) at the cost of the poor rate," the application may be entertained, if the applicant be otherwise qualified.

On January 13th, owing to representations having been made to the English Board "that cases of hardship sometimes arise where the applicant has been obliged to have recourse to Poor Law relief after October 10th, 1905, but before the distress committees were established or in a position to receive applications," further regulations were issued by the Board repealing the temporary regulations and providing that "a person who has received relief during the period of fifteen months terminating at the end of the first day of January 1906 or, in the case of a distress committee, "whose first meeting is held after that day, during the period of fifteen months terminating at the end of the first month after that meeting, may be dealt with in the manner prescribed by the temporary regulations."

Refusal to put Act in operation in certain cases

Regulation and relative Circular;

Differences of opinion between English and Scottish Boards.

Conditions under which applications may be entertained by Distress Committees in England and Scotland respectively

Modification of English regulations.

oval of
applied.

(II.) Art. IV. (3) of the English regulations dealing with the removal of unemployed persons provides that "the central body shall also satisfy themselves that the regular work which the unemployed person will be in a position to obtain at the place of destination will be of such duration, or that the facilities for other regular employment will be such as to afford every reasonable expectation that the person or persons whose removal is to be aided, will not become chargeable to the poor rate at any time during a period of twelve months after the removal.

The Scottish regulation (Art. IV., c) merely provides that the distress committee, "before removing the unemployed person shall obtain the consent of the distress committee or special committee, if any, for the area to which he is to be removed, or if no such committees have been constituted, the distress committee shall satisfy themselves that the removal will not prejudice employment or prospects of employment in the locality of the place of destination."

(III.) The Board could not see their way to go so far as the English Local Government Board in regard to the conditions under which a central body may provide or contribute towards the provision of work. Art. V. (1) (f) and (g) of the English regulations provide that the total remuneration of the person employed for any given period of continuous work shall be less than that which would under ordinary circumstances be earned by an unskilled labourer for continuous work during the same period in the place at which the work is provided.

The Scottish Board did not think it advisable to make any regulation regarding the rate of wages. In their covering circular of November 14th, 1905, they alluded to the matter as follows:—

"The Board have not deemed it necessary in the meantime to frame regulations prescribing the rate of wages to be paid to unemployed persons in respect of whom the distress committee provide or contribute towards the provision of temporary work. In thus leaving the question of wages to be decided by the distress committee, the Board have every confidence that the committee will give the subject their careful consideration and that, in the exercise of their discretion, they will fix such rate of wages as will deter a workman from leaving his employment in order to apply for assistance from the distress committee."

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(IV.) Art. V. (iv.) of the English regulations provides that the "central body may, in the case of a person for whom temporary work has been provided, put an end at any time to the provision of temporary work for that person, and shall in no case continue the provision of temporary work for more than sixteen weeks in any period of twelve months except with the consent of the Local Government Board." The words in italics are omitted from the corresponding Scottish regulation.

gisters of
distress
committees.

(V.) Art. VII. of the English regulations provides that the distress committee shall keep a register. There is no similar provision in the Scottish regulations. The latter merely provide for the keeping of an alphabetical index to the record papers, leaving it to the discretion of the distress committee whether a register should be kept or not.

(VI.) The Scottish regulations as to the establishment of farm colonies, the provision of temporary accommodation for workers on land, and the acquisition of land (Arts. VII., VIII., and IX.), are less detailed than the corresponding English regulations (Arts. VIII., IX. and X.).

quisition
land by
central
bodies.

(VII.) Art. X. of the English regulations provides for the acquisition of land by a central body, but confers no powers on distress committees having the powers of central bodies. The English Board took the view that Sec. 4 (1) of the Act did not authorise them to incorporate distress committees, and that in consequence some difficulty might be experienced in granting a proper title in favour of distress committees in the event of their proceeding to acquire land. The English Board, therefore, in their regulations (Art. XXI.), in the case of boroughs and urban districts for which distress committees with the powers of central bodies had been established, provided that if land were acquired it should be at the instance of the councils of the municipal borough or urban district as the case might be. The Scottish Board, on the other hand, were of opinion that the term

"central body" in Sec. (3) (c) of the Act included distress committees with full powers, and their Regulations IX. (1) make provision accordingly. The Board did not, however, incorporate distress committees. It did not appear to them that the non-incorporation of distress committees need occasion any difficulty. In the one case in which a distress committee has acquired land in Scotland the Board advised that the title should be drawn in favour of A. B., chairman of the distress committee, and C. D., clerk to the distress committee, and their successors in office, on behalf of the distress committee.

(VIII.) Art. XX. of the English regulations provides for the co-operation of local authorities and distress committees, and enacts that the consent of the Local Government Board shall be obtained before the services of an officer of a Poor Law authority are placed at the disposal of a central body or distress committee. The Board reserve power to entertain or to refuse to entertain any such proposal. The Scottish regulation (No. XIX.) is unfettered by any restriction of this kind.

The record paper prescribed by the Scottish Local Government Board is in most respects the same as that originally prescribed by the English Local Government Board. The original record paper issued by the English Board was subsequently slightly modified, but the Scottish Board have not yet made any alteration on their form as originally issued.

AUDIT.

15. The regulations provide for the accounts of a distress committee being made up and audited in like manner and subject to the same provisions as the accounts of a county council. Secs. 68 to 70 of the Local Government (Scotland) Act, 1889, regulate the procedure relating to the audit of county council accounts, and they are also made applicable by Sec. 36 of the Local Government (Scotland) Act, 1894, to the audit of the accounts of parish councils. The audit of parish council accounts is under the jurisdiction of the Local Government Board, and the auditors are appointed by them. It appeared, therefore, to the Board to be desirable to appoint the parish auditors to be the auditors of the accounts of the distress committees, and, with one exception, this course was followed. On May 4th, 1906, the Board issued suggestions regarding the audit to the clerks to distress committees and to auditors, together with a form of abstract of accounts. For copies of these documents see page 63 of Report of Local Government Board for Scotland, 1906.

THE QUEEN'S UNEMPLOYED FUND.

16. The grants to distress committees in Scotland from the Queen's Unemployed Fund were made on the Board's recommendation. On January 2nd, the Board issued to distress committees returns on which they were invited to make application for a share of the fund. As stated in the Board's Twelfth Annual Report, p. xlv., the first distribution was made on the returns containing particulars for the period ended December 30th, 1905. Many of the distress committees, however, had not then commenced work, and the Board did not feel justified in recommending the distribution committee to distribute at the first distribution more than £2,250, which sum was apportioned as follows:—

	£
Aberdeen - - - - -	699
Glasgow - - - - -	1,511
Govan - - - - -	40

17. The second distribution was based on returns containing particulars for the period ended January 31st, and after full inquiry into the circumstances of each distress committee the Board, on February 15th, 1906, recommended a distribution of £4,023 as follows:—

	£
Aberdeen - - - - -	179
Dalbeattie - - - - -	200
Dundee - - - - -	478
Edinburgh - - - - -	1,730
Glasgow - - - - -	744
Govan - - - - -	107
Leith - - - - -	542
Partick - - - - -	43
	£4,023

Mr. Charles
Cleveland
Ellis.
14 Jan. 1908.

Co-operation
between local
authorities
and distress
committees.

Method of
auditing
accounts of
Distress
Committees.

Apportion-
ment of
grant from
fund.

Mr. Charles
Cleveland
Ellis.

14 Jan. 1908.

Total amount
allocated to
Scotland.

Grants to
Scottish
distress
committees
during winter
of 1905-6.

Amount
allocated to
Scotland, and
distribution
thereof.

Conditions
for applica-
tions to
board.

18. The Board pointed out to the distribution committee that there were four distress committees newly constituted and therefore not in a position to make a claim, and recommended that a sum of £1,000 should be held over for a further distribution in March, 1906, when these distress committees would have a chance of participating. This was agreed to, but only two of them were able to substantiate claims, viz., Inverness and Kilmarnock, grants of £155 and £23 being paid to them respectively.

19. The total of the general fund amounted to £91,361 3s. 2d. The amount of the grants to London was £28,000, leaving a balance of £63,361 3s. 2d.; 11 per cent. of which was allocated to Scotland, viz., £6,969 14s. 7d.

20. The total amounts paid in grants to distress committees in Scotland during the winter of 1905-6 out of the Queen's Fund amounted to £6,451, and the balance of £518 14s. 7d. was handed to the Board to distribute among distress committees at some future time, as they thought fit.

21. On February 24th, 1906, the Board issued a circular to distress committees stating that it appeared to them to be very desirable that, as soon as possible, arrangements should be made under which the money received from the Queen's Fund should be applied in assisting the unemployed in proper cases. For copy of this circular see page 59 of Report of Local Government Board for Scotland, 1906.

PARLIAMENTARY GRANT.

22. During the year 1906-7 Parliament voted a sum of £200,000 as a contribution in aid of the expenses of distress committees under the Unemployed Workmen Act. This sum was allocated by the Lords Commissioners of H.M. Treasury between the Local Government Boards for England, Scotland and Ireland. The amount received by the Board for distribution was £10,000. The amount spent from the grant was £7,552, and from the Queen's Unemployed Fund £526 11s. 1d. This sum was allocated as follows:—

Distress Committees.	Total Amount paid 1906-7.	
	From the Parliamentary Grant.	From the Queen's Unemployed Fund.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Aberdeen -	1,287 0 0	200 0 0
Dalbeattie -	Nil	
Dumfries -	Nil.	
Dundee -	321 0 0	
Edinburgh -	1,102 0 0	306 11 1
Glasgow -	3,814 0 0	
Govan -	66 0 0	
Greenock -	685 0 0	
Inverness -	30 0 0	20 0 0
Kilmarnock -	Nil.	
Leith -	Nil.	
Paisley -	Nil.	
Partick -	164 0 0	
Pollokshaws -	83 0 0	
	£7,552 0 0	£526 11 1*

* Includes £7, 16s. 6d. of interest.

23. The conditions under which the Board were prepared to consider applications were set forth in a circular issued to distress committees on October 19th, 1906, a copy of which will be found on page 80 of Report of Local Government Board for Scotland, 1906.

24. The circular is on similar lines to one of the two issued about the same time by the English Board. The only difference of procedure between the two Boards was that in England the Local Government Board decided beforehand that they would not entertain applications from certain distress committees. The Scottish Board, however, invited applications from all distress committees; but intimated that each case would be considered

and decided upon its merits, and that the Board in no way bound themselves to give any assistance unless they were satisfied that it was genuinely required.

LABOUR EXCHANGES.

25. The Act (Sec. 1 (4)) lays a duty on distress committees to establish, take over, or assist labour exchanges and employment registers, and the Board have impressed on distress committees the importance of this provision. In their circular of November 14th, 1905, (for copy see page 115 of Report of Local Government Board for Scotland, 1905), the Board state that they "regard this as one of the most important duties which the distress committee are called upon to perform, and they trust that special attention and consideration will be given to it." The Board found, however, that although many of the distress committees opened offices and termed them "labour exchanges" there was an absence of any systematic attempt to organise a proper exchange. They accordingly, on October 25th, 1906, issued a circular (a copy of which will be found on page 82 of Local Government Board Report for Scotland, 1906) indicating generally the lines on which distress committees should proceed. The point the Board desired to emphasise was that the labour exchange was not merely an office at which applications for assistance under the Unemployed Workmen Act were to be received. They pointed out that it might be convenient to receive applications for relief work at the exchange, but in such cases the superintendent should be made to clearly understand that he may have to deal with two distinct classes of applicants, namely: (1) those who desire relief work to be provided for them by the distress committee in terms of the Act; and (2) those who do not wish such work, but who desire the assistance of the labour exchange in procuring employment for them at their own trades with ordinary employers of labour.

VACANCIES IN DISTRESS COMMITTEES.

26. The annual retirement in November of a number of town councillors from office may give rise to vacancies on distress committees. This is just the period of the year when it is desirable to lose no time in filling such vacancies. The Board therefore issued a circular directing that any vacancies which may occur among the members of the distress committee appointed by town councils from their own bodies should be filled at the statutory meeting falling to be held on the Friday after the town council election. For copy of this circular see page 91 of Report of Local Government Board for Scotland, 1906.

RECORDING OF APPLICATIONS.

27. The Board were asked whether it was essential to keep the labour exchange open all the year round. In the case in point the exchange was also the office at which applications for relief work under the Act were received, and the question whether the exchange was to be kept always open involved really the further question whether the distress committee were to receive applications for relief work at all seasons.

28. Apparently the distress committee were of opinion that if they declined to provide work they were at liberty to decline to receive applications. Differing somewhat again from the view taken by the English Board (see their circular of October 10th, 1905, to councils of populous burghs and urban districts), the Scottish Board were not disposed to take the view that it was open to the distress committee to decline to receive applications from persons unemployed. The Act (Sec. 1 (2)) provides that the distress committee "shall make themselves acquainted with the conditions of labour 'within their area,' and it seemed to the Board that the most effectual—if not the only satisfactory—way of carrying out that duty was for them to receive and inquire into any applications made to them from persons out of employment. It was of course open to the distress committee to provide work or not as they thought fit.

29. The same question arose in regard to emigration. A distress committee declined to take up the question of emigration, and having so resolved, they inquired whether they must continue to receive applications. The Board intimated that their circular was intended to apply to all applications from persons unemployed. As in the case of relief work, the distress committee

Procedure:
labour
exchanges
indicated
board.

Filling
vacancies
of distress
committees

Labour
exchanges
be kept open
during the
whole year.

Emigration
through
distress
committees.

could not be expected to know whether the unemployed desired to emigrate if they declined to receive applications. A copy of the Board's circular will be found on page 63 of the Local Government Board Report for Scotland, 1907.

ACQUISITION OF LAND.

30. The Board have recently consented to the acquisition of about 591 acres of land by the distress committee for the city of Glasgow for the purpose of establishing a farm colony. The estate is situated in the parish of Cumbernauld, in the county of Dumbarton. About 363 acres consist of moorland which the distress committee hope to reclaim by unemployed labour with the aid of refuse to be supplied (some 1,400 waggons per annum) by the Corporation Cleansing Department. The purchase price of the estate was £7,355. A railway siding is to be constructed at a cost of approximately £4,250. The Board have sanctioned the distress committee borrowing to defray the cost, the whole sum to be repaid in a period not exceeding ten years.

31. The Board were also consulted by the Edinburgh distress committee regarding the acquisition of a piece of moss land for reclamation purposes by means of unemployed labour, but the negotiations fell through, and nothing further has in the meantime been done.

32. The distress committee of Govan have also under consideration the acquisition of land for the purposes of the Act.

33. The foregoing statement contains an account of the steps taken by the Board. It only remains to be added that the policy of the Board from the commencement has been to give the Act a fair trial and to encourage distress committees to do the same. The Act has been difficult to work in many respects, but the Board have taken as liberal an interpretation of its provisions, especially the rating provisions, as was consistent with sound administration. A Return containing detailed information as to the first year's working of the Act was published as a Parliamentary Paper (Cd. 3,431, 1907), and a similar Return as to the second year's proceedings is in course of preparation.*

STATEMENT No. 2.

34. In the administration of all Acts of Parliament difficulties invariably arise, and it could hardly be expected that such difficulties would be absent in connection with the administration of an Act seeking to deal with such a complex problem as that of the unemployed. In some quarters the Act has been termed unworkable, but I think it will be found that in those cases where the distress committees have been really anxious to work it, they have been partially, at any rate, successful, and that they have received assistance to that end from the Local Government Board. One advantage that may be claimed by the Act is that it has laid the foundation for the collection of statistics of a valuable character, but I question whether it is, except to a comparatively small extent, assisting the men that it was intended to assist, viz., those who are honestly desirous of obtaining work, but are temporarily unable to do so from exceptional causes over which they have no control. I do not wish to infer that the applicants to distress committees are generally of an undeserving class. On the contrary, I am aware that distress committees have dealt with many deserving cases; but there is no getting away from the fact that the applicants are, to a considerable extent, men who are unemployed, not from exceptional causes, in the sense of the statute, but from permanent causes, over some of which (e.g. old age, or other physical infirmity) they have no control. That many are out of employment through their own fault is beyond question.

35. It is no doubt true that a distress committee is not entitled to relieve the wastrel or loafer, but these men have to live, and they do live either in prison, in the poorhouse, or on the charity of their neighbours. It is desirable to keep them from both the prison and the poorhouse, and to discourage them from continuing a life of indolence, and I confess that for such a class I know of no place other than a penal colony.

36. The most difficult portion of the unemployed problem seems to me to be the question of how to provide

for those men who are of good character but unemployed from old age or possibly some slight physical defect. That they are an increasing class seems unquestionable. The tendency of modern conditions under which work is performed is to leave stranded those who are not quite so well able to run the race of life as they used to be. Employers under modern competition can only afford to engage the best men, their liability under the compensation Acts and otherwise, the clamour for standard rates of wages—all these things have a tendency to make employers pass over those men who are in the slightest degree physically unfit, if any person better qualified is to be found. I have been told that even the wearing of spectacles has been against a man getting a job. Here, then, is a class rapidly growing for whom provision has to be made, and they, in my opinion, form a large proportion of the applicants to distress committees, and they will remain with distress committees so long as they can obtain employment. They are the permanent unemployed, and I fear there is little chance of many of these being reinstated with ordinary employers of labour, certainly not unless there is an exceptional demand in the labour market. The farm colony is probably the best place for these people, and indeed, I think, the only means by which a distress committee can usefully afford relief. But the policy of establishing organisations for the purpose of largely dealing with this class—a superior form of Poor Law authority, so to speak—raises difficult economic questions which I do not purpose to discuss. I merely wish to record my opinion that if the man who is able-bodied but won't work—the loafer—were provided for at a penal colony, and the class just alluded to could be satisfactorily provided for in some other way, a very large section of the unemployed problem would be solved.

37. As an illustration of the class of men that apply to distress committees, I may mention that at the present time there are very extensive works going on at Loch Leven Water Power Works at Ballachulish. The contract, which is being executed by Messrs. Sir John Jackson, Ltd., of London, includes the construction of a large dam on the hills and a waterway running therefrom for four or five miles to an aluminium factory which is in course of construction. In July the contractors were employing over 2,000 men and were in need of an additional 1,000 or 1,500. The Board were informed of the particulars of this work by the clerk to the Glasgow Distress Committee, and they at once communicated the information to all distress committees in case they might have men on their books suitable for the work. The Board pointed out to the distress committees that it would be competent for them to remove the men to Ballachulish if they thought fit and charge the cost to the rate contribution account. As a result, a number of men, said to be specially selected and accustomed to that class of work, were despatched from various centres. When, however, the Glasgow Distress Committee were about to send their contingent, they received the following communication from the manager:—

"We have come to the conclusion that it is quite useless sending men through here.

"Mr. — brought forty-five men on Saturday, and we have not one left now to-day (Wednesday).

"We had a large batch of men through from Edinburgh, Leith and Dundee, who had their fares paid here by the distress committees of those towns, and with the exception of three cases, the men all left before their fare had been paid off.

"We find that the man who wants work can find his own way here, and is doing so, so that we are not prepared to take any further men with fares paid here."

INVESTIGATION BY DISTRESS COMMITTEES.

38. I am inclined to think that the investigation by some distress committees is not as thorough as it ought to be. If reference be made to the returns of the proceedings of distress committees in Scotland, issued by the Local Government Board, it will be observed that in Leith, during the period ended May 15th, 1906, 895 out of 911 were found qualified for assistance, that is 98 per cent.; in Dundee 766 out of 788, or 97 per cent.; in Edinburgh, 2,534 out of 2,740, or 92 per cent.; in Aberdeen, 1,142 out of 1,300, or 88 per cent. Yet in Glasgow only 39 per cent. were passed as qualified.

Mr. Charles Cleveland Ellis.

14 Jan. 1908.

Difficulty in providing employment caused by old age or slight physical defects.

Farm colonies the best form of relief for the permanent unemployed i.e., the aged and physically defective.

Class of persons applying to Distress Committees.

Result of sending unemployed to Ballachulish.

Strict investigation of applications essential. Proportion of applicants eligible for assistance in various towns.

* The return (Cd. 3830-1907) has now been published.

Mr. Charles Cleveland Ellis.
14 Jan. 1908.
Proportion of applicants eligible for assistance in various towns.

Again, if we take the figures for the year ended May 15th, 1907, we find that in Edinburgh the whole of the applicants were found qualified; in Greenock, 1,018 out of 1,057, or 96·31 per cent.; in Dundee, 610 out of 635, or 96·06 per cent.; in Aberdeen, 1,042 out of 1,285, or 81·09 per cent. But in Glasgow again only 915 out of 2,335 were passed, 39·19 per cent.

39. I can hardly believe that the characters of the applicants in Glasgow are so much worse than those in the other towns mentioned, and I am therefore forced to the conclusion that in one case practically every person who comes forward is entertained as qualified for assistance in terms of the Act, irrespective of character, whereas in other cases there is an attempt to confine the benefits of the statute to those honestly desirous of obtaining work and "who in the past have been regularly employed, well conducted, and thrifty." A great deal of course depends on the investigating officer.

THE NECESSITY FOR AN INDEPENDENT BODY TO ADMINISTER THE ACT.

40. I am not convinced that it was necessary to constitute an entirely separate body to administer the Act. So far, practically, distress committees have done nothing more than has been done for years before by the town council. One of the great drawbacks to distress committees is their utter helplessness to provide relief work without the assistance of town councils. In the majority of cases the distress committee have simply applied to the town council to provide relief work, which has been executed under the supervision of town officials, and the distress committee have paid the loss said to result from engaging unemployed workmen. If distress committees are to continue merely to act in this way, it is obvious that their duties could be quite well performed by the town councils themselves, and even assuming that they were going further and establishing farm colonies, etc., I am not sure but that the work would be as well done by town councils and at less cost. One advantage, too, would be gained, viz., the ratepayers would have direct representation on the body that has the spending power, whereas under the present system under which distress committees are elected, that representation is only indirect. A man may be elected to the town council with a view to his representing the community on the distress committee, but the electorate have no guarantee that he will be elected a member of the distress committee by the town council.

Advantage of administration of Unemployed Act by Town Council.

Constitution of Distress Committees.

Objection to administration of Unemployed Act by Parish Councils.

Objection to the term "Distress Committee," alternative term suggested.

Reasons for constitution of a Central Body and Distress Committee at Dalbeattie.

41. If, however, there is to be a separate body to administer the Act, I think the present constitution of distress committees satisfactory. The co-opted members especially, in my experience, have been among the most active of the members of distress committees, and have taken a large share of the work.

42. I would not favour the administration of the Unemployed Act being under the charge of parish councils. I think the endeavour should be to keep relief employment quite distinct from poor relief, and it would be difficult to convince the public that there was no connection if the Act were administered by the parochial authorities.

43. In connection with this aspect of the case I may refer to the fact that great objection has been taken to the term "distress committee." Some committees in advertising their office, etc., have purposely omitted the word "distress," as it conveys to the minds of the public that it is connected with some form of charity, and as a result the *bona fide* working man out of employment—the very man the distress committees want to help—keeps clear of the place until he is driven there by sheer destitution. "Unemployed" committee would be preferable to "distress" committee.

CONSTITUTION OF CENTRAL BODIES AND SPECIAL COMMITTEES.

44. I may refer to the circumstances under which it was deemed advisable to constitute a central body and distress committee for the burgh of Dalbeattie, and I shall endeavour to show how cumbersome is the procedure that has to be followed to put the Act in operation in a burgh having a population of less than 10,000. In such a case there is no power to constitute a distress committee with the full powers of a central body as in the case of a burgh having a population of 10,000 and over.

45. This procedure is unfortunate, and quite unnecessary in places like Dalbeattie. It involves the creation of two bodies where one would suffice. It may be well to describe the steps that had to be taken. In the first place, the Board had to fix the number of members of the distress committee and of the central body. The town council and parish council had each to appoint from their own body the number of members prescribed by the Board's Order, and the clerk to the parish council had to communicate to the town clerk the names of the members appointed by the parish council. The town clerk had then, for the purpose of appointing the persons experienced in the relief of distress, to convene a meeting of the persons appointed by the town and parish councils. The county council and the distress committee had then each to appoint from their own body the prescribed number of members of the central body, and the county clerk was to communicate to the clerk to the distress committee the names of the persons appointed by the county council. The clerk to the distress committee was thereupon, for the purpose of appointing the prescribed number of co-opted persons, to convene a meeting of the members of the central body appointed by the county council and the distress committee. The central body thus completed calls another meeting, at which it may proceed to transact business.

46. It is difficult to conceive anything more cumbrous than the procedure here set forth. The county council, as such, were in no way interested in the distress from want of employment in Dalbeattie, and in constituting the central body care was exercised to limit the number of county councillors to the number representing the burgh. In fact, as far as possible, the central body and distress committee were composed of the same persons so as to avoid any conflict between two separate bodies working in one small area.

47. There may be cases where it is desirable to have within a specified area (e.g. a county) a central body and distress committee, supposing distress from want of employment to exist in various towns throughout the district, but, where the distress is limited to one particular burgh, it would be far better, in my opinion, to allow that burgh, subject, of course, to the consent of the Local Government Board, to have a distress committee with full powers, no matter what its population may be. I consider, therefore, that the words in the proviso to Sec. 2 (1) "with a population, etc.," to "not less than ten thousand" should be repealed so far as Scotland is concerned.

48. Similarly, I do not think it should be compulsory to establish both central bodies and distress committees in landward areas. In the majority of cases a distress committee with full powers is all that is necessary, composed as it is of county and parish councillors and persons experienced in the relief of distress. It should be left to the Local Government Board to decide whether the circumstances are such as to justify the establishment of a central body.

49. Where it is not considered desirable to have a distress committee, or a central body and distress committee, the Act provides for the establishment in certain cases of special committees, whose duties are merely to collect information with respect to the conditions of labour within their area by establishing, taking over, or assisting labour exchanges and employment registers.

50. By the adaptation clause (Sec. 5 (4)) to Scotland "county borough" is to read "royal, parliamentary, or police burgh with a population, according to the last census for the time being, of less than fifty thousand, but not less than twenty thousand." Unfortunately, the result of this is that burghs having a population of less than 20,000 may have a distress committee with full powers so long as they are not below 10,000, whilst they are precluded from having the less pretentious organisation of a special committee. There should be no restriction to the establishment of a special committee in any burgh save the consent of the Local Government Board, and the definition of "county burgh" in Sec. 5 (4) should be amended accordingly. There is no limitation in landward areas, it being open to the county council to apply to the Local Government Board for their consent to the establishment of a special committee in any district.

Cumbrous procedure in the case of burghs having a population less than 10,000.

Absence of necessity for constitution of central bodies and distress committees as well in small burghs and landward areas.

Duties of Special Committees.

Removal of restriction as to establishment of Special Committees desirable.

THE RATING CLAUSE.

51. Perhaps the most disappointing feature about the Act to those who have to administer it, is the rating clause. The absence of power to pay wages and other necessary expenses out of the rates has occasioned much trouble, and would indeed have rendered the Act practically inoperative had it not been for the assistance received the first year from the Queen's Unemployed Fund and latterly from the Parliamentary grant. The impossibility of working an Act of Parliament by the aid of such an uncertain source of revenue as voluntary contributions has been clearly proved, and I venture to submit that a Government grant given as a supplement to voluntary contributions is also a mistake.

52. It is true that where supreme efforts were put forth by some distress committees a fair amount of money was raised by voluntary contributions, but the general result experienced by all was that the effect of rating for the purposes of the Act was to stem the flow of charity. The public in general do not realise that the rates cannot be applied to pay the wages of the unemployed. They observe the item "Unemployed Workmen Act" in their burgh demand note and reach the conclusion that their voluntary subscriptions are no longer necessary.

53. The parliamentary grant was given as a supplement to voluntary contributions, and the Board in their circular to distress committees (October 19th, 1906) pointed out that every effort should be made to obtain contributions. They impressed on distress committees the absolute necessity of taking all practicable steps for the purpose, and added that in the administration of the grant they would have regard to the efforts made with this object. It was found that the efforts varied very considerably. Some distress committees were content merely to put a short advertisement in the local paper; others issued a personal appeal; and in one or two exceptional cases personal effort was made by leading members of the distress committee among their own friends. Now, to administer a grant in supplement of voluntary contributions where in one case a feeble effort had only been made to collect subscriptions and in another case where substantial efforts had been made, and to do justice to all concerned, was a task not easy to accomplish. It was obviously unfair to those who had gone to a lot of personal trouble to gather funds to penalise them by withholding the grant, and equally unfair to give large grants to places where little or no efforts were made. On the other hand, little effort in one locality may produce as much money as great effort in another. The Board, in view of these circumstances, apportioned the grant in proportion to the expenditure incurred by each distress committee, and allowed each distress committee to profit to the extent of its own efforts in raising voluntary contributions so long as the sum standing to the credit of the voluntary contribution account was not excessively large. In future distributions of the grant, I should not be inclined to insist on efforts being made to obtain voluntary contributions. I would prefer to fix an amount (the amount to be based on previous experience) and apportion it among the distress committees in proportion to their needs, and leave them to supplement the grant by voluntary contributions if necessary.

54. Another point of importance in regard to the distribution of a parliamentary grant is to endeavour to prevent its use as a means for relieving the rates. In some cases I regret to say the parliamentary grant has simply been used in relief of rates or other corporation funds, and yet it is difficult to attribute blame to the town councils. As already explained, town councils were in the habit of relieving the unemployed, and frequently the cost (sometimes considerable) was met out of the burgh common good. Immediately on the passing of the Unemployed Workmen Act, however, the town councils felt they were under no further necessity to take action. The distress committee, on the other hand, were penniless, and had to be financed by the Queen's Fund and the parliamentary grant or remain practically inactive. But had there been no Act of Parliament the town councils would have met all expense, and the unemployed would no doubt have fared just as well. Indeed, if a town council take an unscrupulous view of the situation it is not easy to avoid the grant

being spent in direct relief of rates. As already explained, distress committees are helpless to initiate ordinary relief work; they must rely on the town councils or other local authorities. These local authorities provide work, but may quite well decline to pay even the contract value of the work done, and the distress committee, if they are to assist the unemployed at all, must pay the wages. In such circumstances it is possible to conceive committees of the streets of the burgh being repaired by unemployed labour at the instance of the distress committee, and, of course, out of the parliamentary grant. I know of one case where the distress committee have expressed the opinion that the quality of the work done by the unemployed in a town was almost equal to work done under ordinary conditions, and yet the town council asked the distress committee to pay a large proportion of the wage bill.

55. The Board no doubt might refuse to pay a grant under such conditions, but the punishment would rest on the wrong shoulders, viz., on those of the distress committee, and in turn of course on those of the unemployed.

56. I am afraid the principle on which the value of the work done by the unemployed is calculated is not always beyond suspicion. At any rate in one case to my knowledge the loss is never less than the amount of the parliamentary grant received by the distress committee.

57. The only remedy is to compel distress committees to initiate relief work themselves and to give the grant only in respect of such work. But, as already stated, ordinary relief work cannot be provided by the distress committee. If they are to provide work directly they can only do so by means of a farm or labour colony.

RESIDENTIAL QUALIFICATION.

58. The Act provides that a distress committee shall not entertain an application from any person unless they are satisfied that he has resided within their district for a period of not less than twelve months immediately preceding his application. While approving generally of this restriction, I am of opinion that power should be given to the Local Government Board to allow distress committees to relax it in certain cases. Several instances have come under the Board's notice where this rule has operated harshly. Indeed some of the most deserving cases—men who are anxious to get work and who are always on the move looking for it, and, in consequence, are seldom twelve months in one place—are those who have not the residential qualification. The restriction operates very harshly in towns contiguous to one another, e.g., Edinburgh and Leith. It frequently happens that labouring men move from Edinburgh to Leith and *vice versa* without having acquired a residential qualification in either place. Again, a man may have been resident in a place and in regular employment for some time. He leaves perhaps for employment in the country and returns at the completion of the job in (say) three months' time, and is then unemployed. He is thus debarred from registration by the distress committee for relief work of any kind. There should be power, I think, to refer such cases to the Local Government Board, who should be authorised to permit the distress committee dealing with them if that body wishes to do so.

LABOUR EXCHANGES.

59. I think the principle underlying the organisation of labour exchanges is sound, and that in course of time such exchanges may become of great service both to employers seeking workmen, and to the workmen themselves. I am therefore disposed to encourage the establishment of labour exchanges in all populous centres, and I think it should be part of the duty of the Local Government Board to exercise a general supervision over the local authorities with a view to seeing that such exchanges are properly conducted.

60. The exchanges established by distress committees in Scotland cannot, so far, be said to have been a great success. The reason, in my opinion, is that the men who have registered with distress committees—like those applying for relief work—are not the class likely to give satisfaction to employers. The natural impulse of a distress committee is to get the men off their hands, and they send them out with little or no regard for qualification. The distress committee seem to lose sight of the fact that the first step to ensure the success of a labour

Mr. Charles Cleveland Ellis.

14 Jan. 1908.

Inability of distress committees to initiate relief works. Difficulties as to payment of cost of relief works.

Objection to method of calculating value of relief work.

Hardship of residential qualification.

Reason for non-success of exchanges.

Mr. Charles
Cleveland
Ellis.

14 Jan. 1908.

Reason for
non-success
of Scottish
labour
exchanges.

exchange is to enlist the support and sympathy of employers, and that this can only be done by supplying first-class workmen.

61. As an example, I may refer to a case that came under my notice of an employer who took a personal interest in the proceedings of a newly established distress committee and its labour exchange, and who applied to the exchange for certain workmen. In response to the application men were sent who had registered as belonging to the particular trade required. The employer informed me that he found it impossible to continue to employ these men for any length of time. He had nothing to say against their character, but, to put it plainly, their best days were past. They took nearly twice as long to perform the duty allotted to them as younger and more efficient men would have done. He stated that he could not afford to engage men of that type, and would naturally hesitate to apply again to the labour exchange.

89050. (Chairman.) We have had a great deal of evidence as regards the Unemployed Workmen Act in England, and a certain amount of the statements which you make in your Memorandum have been rather covered by that evidence; therefore, I only propose to put questions to you on those points where the Scottish practice is different from the English, or where the administration of the Act has produced results rather different from those which have been brought to our notice in England. I see that in pursuance of the Act, distress committees were constituted in nine burghs with populations of over 50,000?—That is so.

89051. And also in five burghs with populations of under 50,000?—Yes.

89052. In addition to that, you received an application, I think, from the burgh of Dalbeattie which presented rather special features?—Yes, that is so.

89053. Then you refused to put the Act in operation in certain cases, that is in the four parishes of the Lews and in the burgh of Stornoway, and you also refused to place the Act at the disposal of the Congested Districts Board in reference to the Stoer district of the parish of Assynt in Sutherlandshire?—That is so.

89054. In both cases you have fully explained your reasons, have you not, for believing that it was not intended that the Act should apply to those places?—Yes.

89055. Previous to the passing of this Act, had the councils in burghs made any special provision for the unemployed, or spent any special sums on the unemployed?—The town councils always had to deal with the unemployed prior to the passing of the Unemployed Workmen Act, and they have frequently had to expend money in the relief of the unemployed.

89056. It has been represented to us, I think, by certain witnesses that this has so far become the practice in certain boroughs in England that one of the objections to the Unemployed Workmen Act was rather that it regularised and legalised this action; had it assumed such dimensions in Scotland?—I think not. With the exception, perhaps, of Edinburgh and Glasgow, I think it had not assumed those proportions in Scotland.

89057. What form did the assistance take? Did they postpone work till winter, or did they set up special works?—Very much with that object work was postponed and relief work organised during the winter months.

89058. I suppose the climate of Scotland is more rigorous than that generally experienced in England, and that has an effect, I take it, on the building trade?—Yes, to a very large extent; and of course it also interferes with the provision of relief work. Very often the weather is such that relief work—out-of-door work that is to say—cannot be carried on.

89059. I see you followed the same course as was followed in the later English regulations, relaxing the rules in respect of applicants who had been in receipt of parochial relief?—The Scottish Regulations have all along differed from the English Regulations in regard to applicants in receipt of parochial relief. Such relief in Scotland is no bar to an applicant receiving assistance under the Unemployed Act.

89060. I think the most important distinction that you made was that you did not lay down the rule that was in force in England that the remuneration of the person employed should be less than that which, under ordinary circumstances, would be earned by an unskilled labourer?—That is so.

89061. Can you amplify the reasons why you arrived at that decision?—I think the main reason was that the Board foresaw at once that it was likely to bring distress committees into conflict with the trade unions, and that it was better to leave the question of remuneration to the distress committees themselves rather than that the Board should lay down any special regulation.

89062. It has been represented to us here that if the remuneration was the same, it would be of great attraction to certain persons?—I understand that has been urged.

89063. Was that the effect in Scotland?—I do not think so; because although the standard rate of wages has been paid in most cases the hours have been shortened and only three or four days' work per week has been given, so that the total pay has been really less than what a man would have obtained under ordinary conditions.

89064. The rate was the same?—The rate was the same, but the hours were less.

89065. It is sometimes represented to us that that is rather an attraction to the class that come for assistance?—Yes. I have heard it said, too, that in the case of the casual labourer it is rather a disadvantage. The casual labourer is sometimes better off under the Unemployed Workmen Act than he would be at his ordinary occupation.

89066. That is to say, that he got more continuous work?—Yes.

89067. Have you got the result of the expenditure tested by the work done?—I have not given that in my Memorandum, but it is given in the Report of the Local Government Board for Scotland.

89068. How did this regulation that the wage should be the same affect the Return, do you think?—Table XI. in the Report by the Local Government Board for Scotland as to the proceedings of distress committees in Scotland for the year ended May 15th, 1907, gives particulars of the receipts and expenditure.

89069. Is the value given there of the work done?—One of the columns in that table gives the receipts for the work performed by the unemployed.

89070. The value was appraised at a certain sum, I take it?—Yes.

89071. I see the total is given as £4,669, and that the wages in connection with that were £12,485; is that right?—Yes, that is so.

89072. I see that Dalbeattie is one of the committees shown on the table?—Yes, but the figures for Dalbeattie are insignificant.

89073. Dalbeattie was a case where there were a number of persons who had been in permanent employ and were thrown out of work owing to the cessation of some particular business, I think?—That is so.

89074. I want to see, if I can, whether the result of the work of persons who were in that position contrasts favourably with the work of those who were more or less in casual employ?—I do not think that is brought out by these tables. I think, as a matter of fact, that it contrasts very favourably, because the men were accustomed to rough work, and they really performed the relief work that was given to them to the satisfaction of the town council.

89075. Then so far as you know, no special inconvenience was experienced by the distress committees as the result of the rule that the wage should be the same?—No, I have not heard that any difficulties have been experienced.

89076. But you have left it optional to the various distress committees to frame their own scale?—Yes; that is really the point—that the Local Government Board for Scotland thought it was not a matter for them to regulate, but rather a matter for the discretion of the local committees.

Number of
distress
committees
constituted
in Scotland.

Refusal to
put
Unemployed
Act into
operation.

Relief of
unemployed
by town
councils.

Climatic
conditions
affect
provision of
relief works
in Scotland.

Parochial
relief no bar
to assistance
by distress
committees
in Scotland.

Absence of
restriction
to scale of
wages on
relief work
in Scotland

Position of
casual
labourers on
relief works

Value of
labour.

Wages scale
to be fixed
by each
distress
committee.

89077. Did you go behind their action at all? Did you note the difference or was there not any difference between the action of the various committees?—There has been a difference. In some cases, less than the standard rate has been paid and in other cases the standard rate has been paid. That is brought out in the Report of the Local Government Board.

89078. Can you trace any result from the difference?—No, I am not prepared to say that I can. In Table VII., Column 11, you will find particulars, showing where the men were paid at the standard rate or below the standard rate.

89079. Could we put alongside the wages paid the result? I suppose you have not got that?—We have not that information at hand, but it might be quite possible to prepare a statement embodying it.

89080. I think it would be advisable, and I think it would be very interesting if we got that, so that we could see what the effect was of paying a wage at the standard rate and paying a wage below the standard rate—as far as figures can show that. We should only want the amount of wage paid and the result, if you could kindly supply that?—Certainly, I will try. (*See Appendix No. I. (A)*).

89081. Passing on with your statement, I think there is nothing very special as regards the Queen's Unemployed Fund or the Parliamentary grant that I want to put to you. Now as regards labour exchanges, they have not been very successful with you, have they?—No, they have not.

89082. Has that had something to do with the class of application they recorded?—Certain distress committees, I see, though they declined to provide work, thought they were at liberty to receive applications?—That is so. The failure of the labour exchanges I think is largely due to the system on which they were organised. They were not properly organised, and the men, for the most part, who are in charge do not take that interest in the work which is necessary to make a labour exchange anything like successful.

89083. Were they linked up one with another?—No; they are quite independent one of the other.

89084. Was there one established in Glasgow?—There has been a labour exchange in Glasgow for a number of years which has not, I understand, been successful. It has now been handed over to the distress committee and they are taking steps to put it on proper lines.

89085. Do the trade unions object to the establishment of these labour exchanges do you know?—I believe they do, and I believe objection has been taken in Glasgow. On the other hand, however, the Edinburgh distress committee have started a labour exchange which promises to work out very well, and there they have the sympathy and co-operation of the trade unions.

89086. I suppose your department rather had in mind this sort of objection on the part of trade unionism when they did not impose a lower rate?—That is so.

89087. But that action has not had the effect in certain places that was anticipated, that is, it has not conciliated the trade unions?—No systematic effort has been made to co-operate with the trade unions other than in Edinburgh and Glasgow.

89088. I suppose, on the other hand, the employer has not had much recourse to these exchanges because he has assumed that they were connected with the class of person for whom the Unemployed Workmen Act was intended?—That is so. The great difficulty is to enlist the sympathy and support of employers.

89089. We have had a good deal of evidence from the English centres, and some of our witnesses are of opinion that if properly managed and linked up, these labour exchanges might be of great use to unskilled labour; do you agree with that?—Entirely.

89090. As regards the class of unskilled labourers, they might find these labour exchanges of very great use, might they not?—Yes; I am entirely of that opinion, and I think they should be established in all populous centres.

89091. You would, I take it, keep these labour exchanges separate from the Poor Law administration?—Yes, and

entirely apart from the administration of ordinary relief work. *Mr. Charles Cleveland Ellis.*

89092. Would you have them managed if possible, as they are sometimes managed, by joint committees of employers and employed?—Yes, I think that would be an advantage; and I think the system adopted in Edinburgh of having an advisory committee of the trade unions is also an advantage. *14 Jan. 1908.*

89093. Was it due to that, do you think, that the labour exchange was more popular in Edinburgh?—Yes.

89094. Would the big burghs be disposed to take the initiative in establishing labour exchanges, or do you think it would be necessary to have an Act of Parliament and to put compulsion upon them?—I hardly think it would be necessary to go to the length of an Act of Parliament. I believe that if pressure were put upon the municipalities they would undertake the establishment of labour exchanges.

89095. In Scotland, I understand, you suffer very much from the vagrant class, particularly in certain areas?—Yes.

89096. These labour exchanges, I think, might be utilised to a certain extent in reducing that evil, might they not?—Yes, to a certain extent I think they might.

89097. Because they would be able probably to give a pass or some stamp or certificate of character to the bona fide working man who was going about in search of employment?—Yes. Of course, it would really come in time that you would hardly expect the vagrant to be assisted by an ordinary labour exchange. He is not the man that would be sent to work from a labour exchange.

89098. It would distinguish between the man who was walking about really looking for work and the pure vagrant?—Yes, that is so.

89099. Now as regards the class of person that came up before the distress committees, the intention, as I understand it, of the Act was that it should deal with persons of good character who were habitually regularly employed, but for some temporary cause had lost their employment; apparently there were not many of that class who came up before the distress committees?—No. I think the majority of the applicants who are assisted by distress committees are not those who are temporarily out of work from exceptional causes over which they have no control. *Class of unemployed employed be and class actually assisted by Distress Committees.*

89100. Have you got any statement with you as regards their ages?—The ages are given in Table No. III of the Report of the Local Government Board for Scotland.

89101. The ages given in that table show very much the same characteristic as in England; that is to say, about 60 per cent., I think it is, were under forty years of age?—Yes. *Average age of applicants to Distress Committees.*

89102. Therefore, a very large proportion were under the age at which men are supposed to have reached the prime of life?—Yes.

89103. I suppose we may assume that a considerable number of these men are much the same class as go to the Poor Law, though they may be perhaps just a little above that class?—Yes, that is so. *Class of men as go to assisted.*

89104. I am referring to the class of men who are habitually casually and intermittently employed?—Yes, I understand.

89105. Then as regards the investigation, was there much difference in the methods of the various committees?—There was a very great difference indeed. I could give you one or two examples if you like. (Subsequently sent, *see Appendix No. I. (B)*). *Difference in methods of investigation by Committees.*

89106. I will just take some of the figures which you give in Paragraph 38. In Leith, 98 per cent. of those who applied were passed as qualified; in Dundee, 97 per cent.; in Edinburgh, 92 per cent.; in Aberdeen, 88 per cent.; and in Glasgow, only 39 per cent.?—That is so. Those figures that you have quoted are for the year ended May 15th, 1906, but the figures for the following year are more remarkable. In 1907, you will observe that in Edinburgh the whole of the applicants were found to be qualified, in Greenock, 96 per cent. of them, and so forth. *Proportion of applicants eligible for assistance in various towns.*

89107. I think the conclusion is obvious that it cannot be that the characters of the applicants in Glasgow were much worse, but that there was an investigation made

Mr. Charles Cleveland Ellis.

14 Jan. 1908.

Strictness of investigation in Glasgow as compared with other towns.

Administration of Unemployed Act by Town Councils desirable.

Operation of Unemployed Act as affected by illegality of able-bodied relief.

Medical examination of emigrants through Distress Committees. Advantage of administration of Unemployed Act by Town Councils.

Ability to work assumed in case of applicants to Labour Exchanges.

there, whereas in the other places there was scarcely any investigation, and what there was must have been of a very perfunctory character?—That is my opinion. Not only that, but in some cases—at least, in the case of one distress committee to my knowledge—the investigation has been fairly satisfactory, but the decision of the committee on that investigation has been open to question. I know of cases where the investigating officer has reported against an applicant, but the committee have passed him for work.

89108. The conclusion you arrive at is, that you doubt if it is necessary to have an entirely separate body to administer this Act?—Yes; for the reasons given in paragraph 40 of my statement.

89109. What sort of body would you suggest should administer it—something more connected with the administration of the Poor Law?—No. I am rather against coupling it with the Poor Law. I think if you are to relieve the man who is out of employment you need to keep the organisation as far as possible disconnected from the Poor Law.

89110. The co-opted members, in your judgment, did well; if you had a free hand, what sort of body would you suggest?—I think that the corporations might quite well be entrusted with the administration of the Act; my experience so far leads me to that conclusion.

89111. The corporations have not now officials who are accustomed to this class of investigation?—No, but they could appoint the necessary officials and co-operate with the Poor Law authorities, as at present.

89112. Do you think the fact that able-bodied relief is illegal in Scotland at all affected the working of this Act?—I am not prepared to say that it has to any great extent, though I may mention a case which came under my observation the other day of a man who came to a labour exchange to which he had been referred by the sheriff. He had applied first of all to the parish council, and they refused him relief on the ground that he was able-bodied; he then went to the sheriff, who said he could not grant an order for relief on the ground that the man was able-bodied, and he referred him to the labour exchange, adding in a note to the superintendent that he thought it was a deserving case. The labour exchange record of the man was not altogether creditable, and in any case the Superintendent was not in a position to provide him with work. The man said that he was at starvation point and certainly looked it. The difficulty is to know how to deal with cases of that kind.

89113. There was no medical certificate or examination of the individuals who came up under the Unemployed Workmen Act, was there?—No, only in the cases for emigration.

89114. Your idea would be then to make this work an adjunct to the work of the town councils?—I think so, for the reasons given in Paragraph 40 of my Statement. Just now twelve out of fourteen distress committees in Scotland are doing nothing more than the town councils have done hitherto, and it is obviously quite unnecessary to have a separate body if they are merely to go to the town council and ask them to provide relief work.

89115. Do you then assume that the Act, wherever it was in operation, would require you to have two relief bodies in every burgh—the parish council and the town council?—Yes; the parish council for Poor Law purposes pure and simple, and the corporation or the distress committee, as the case may be, for the unemployed.

89116. Is not the dividing line between a great many of those who come up before these distress committees and those who apply to the Poor Law very thin?—Yes, it necessarily is in some cases.

89117. Therefore, would not having two authorities in the same area and in many cases almost doing the same work, lead to great confusion?—I do not think so. I think it would be possible to distinguish between a case that is more suitable for treatment under the Poor Law and one for which work should be provided.

89118. Is it the assumption that all those who come under this Act and who apply for assistance are able-bodied?—That certainly is the assumption.

89119. They belong to the social class which receives relief from the Poor Law, but they themselves are dis-

qualified from receiving that relief, because they are able-bodied?—Yes.

89120. Now let us turn to the special circumstances at Dalbeattie, which you consider in Paragraph 11. I see there was a quarry there which employed a certain number of persons and which ceased working; why did that quarry cease working?—Owing to the depression of trade.

89121. What was the number of persons who, it was calculated, were thrown out of employment in that way?—I think, roughly, about 100.

89122. What has happened to them? What relief was provided for them—were they emigrated or migrated or are they still there?—A few were migrated, but the majority are there. The works opened again after a spell of five or six months and have been in progress ever since.

89123. The Act there, I assume, has, in your judgment, operated beneficially?—Yes. I think it is the best illustration that we have had of where the Act has been of advantage.

89124. (Mr. Patten-MacDougall.) How much money was granted to them?—£200 from the Queen's Fund, I think, and then they raised locally a sum.

89125. (Chairman.) From the rates or voluntarily?—Voluntarily they raised about £200.

89126. Did they get their administrative expenses paid by the rates?—Yes.

89127. You found that the procedure was a cumbrous procedure in the case of a burgh like Dalbeattie which had a population of less than 10,000?—That is so.

89128. But does it not cut both ways? Would it not be rather a dangerous innovation to let any small district set up a distress committee?—I do not think so in the case of burghs. A burgh is a complete unit in itself, and I think it would not be dangerous to have a distress committee in each burgh. Establishment of a Distress Committee in every burgh desirable.

89129. Would you make the Unemployed Workmen Act a permanent Act and allow any burgh to set up a distress committee, or would you make that subject to the sanction and approval of the Local Government Board?—I would make it subject to the sanction and approval of the Local Government Board.

89130. If it was once set up it would be set up only for a certain time and you would require fresh sanction for its renewal?—Not necessarily. I think once the committee was established there would be no reason to disestablish it, because if there was nothing for them to do there would be no need for them to meet and no harm would be done.

89131. Would not great pressure be put on local authorities whenever there was any temporary wave of depression to have recourse to its distress committee and to open works?—That has not been the experience in Dumfries, for instance, where a distress committee has been established. They have done nothing up to the present time.

89132. Going on now to your paragraphs which deal with the Rating Clause, that clause, I assume, is the same in Scotland as in England, where there was a limit as regards the expenditure and it was applied only to administrative purposes?—That is so.

89133. Would you like to go further?—Yes. I think that power should be given to rate for wages; in fact for all expenses I would say. Power to rate for wages desirable.

89134. Assume you have that power, would not the danger I have suggested become a real one; would there not be constant pressure on the local authorities to use these distress committees, and would not the local elections to a certain extent depend upon the replies which candidates gave on that question?—To a certain extent they might, but if the cost has to be borne by the rating authority I think that that is a sufficient safeguard in itself.

89135. In Glasgow, where there is so much casual labour, there will always be a distress committee, I assume?—Certainly.

89136. And in operation?—Yes.

Operation of the Dalbeattie Distress Committee.

89137. Would not the result be rather to increase the amount of casual labour, or, at any rate, not to diminish it? Would it not attract people to come and take up residence in Glasgow, or anyhow prevent persons who had taken up residence there from leaving Glasgow, if they knew there was always this machinery available to help them if they could not get employment?—I am not prepared to say it would, especially looking to the very strict system of investigation which takes place in Glasgow.

89138. Going on with that part of your statement which deals with finance, you are doubtful, I see, as to the method in which the value of the work done is calculated?—Yes; I think there is reason to be suspicious in some cases.

89139. Which way? Is the loss made too great, or not enough?—Too great, as a rule, though there are instances where the loss has been under-estimated.

89140. If you had your permanent distress committees would you associate them with farm colonies or labour colonies?—Yes, I would. I think the farm colony is an indispensable adjunct to the work of a distress committee.

89141. But you would still have a separate authority, I take it; you would not give the whole work over to the parish council?—No, I would have a separate authority.

89142. Would it not be advisable that the parish council should also, if there is a farm colony, have authority to utilise that farm colony or labour colony, as it might be?—Yes. As I said before I think that there should always be co-operation between the authority under the Unemployed Workmen Act and the parish council. That, I think, is essential.

89143. The result of your experience is that you would like the Unemployed Workmen Act renewed or made permanent?—Yes, if it could be amended.

89144. And greater powers given to the burgh councils as regards raising funds?—Yes.

89145. But you would keep the administration of this work separate and distinct from the Poor Law?—I would.

89146. (*Mr. Benthams*.) In Paragraph 35 you refer to what you call the wastrel or loafer; you prefer that this class should be kept from both the prison and the poor-house; do you mean they should not come under the Poor Law?—Yes. My idea is rather to have a penal colony.

89147. The penal colony would require management by some one—by whom?—I think the penal colony should be under the authority that administers the Unemployed Workmen Act, whether that is the distress committee—

89148. Or the town council?—Or the town council.

89149. That would mean that the town council or distress committee would not only be providing work for what you would call the honest unemployed but would also be running a colony for loafers?—Yes. You eliminate the loafer from the ordinary poor who are chargeable to the parish council.

89150. In paragraph 36, you suggest that the “unemployed from old age or possibly some slight physical defect” should also be provided for in some other way than under the Poor Law?—Yes.

89151. By another kind of colony?—That is so.

89152. Who would manage that colony?—The same body.

89153. What would there be left for the Poor Law if you do that?—You would still have the ordinary poor who are more suited for Poor Law treatment and who are not fit for work.

89154. The wastrel is one who may be fit for work but does not like it, and the person who is aged or slightly physically defective is one who cannot do it if it is offered him; and there is the able-bodied person whose case you think is a proper case to be dealt with by the town council. That makes three separate and distinct classes, all of which are to be dealt with by the town council or the distress committee?—Yes. But I would not propose that those who are too old to give a reasonable day's

work should be treated in the farm colony; they, I think, *Mr. Charles Cleveland Ellis.* are more for treatment by the Poor Law authority.

89155. You say “the farm colony is probably the best place for those people,” that is, the people who are aged or physically defective; if that be so, the class you refer to do not come under the designation of Poor Law cases, or of the able-bodied who are now dealt with by distress committee; is that not the idea?—That is so.

89156. If all these three distinct and separate classes are dealt with by the town council, would that not be really making the town council into a kind of Poor Law authority?—To a certain extent that is so; but there is still a line, I think, by which it is possible to distinguish between those who may be chargeable to the Poor Law and those who are better fitted to work.

89157. I am afraid I do not quite see your meaning?—There are some obviously not fitted to work.

89158. Not fit physically?—Yes. There are others who may in a less degree be fit to work, but they might not be able to give a fair day's work, and they might be very much opposed to being put upon the Poor Law. I think for those it would be desirable to give them a chance on a farm colony.

89159. A farm colony not under the Poor Law?—Not under the Poor Law.

89160. In forming these three classes are you disregarding all moral considerations, that is, all questions of character?—No. I think that if you have a penal colony and the other colony, whatever you may term it, it would be possible to have a classification. I would not, for various reasons, put the respectable working man alongside the loafer, or the man, say, who had been convicted.

89161. Is your idea in suggesting that these classes should be dealt with by the town council that it could do it better than the parish council could do it?—No, that was not my intention at all. What I had in view rather was our present experience in Scotland where the distress committees are doing nothing more than what the town council did before. If they are to continue merely to provide work in that way—by simply going to the town council—the distress committees doing the investigation and that is all—if they are to go to the town council and merely ask them to provide work, it seems to me that the town council could quite well do the whole thing.

89162. But you have gone rather a step further than what the town council were doing before in suggesting that the loafer, the ne'er-do-weel, shall be handed over to the town council to be dealt with in a penal colony, and also that the person who is physically unfit and the aged should also be dealt with by the town council. They have not in the past been dealt with either by the town council or by the distress committee, have they?—No. I only make that suggestion if the town council are to become the authority under the Unemployed Workmen Act. I think all these should be under that authority.

89163. That means an extension really of what has hitherto been considered the desirable end of an Unemployed Workmen Act, that is, that the honest deserving man who is temporarily out of work through reasons over which he has no control should not come under the Poor Law, but should be dealt with by some other body. If that were the basis upon which a distress committee should be formed or powers should be granted to a town council, is it not necessary that they should be kept apart altogether from this ne'er-do-weel, and from the physically unfit and the aged?—It would be quite possible to do that, would it not, if you have your two classes of colony?

89164. I meant under a separate body—not dealt with separately under one body. If there is any necessity for the Poor Law at all, surely the ne'er-do-weel who is not a criminal, and the physically unfit, and the aged who have no other means are proper subjects for the Poor Law? Is there any reason for saying in Scotland to-day that those are not properly dealt with by parish councils and could be better dealt with by town councils?—Is there any reason for saying that they could not be?

89165. Are they not properly dealt with to-day, and could they be better dealt with under the town council

Mr. Charles
Cleveland
Ellis.

14 Jan. 1908.

Reasons for
suggesting
Town
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as Authority
under Unem-
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than under the parish council?—I do not say that they could be better treated under the town council, and I do not think they could. The parish council have no power to deal with the ne'er-do-well if able-bodied.

89166. You would have to grant the power, would you not, to the town council, so why should you not grant the power to the parish council to deal with these?—Simply because you want to make a distinction between the provision of work and Poor Law relief. That is the object of the Act, I think, to have a clear distinction and to keep the one separate from the other. If you bring it under the parish council I think that the provision of work then comes to be just simply a form of Poor Law; and the object of the Unemployed Workmen Act was to differentiate between the two, I think.

89167. You are drawing a line between that class of person who may do a small amount of work and that class who could do nothing, and you say that those who could do nothing should come under the Poor Law and those who can do a certain amount of work should come under this provision of work by the town council. Is not that the line you take?—Yes.

89168. Then there would only remain to the Poor Law authority the sick and the children; for instance, widows are able to work although they are not considered able-bodied in Scotland. There would still have to be some provision of work in the poor-houses, would there not, so that the people would not lead altogether useless lives there?—Yes. I would not propose to abolish the poor-houses.

Extension of
operations
of Unem-
ployed Act to
women
proposed.

89169. Would you extend this provision for work, if you draw the line at work, to women?—In suitable cases I think it might be extended to women, though the need for that I do not think is so great.

89170. You draw the line at the capacity to do any work rather than at the fact that it may be relief work. It is held, for instance, that there are able-bodied unemployed persons who might be able to earn all they get, in that respect they would not be receiving relief; but most of these two classes, the ne'er-do-weel and the aged and defective, would not be able to earn all they got, and in that way you are making a town council into a relief body just as much so as the Poor Law authority is to-day, because the greater proportion of the people would get what they did not earn?—I would hardly go quite so far as that. I think that the classes to be dealt with by the authority under the Unemployed Workmen Act are those who to a large extent are able to earn what they get.

89171. They are?—They should be.

89172. That is not according to the experience of relief work in Scotland, is it?—Is there not always a loss?—There is always a considerable loss on relief work.

89173. Even with the picked men?—No, not in every case with picked men. I have known of instances of relief work where those who have had the charge of them have expressed themselves as quite satisfied with the work that has been performed—where the men have been picked.

89174. Generally speaking there is a loss on the work that is undertaken by the town councils and distress committees for the relief of unemployed, is there not?—Yes, generally speaking, that is so.

89175. If town councils were the recognised authorities for dealing with the three classes before mentioned, would not all such persons make their applications to the town councils to be dealt with rather than to the Poor Law authority?—They might, and I am not sure that that would be a disadvantage in the first place.

89176. Would you not have to set up practically all the machinery that is now in the hands of the Poor Law for discriminating between one class and another and to find out this ne'er-do-weel, this temporarily unemployed and this aged or defective person? All that machinery which is now in the hands of the parish council would have to be also in the hands of the town council, would it not?—No. I would not duplicate the machinery. As I have already stated I think that that can be met by co-operation between the two bodies as it is met just now. Take Glasgow; the whole investigation on behalf of the distress committee is done by the parish officials, and the Local Government Board in their regulations

recommend that the parish councils should place their officials at the disposal of the distress committees.

89177. But it is not imperative that they should do so, is it?—It is not imperative.

89178. Would you give the liberty to the town council to set up all the necessary machinery for this discrimination?—No.

89179. You would not?—No, I would not.

89180. Would you debar them from doing that?—I would not debar them entirely. I would allow them to have, as the distress committees have just now, their own investigating officers, but still to co-operate with the parish council.

89181. That may mean a duplicate set of investigating officers, would it not?—It would in certain instances.

89182. It would mean further than that, would it not? If you were to deal with those different classes there would have to be a little more discrimination, and you would want to make an examination of the men, would you not?—Not by the authority under the Unemployed Workmen Act, I think.

89183. If you are dealing with those who are not physically fit how would you know in which category a man should be put unless you got a medical certificate?—In the same way as they examine them now for relief work. I think that the fitness of a man for work can be usually seen *ex facie*.

89184. It can be seen by the officials who are taking the application?—Yes, and by the committee who investigate the case. They see if the man is really fit to undertake the relief work offered.

89185. Let us suppose that a man is tried on that superficial examination and is found to be unfit for work, then he would be relegated to the other class, I suppose?—Yes.

89186. And dealt with in another way?—Yes.

89187. That means machinery for the purpose, does it not, and similar machinery to what there is now under the parish council?—Yes, it might mean similar machinery which I quite agree it would be desirable to avoid if possible, and I think it might be avoided by proper co-operation between the two bodies. It works well in the instance I have mentioned in Glasgow.

89188. Would not the real proper co-operation be to merge the one into the other? Would not the matter then be considerably simplified?—I do not think so. I am still opposed to having the relief work made part of the Poor Law. If you merge the one into the other, I think you give it almost the stigma of pauperism.

89189. If all the other classes which are not to be dealt with by the town council were handed over to them, that is to say, if all the duties of the parish council were merged into those of the town council, then you would get rid of the whole thing. If there is a class that deserves to be stigmatised as paupers, is it not the class of the ne'er-do-weel and the loafer?—Yes.

89190. And you would remove that by placing the ne'er-do-weel and the loafer under the town council; so there seems little remaining under the Poor Law to earn the stigma, or to deserve the stigma. Therefore why not transfer the whole of the duties to the town council?—I do not think you should. I think it would be a mistake to place all the present duties performed by the Poor Law authorities under the town council.

89191. Then you would rather see the machinery duplicated?—No, I do not think it needs to be duplicated.

89192. Do you not think there would be a greater inducement for people, particularly the able-bodied or the semi-abled-bodied people, not to provide for themselves either by insurance or by their savings for a period of unemployment, if they know the town council has set up all this machinery for finding them employment when they need it? Have they not a less inducement to thrift and frugality when they know there is a sure organisation always ready for them?—I am afraid that is the effect of the present legislation.

89193. Do you not think it is advisable there should be some slight deterrent in some form or other which would deter these people from relying absolutely on these resources in time of need?—Yes but I, I do, do not quite see how that is to be carried out.

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proposed.

Method of
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Objection to
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Councils.

Thrift as
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Distress
Committees.

Classes to be
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under the
Unemployed
Act.

Financial
aspect of
relief works.

Effect of
administra-
tion of the
Unemployed
Act by Town
Councils.

Investigation
for Glasgow
Distress
Committee
by officer of
Parish
Council.

89194. You are sweeping most of the deterrents away, are you not, in your suggestions?—Yes. There is a difficulty I see, but then you have the really *bona fide* working man, who has nothing against his character, but who is temporarily out of employment, and you want to let him off as easily as possible without subjecting him to the same treatment and investigation that the ordinary ne'er-do-weel would be subjected to.

89195. I can understand some provision being made for that class under certain conditions which would safeguard, at any rate, the same case recurring year after year, and period after period; but you do not suggest any such thing, do you?—No, I do not.

89196. But that does occur even on some of these distress committees. You may notice that in Dundee, for instance, 65 per cent. of those dealt with in the second year had been provided with work in the previous year by the distress committee. That is rather a serious proportion, is it not?—It is.

89197. That might become a very serious danger, might it not?—Yes; that is a danger.

89198. Would you place no limit upon the number of times they may come?—It seems to me very difficult to place a limit in a case like that, because you might get quite a deserving case year after year of a man who is temporarily out of work. It is difficult to meet the one case without doing injustice to the other.

89199. Would you say that the wages of the working people, upon the whole, are not sufficient to provide for their being temporarily out of work?—No; I think in the majority of cases they are sufficient, and that the wages in trades where they have slack times are proportionately higher during the time they are employed.

89200. If you provide for these periods of unemployment, would not the tendency be to reduce their wages during the period of employment, simply because the period of unemployment was being provided for by the town?—I have always thought that that was a danger.

89201. A man who is honestly unemployed, you would say, should be provided with work under no unpleasant conditions, but a man who may be needing relief because he happens to be sick and has made no provision for a medical man, should be put under the Poor Law and stigmatised; therefore, the man who had been at work all the time and better able to provide for this temporary contingency than the sick man would not be stigmatised, but would be provided with honourable labour?—The person who is sick need not necessarily go to the Poor Law; he might be provided for by a Charity Organisation Society or other Charitable Institution.

89202. A man who is out of employ might not necessarily go to the town council, and he might be provided for by the societies that are already in Scotland. In Scotland you have these societies for improving the condition of the poor, and they have sprung up in Scotland because there is no provision for the able-bodied, I believe?—Yes, that is so.

89203. Those societies may all die out, if you recognise these claims, although they are quite as strong and as powerful, and have done quite as good work as other charitable societies; is that not so?—That may be the result.

89204. Therefore the unemployed man has no more need to go to the town council than the sick man has to go to the poor law, yet you would stigmatise the man who is in need because he is sick, and you would not stigmatise, and do not want to stigmatise the able-bodied man who needs less sympathy than any, if sympathy enters into it at all. Are you not getting on to rather a slippery slope in this?—As I said before, you should certainly keep every person off the Poor Law if you possibly can.

89205. Why? If it is relief in another form, why should it not be under the Poor Law? It is relief that you do not want, and you say you want to keep the man away from relief; but it does not matter what you may call it, whether it is Poor Law or anything else, it is really relief in the end, and though you are keeping him off one form of relief, you are only doing that by providing another which might be more dangerous and which you admit is more dangerous?—I see there is something in that, but I still think that there are reasons for

distinguishing between employment relief in the sense of the Unemployed Act and Poor Law Relief. *Mr. Charles Cleveland Ellis.*

89206. (Professor Smart.) Relative to these labour colonies, in whom does the title of the farm colony, for example, vest?—The distress committee. 14 Jan. 1908.

89207. In the person of the chairman and the clerk?—Yes. Vested ownership of farm colonies.

89208. What will happen in October of this year when the distress committee comes to an end presumably?—It would remain for the Local Government Board under the Act to make provision. They have full power to make provision for the transfer.

89209. It would not go back to the Local Government Board?—Not necessarily; the Act makes provision for that. They have power for dissolving central bodies and distress committees established under the Act and transferring their property and liabilities; and then certain sections of the Local Government (Scotland) Act, 1894, are applied by which they could transfer the property to the town council if they thought fit. Power of Local Government Board to transfer property and liabilities of Distress Committees.

89210. If the town council refused to take it, what would happen?—Then we have power, I suppose, to sell it or do anything we think fit.

89211. That is the Local Government Board for Scotland have?—Yes.

89212. Has Edinburgh got a colony yet?—Yes. They have purchased an estate quite recently of about 201 acres. It is a very suitable place indeed. Farm colony of Edinburgh Distress Committee.

89213. Have you seen the Glasgow colony?—I have.

89214. How does it compare with the Edinburgh colony?—I prefer the Edinburgh colony to the Glasgow colony. It is about half the size, but it is more complete and possesses certain natural advantages.

89215. Have the Govan people got a colony?—They have it under consideration, but they are inclined to let the matter drop until they see what is to happen to the Act, I think.

89216. The cost, I think, has to be defrayed in ten years, has it not?—That is so. Loans for purchase of farm colony land; period of repayment, sinking fund, etc.

89217. What provision is made for the repayment?—The repayment is to be by annual instalments of principal and interest. There is also a sinking fund for the purpose of paying off the bonds on the property.

89218. And the sinking fund would come out of what?—Out of the rates; the whole thing is being defrayed from the rates.

89219. In Paragraph 36 you speak of those suffering from slight physical defects; would you not include those suffering from a slight want of intelligence?—I had not thought of that. I hardly think so.

89220. I do not mean enough to put a man into a lunatic asylum, but enough to prevent him having any initiative in making his own living—a man who would work if he was told what to do and where to go, but who would never find work for himself. Do you not think that class is naturally quite as unfortunate as the physically defective?—I think they are.

89221. I see you propose in this paragraph what is practically a working home for the aged poor and physically unfit?—It comes very much to that. Farm colonies for aged and physically defective poor.

89222. That is a very large order, of course?—It is, and I feel that; but that is the difficulty, I think, of the problem.

89223. Your argument would be that if the tendency of modern conditions, by which the State benefits, has been to take work from men, then the State must provide work for them?—I think so.

89224. Now with reference to these unfortunate men who went to Ballachulish; was any inquiry ever made as to why these men returned?—I made inquiry only last week, and the reasons given to me are that the accommodation was anything but satisfactory, that the men would not live in the tents that were provided, and that the food was too dear. Reason for non-success in sending men from labour exchange to Ballachulish.

89225. The food was too dear, how was that?—Of course, it is a very inaccessible part, and I suppose canteens and all that would have to be provided. They complained that they had to pay too much for the food.

Mr. Charles
Cleveland
Ellis.

14 Jan. 1908.

Cost of
sending men
from Dundee
to Ballachulish.
Amount
repaid by
men.

89226. It is a very wild district, is it not?—Very.

89227. How did these people get back to the towns, do you know—did they tramp?—I am not sure that I can answer that question, but in some cases I believe they worked sufficient to pay their fares. For instance, in Dundee, I think the cost of sending the men out was something like £10, and the distress committee have been repaid by the men, £8 17s. 11d., I think.

89228. Have you any reason to believe that the work was harder than ordinary?—I do not think so.

89229. (Mr. Patten-MacDougall.) A number of them applied for relief afterwards in the neighbourhood; is that within your knowledge?—I believe that was so.

89230. (Professor Smart.) This refusal to work was not due to Highland characteristics at all, because these were townsmen, were they not?—Yes, they were townsmen.

89231. In the distress committees, where, as you say, everyone practically got relief, that was in frank disregard of the law?—That is so.

89232. You find some clerks, for example, who connive at the breaking of the law as well as distress committee members, do you not?—I have had one experience of that kind.

89233. But generally the clerk tries to keep his people on the rails?—Yes.

89234. You speak of the labour exchange in Glasgow being on good and proper lines; are you aware that it is to be brought under the distress committee?—That is so.

89235. You would not call that the proper lines according to the ideas you have put forward?—Yes.

89236. It is to become a branch of the distress committee and nothing else?—That is so, but it is to be kept quite apart from any provision of relief work.

89237. Still it will have all the stigma—whatever stigma is going it will have?—I do not think so, because to the public it will simply be continued as the municipal labour exchange, and I think it is doubtful if any stigma will attach to it.

89238. What salary was attached to the superintendent, do you know?—I am not prepared to say.

89239. Was it £125?—I do not know; I have never heard the salary.

89240. Do you think you would get a man capable of managing a labour exchange for £125?—I should say that that would be a minimum wage.

89241. Has not the head of a labour exchange, as part of his duties, to interest employers in the scheme?—Yes.

89242. So he must be a man of education to be able to go to employers and command their attention?—He must.

89243. Then with regard to the small number of applicants who were granted relief in Glasgow, is that not very much due to the fact that their investigator was a principal official of the Poor Law?—That is so.

89244. One of the best Poor Law officials we have, in fact?—That is so.

89245. It is not always an official of the Poor Law who is the investigator, is it?—No; that is the only case in Scotland in which the investigator is an official of the Poor Law.

89246. In all cases are the resources of the Poor Law put at the disposal of the distress committees?—No, they are not. That is where I think there is a mistake.

89247. This is the only case then where advantage has been taken of the Poor Law?—I will not say it is the only case where advantage has been taken. I am pressing now that there should be more co-operation between the Poor Law and the distress committee. In several cases there is slight co-operation.

89248. Did you ever hear anything alleged against the Poor Law investigator on the ground that he was a Poor Law investigator?—No, I have heard no complaint of that kind.

89249. In regard to the case where the distress committee assessed the value of the work at a very different figure from the town council, should we not remember that the distress committee which says that the work was almost equal is not quite an impartial authority?—That is so, but I have had evidence of town officials who have stated that the work was quite equal to that done under ordinary conditions.

89250. Then with regard to this twelve months' residential qualification which you deal with in Paragraph 58, is that not in itself rather a drawback to mobility—that mobility which we think so necessary? Does it not re-enact the old Law of Settlement in fact?—It may have a tendency in that direction, but the object, of course, is to prevent dumping.

89251. In any city, for example, very often the best thing to do is to remove these unemployed men at once, and then they become disqualified for distress committee work?—Yes.

89252. That is very serious, is it not?—It is; but that is just the class of case that I think should be treated as exceptional.

89253. To make an exception—that is how you would put it?—That is how I would put it.

89254. (Mr. Phelps.) In reference to Paragraph 6, where you refer to the constitution of the distress committees, I see the Act provides as to their constitution that they should consist partly "of persons experience in the relief of distress"; is it your experience that that has been carried out?—Yes.

89255. Could you give me an idea of the kind of persons who come in under that head?—In several instances members of Charity Organisation and other similar Societies have served on distress committees.

89256. Any ministers of religion?—We have had a minister of religion.

89257. Was he co-opted under this head?—He was co-opted.

89258. One member has to be a woman; that has been strictly carried out, I suppose?—Yes, in every case.

89259. Have you experience of more than one woman being elected?—Yes.

89260. Have you any experience of committees dealing with unemployed women?—Not to any extent. Very little has been done for unemployed women in Scotland.

89261. It is difficult to speak as to the motives of the persons who frame an Act, but do you imagine it was in their minds that the unemployed women would be taken into consideration?—I think so. It never occurred to me that women were excluded.

89262. Take, for instance, Dundee, there is a great deal of women's work there, is there not?—Yes.

89263. Is the question of unemployed women a pressing one there?—No, because the unemployment there is with the men; the women are very seldom unemployed.

89264. As I say, the question has not been a burning one?—No.

89265. Will you refer now to Paragraph 36, about which a good deal has been said. You say there that the class of people you have in your mind whom modern conditions of employment have thrown out of employment, is a large and increasing one. I do not think the figures quite bear that out, do they. Take your own Table III., which shows the residence, condition, and age of applicants. According to that table, the number of persons sixty years of age and over is only 6.55 of the whole of the applicants?—That is, of course, dealing with the question of age alone.

89266. But a good deal of what you say would apply to aged people very much?—Yes.

89267. I quite admit that there is that impression abroad, but I should like to know what you base your statement upon?—Not only on age; I am also thinking of those who are not just up to the standard.

89268. To take an instance we have had quoted to us, a one-eyed man finds a difficulty in getting employment?—Yes, exactly.

Transfer of
Glasgow
corporation
labour
exchange to
Distress
Committee.

Duties and
salary of
superinten-
dent of labour
exchange.

Reason for
small number
of eligibles
among
applicants
to Glasgow
Distress
Committee.

Need for
increased
co-operation
between
Distress
Committees
and Parish
Councils.

Lady mem-
bers of
Distress
Committees.

Infrequency
of unemploy-
ment among
women in
Dundee.

Proportion
of persons 60
years of age
and upwards
to total
number of
applicants to
Distress
Committees.

reluctance to employ people over sixty?—Yes, and I have heard that stated in a number of cases.

89270. What do you think those people do if they do not go to the distress committee?—I do not know how they possibly get a living.

89271. Do they go to the Poor Law?—I am afraid they drift there sooner or later.

89272. But you do not know whether the applications to the Poor Law of that class are largely on the increase?—I am not prepared to answer that.

89273. You refer to the liability of employers under the Compensation Acts; have you had direct knowledge of the effect of that?—Only from what I have gathered in conversation with employers of labour, which is to the effect that they are more careful now as to the class of men they employ.

89274. Do the employers of labour with you insure, as a rule, against the Compensation Acts?—Yes.

89275. Do you know whether the insurance companies insist on any conditions?—I am not aware of it.

89276. Now take the case of the colonies which you describe, and first of all the penal colony; that you say would be managed by the distress committee?—Yes.

89277. Do you think that such a committee is able really to enforce the kind of discipline that would be wanted in a colony of that sort?—I think so.

89278. You do not think it would be necessary to put it under the police, or under convict management?—I do not think so.

89279. There has been no complaint under that head that the conditions were not strenuous enough then?—No.

89280. An immense deal would depend on the manager?—Yes, it would.

89281. Now with regard to the farm colony, the people who went there would be almost there for life, would they not?—Yes, they would in many cases.

89282. That is to say you practically would have to build villages in which people would live and cultivate the ground in the neighbourhood?—Yes. That is just the difficulty that I feel, that we are setting up an institution to practically keep these people for the rest of their lives.

89283. And you do not think that that provision under the Poor Law of cottage homes which you find in some parishes in Scotland is adequate for that?—I do not think it is adequate, but something on that line might be done.

89284. Take, for instance, a city like Glasgow; do you think it is at all possible to deal with the over sixty population by migrating them out into the country in that way?—I think it might be possible.

89285. But you would be met with great objections would you not, on the part of people habituated to a city to their being planted out into the country like that?—From the people themselves?

89286. Yes?—You probably would, but I think that that could be overcome.

89287. In the carrying out of the Act and in the work of the distress committees, have the committees found that there is a large class of persons within the meaning of the Act who are temporarily unemployed and require to be tidied over?—I would not say that they are a large percentage.

89288. Does much of their work really lie in that class?—In a number of distress committees the investigators led me to think that the number who are temporarily out of employment are not really the men whom the Act was intended to assist.

89289. That is to say the Act was passed for one purpose and has been used almost for another?—That is so.

89290. (Mr. Gardiner.) As regards the constitution of distress committees, how are the persons of experience in questions of relief appointed? Are they appointed by the parish council or by the town council?—The town council appoint their quota of members, and the parish council appoint their quota; these representatives meet, and they appoint the persons experienced in the relief of distress.

89291. Then neither the parish council nor the town council itself appoints the people of experience?—No, it is the representatives of these bodies.

89292. In reference to Paragraph 30, could you tell us what the distress committee of Glasgow are going to do with the 228 acres, the balance of the 591 acres, after the 363 have been set aside to be reclaimed?—I am not sure what they have in contemplation. At the present time they have started an ordinary farm with stock and sheep and so forth.

89293. Is the soil suitable for farming?—It is fairly suitable. It is rather of high altitude, but they hope to improve the soil.

89294. Is it a cold soil?—It is a cold soil.

89295. Is that good for cultivation?—I am not prepared to say.

89296. You have not gone into that?—No, I have not gone into that.

89297. As regards the investigation officers, to whom you refer in Paragraph 39, what qualifications have they?—In some cases there is very little qualification indeed.

89298. Have they not had any training?—No. There are exceptions, and in one or two cases the men have had special training.

89299. As inspectors of poor?—No. In one case the investigator was the investigator for the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, and he had a good deal of experience in that way.

89300. Would that qualify him for this particular work?—I think it would. My experience is that his reports are very satisfactory.

89301. What about the other investigating officers; have they had any training?—None whatever.

89302. Were they clerks, and that kind of men?—No. In some cases I think they were men out of employment who were simply put there by the distress committee.

89303. In order to find a job for them really?—That is so.

89304. Were other men who were unemployed employed as clerks?—Yes.

89305. If they happened to be clerks, they were put on as clerks to the distress committee?—Yes; to assist in the clerical work of the office.

89306. Does that system work well?—Where clerks have been so employed, I cannot say that it has been disadvantageous.

89307. On the whole, has the work been well done?—On the whole, yes, the work has been well done.

89308. And compares not unfavourably with the work of an ordinary parish council?—Not unfavourably. Of course the clerks who have been put on from the unemployed are mostly in junior positions; the head man is, as a rule, of a better stamp.

89309. They put on as these clerks men who cannot get work as clerks because of their grey hairs, and so on?—Yes, that has been done.

89310. (Mrs. Bosanquet.) Were these men who went to Ballachulish and came back again Glasgow men?—No; they came from Edinburgh, Glasgow, Dundee and Leith.

89311. Then some of them were Glasgow men?—I am not sure as to that, but I rather think that the Glasgow men were never sent.

89312. (Mr. Patten-MacDougall.) You say "not" in Paragraph 37?—At the time that statement was written the Glasgow Distress Committee had not sent men.

89313. (Mrs. Bosanquet.) It was circulated from Glasgow Distress Committee to the others, so I suppose that Glasgow had had first innings?—No, that was not so.

89314. Then the men who went to Ballachulish had not been subjected to the strenuous investigation of Glasgow?—They were supposed to be picked men.

89315. What was the investigation directed towards—discovering their want or their character or their capacity for work?—Both their character and their necessity.

Mr. Charles Cleveland Ellis.

14 Jan. 1938.

Glasgow farm colony situation, nature of soil, etc.

Qualifications of investigation officers.

Extent of investigation as to men sent to Ballachulish.

Mr. Charles 89316. Have you emigrated any people from Scotland ?
 Cleveland —Yes. Particulars of that will be found in the Report
 Ellis. of the Local Government Board for 1907. Particulars
 14 Jan. 1908. are given on p. 6 of the Report.

Emigration 89317. Do you always emigrate the whole family ?
 by Scottish —No; in a number of cases the dependants have been
 Distress left behind.

Committees; 89318. What happened to them ?—In every case in
 support of which a distress committee has emigrated people from
 dependents Scotland reasonable precautions have been taken to
 of emigrants. satisfy the committee that adequate arrangements were
 made for the support of the dependants, and that there
 was no prospect of their becoming chargeable to their
 respective parishes.

89319. Has not there been a good deal of emigration
 from Scotland where the dependants have become charge-
 able ?—I have heard that there has, but not through
 the agency of distress committees.

89320. Have they not contributed towards it ?—No.

89321. Have you known many cases where the distress
 committees have been terrorised by the unemployed ?
 —No, not to that extent.

89322. Have they been subjected to pressure ?—I do
 not think so. Pressure has been brought to bear in
 some places, but I would not go so far as to say that it
 has influenced the committees in their action.

Reasons for 89323. (Miss Hill.) When you recommend that the
 suggested transfer of administration of Un-
 employed Act to Town Councils. I base
 Present that solely on the ground that the distress committees up
 functions of to the present time are doing nothing more than simply
 Distress applying to the town councils to provide work. If this
 Committees. new body is merely to make an investigation and ask
 the town to provide work, it seems to me that the town
 could quite well do the whole thing.

Difficulty in 89324. Do you think it was the intention of the Act
 providing that they should limit themselves to that particular
 work for form of action ?—No; I do not think it was; but the
 unemployed. difficulty is to provide work for the unemployed.

89325. Then there is the question of emigration and
 migration ?—Yes; and I think migration has not been
 possible to any large extent.

89326. It would be possible, but of course it would
 soon come to an end if the investigation is to be such
 that where you have an opening for 1,000 or 1,500 men,
 as at Ballachulish, those who are sent all return within a
 day or two; that would stop migration pretty effec-
 tually, would it not ?—Yes.

89327. But that is not quite one's ideal of the work,
 is it ?—No.

Co-operation 89328. Then you say you think co-operation with
 desirable between the parish council is advisable; is not the mixed character
 of officers of the distress committees based on the necessity of that
 Distress co-operation ?—Yes; but I mean co-operation rather
 Committees and Parish with the officials.

89329. What about the people who are specially
 conversant with questions of relief? Ought they not
 to find a place if the distress committees have to go on
 at all with their work ?—Yes; their services are
 valuable on the investigation committee.

89330. But if you transfer it all to the town council
 what do you mean by the investigation committee—a
 committee of the town council itself ?—I think that it
 would be quite possible to have advisory committees of
 persons experienced in the relief of distress to act along
 with the town council just as they act along with the
 distress committee.

Constitution 89331. Then would you not come back very much to
 of Distress the formation of a distress committee as contemplated
 Committees. by the Act ?—To a certain extent you would, but I
 think you could appoint the representatives who were
 to act with the town council under certain conditions
 that would leave the responsibility more to the corpora-
 tion itself.

89332. And the corporation itself would be more
 likely, would it not, simply to treat the Act as a means

of giving recurrent labour, rather than looking any
 further? They are not specially qualified or trained,
 are they, in dealing with distress? Their work is different,
 is it not?—They have always had to deal with the un-
 employed.

89333. Do you think you should have three Authorit
 organisations—the parish council for the Poor Law dealing w
 work, the town council for the provision of employment, unemploy
 and then the distress committee ?—No, I would not prior to
 suggest that. What I said was that prior to the passing passing
 of the Unemployed Workmen Act the town have always Unemplo
 dealt with the unemployed. Act.

89334. But then the passing of the Act transferred
 that branch of their work to the distress committee ?—
 That is so.

89335. I fail quite to see, unless you are giving up all
 hope of certain branches of work under the Act, why
 you recommend the town council as the body to administer
 it ?—Because the distress committees find such difficulty
 in providing work, and as I have already pointed out
 they have to go to the town council and ask them to
 provide work.

89336. Why should they not do that? It seems
 a very natural and very clear division of labour that
 the distress committee would be taking up the other
 side of the work, and that when they were wanting
 a supply of work and could not supply it themselves
 they should go to the town council, who would have
 experienced surveyors and other people capable of
 judging of that branch of their labours ?—Then you
 see you have the further difficulty that the town say
 "Here is another body constituted, and we will do
 nothing more for the unemployed."

89337. (Mr. Patten-MacDougall.) As regards the finding Town im-
 of work for the unemployed, I think you are of opinion provement
 that a great deal of work has been in relief of rates, are carried out
 you not ?—That is true. at expense
 of Distress
 Committee

89338. That is the result of it ?—Yes.

89339. Can you illustrate that by a case that occurred ?
 —In one case to my knowledge the distress committee
 applied to the town to provide work, and the town said:
 "Very well; we will provide the work, but we are under
 no obligation to pay for it. This is work we would not
 have undertaken except to oblige you, and you must
 pay for it." In that way town improvements have been
 carried out at the expense of the distress committee, and
 as a result, of course, out of the Parliamentary grant,
 seeing that the distress committees are financed by the
 Parliamentary grant.

89340. That is a difficulty that occurs in almost every
 case, does it not, where the work is provided by the town
 council ?—That is liable to occur.

89341. Then another trouble which has arisen in Objection t
 connection with the working of the provisions of the making
 Act is as regards the voluntary contributions, is it not, Parliament
 which it has been laid down are essential before any ary grant
 portion of the grant is distributed ?—Yes. That was dependent
 an extremely difficult thing to negotiate. The principle on voluntar
 of distributing the grant on voluntary contributions, y contributions.
 I think, should be abolished altogether. Extreme diffi-
 culty was experienced in working out the conditions
 in the Circular issued by the Local Government Board
 for Scotland, in which in the first place they told distress
 committees that they would not give assistance unless
 it was genuinely required, and then further on they said
 that in the administration of the grant they would have
 regard to the efforts made to obtain voluntary contribu-
 tions. It was really impossible to carry out the two.

89342. The ratepayers' answer being, the appeal being
 made in this way: "We shall not give anything here
 where you have a Government grant available for the
 purpose" ?—Yes.

89343. That difficulty has occurred in almost every
 case, has it not ?—Yes.

89344. Although it has been met very substantially,
 at least fairly substantially, in most ?—Yes. Distress
 committees in Scotland have done fairly well to obtain
 voluntary contributions; but the difficulty has been
 to administer the grant with anything like fairness,
 because it was obviously unfair to a distress committee
 that had taken every possible means to obtain voluntary
 contributions to penalise them by withholding the grant.

89345. Last year I think that in the case of Glasgow it was found that it was really of no use appealing to the charitable community there, but the Corporation came forward with a contribution of a couple of thousand pounds from their own common good?—They did.

89346. In that way it was thought that they had quite become entitled to claim the grant, having contributed a voluntary contribution such as was asked under the conditions; is that not so?—Yes.

89347. Have you any experience of the working of the colony at Midlocharwoods?—I have experience of it.

89348. That is a farm colony in the neighbourhood of Dumfries, is it not?—That is so, and under the control of the Scottish Labour Colony Association, the object being the improvement of the social condition of the poor in Glasgow.

89349. Having in view what you said a little while ago, that you think the establishment of these farm colonies involves that those who are sent there shall remain there for a long period—possibly for life—what is the experience at Midlocharwoods of the people who are sent there, do you know?—They do not keep them there for any very long period; but of course the colony carried on at Midlocharwoods is somewhat different to any colony that would be established by a distress committee, because there they have in view solely the reclamation of men—it is carried on more from the religious standpoint than from the legal standpoint.

89350. Is it within your knowledge that one in four of those that are sent there goes back to a useful life?—I have heard that stated.

89351. It has been reported, but I do not think you would know that very well?—I have heard that.

89352. (*Mr. Phelps.*) Are they largely people suffering from alcohol?—To a large extent.

89353. (*Mr. Patten-MacDougall.*) But that is not an essential, is it?—No.

89354. I mean they are not the only people who are sent there?—No, but it is a licensed house for inebriates also.

89355. (*Mr. Phelps.*) Do you know what proportion are inebriates?—I cannot just recollect.

89356. (*Mr. MacDougall.*) Has anything been done in Scotland relative to the matter of Paragraph 12 of your Statement, where you deal with the provision in the Act for appointing special committees whose duties are to collect information respecting the condition of labour within their area?—Only at Hamilton and Motherwell, and in the county of Lanark.

89357. Has it been done there or have the committees merely been set up?—They have been set up, and in the cases of Hamilton and Motherwell they have received a few applications and have investigated and started what they call a labour exchange.

89358. Has it done any useful work?—None; it is not organised in a way to be of any use.

89359. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) I think that the regulations in Scotland do not contain any provision prohibiting the giving of assistance to people who have been already in receipt of relief?—That is so.

89360. Or who have been assisted previously during two years by the distress committee?—That is so.

89361. Is it at all your experience that the same persons come year after year for assistance?—No, with the exception of Dundee. Of course, we have only had two years to guide us, but in Dundee there is something like 65 per cent.—I think it is brought out in the Report at that—who were recurrent.

89362. Was it the same before the passing of the Unemployed Workmen Act, when the town councils looked after unemployment?—I believe it was.

89363. Does that not a little tend to show that there is a certain class of people who would rather rely upon assistance year by year from the local authority?—Yes, it does.

89364. Would you think that that was one of the objections to the Act, that it tends to encourage that sort of thing?—Yes, I certainly think that.

89365. It was, of course, for the purpose of checking that as far as possible that the regulation was inserted in the English rules that the assistance should not be given in circumstances such as that we are speaking of?—Yes; I can quite follow the reason for that. At the same time the Scottish Board thought that it was desirable to leave that rather to the distress committee than to the central authority.

89366. It is difficult rather for the distress committee to resist the applications under circumstances of that sort, is it not?—It need not be.

89367. But in practice, would it not be so? Does not your own experience rather show that there is a difficulty, because you find that recurrent cases are relieved?—It depends entirely on the constitution of the committee, as affecting recurrent applications.

89368. That is to say, on the *personnel* of the Committee?—Yes, on the *personnel*.

89369. Is it within your experience that some committees are strong enough to resist the pressure that is put upon them, and some are not?—It is.

89370. Would it be in the larger places, or in the smaller places that there was the greater power of resistance?—You can hardly distinguish in that way; it applies all over.

89371. Then really it is the personal equation on the particular committees?—That is so.

89372. Then as to the wages that are paid to the people who are assisted by means of the distress committees, are they the current rate of wages?—They vary; in some cases they pay the standard rate, in others they pay below the standard rate.

89373. What determines that? Is that again the view of the distress committee?—Yes, the Local Government Board for Scotland leave that entirely to their discretion.

89374. Do you give any advice on the subject?—Yes. In our circular we state that: "The Board have not deemed it necessary in the meantime to frame regulations prescribing the rate of wages to be paid to unemployed persons in respect of whom the distress committee provide or contribute towards the provision of temporary work. In thus leaving the question of wages to be decided by the distress committee, the Board have every confidence that the committee will give the subject their careful consideration and that, in the exercise of their discretion, they will fix such rate of wages as will deter a workman from leaving his employment in order to apply for assistance from the distress committee."

89375. The object, evidently, of that circular is rather to check any tendency on the part of men to leave their employment for the purpose of getting work under the distress committee, and simply to enable the local authority to give assistance, when otherwise these men would not be able to get work?—Exactly.

89376. I am not quite sure whether I rightly gathered from your statement that it is the case that the distress committees in Scotland keep open all the year round for applications?—We have advised that course.

89377. Do they, in fact, act upon that advice?—In a number of cases they do. In fact, I might say that in all the cases I think they are prepared to receive applications at any time of the year.

89378. You have not considered that the provision in the Act which says that the distress committee, when required by the central body "shall receive, inquire into, and discriminate between any applications made to them from persons unemployed," contemplates that it will only be under special circumstances that they will receive applications?—With the exception of Dalbeattie we have no central body in Scotland, but the distress committees have the full powers of a central body. We rather read it that the distress committee there means the committee with full powers, and that they are to make themselves acquainted with the conditions of labour within their area. The Board have taken the view that it is not possible for them to keep themselves or to make themselves acquainted with the conditions of labour, unless they are prepared to receive applications at any time.

Mr. Charles Cleveland Ellis.
14 Jan. 1908.

Personnel of Distress Committees as affecting recurrent applications.

Variations in rate of wages on relief works.

Distress Committees in Scotland open all the year to receive applications.

Provisions of the Unemployed Act as to duties of Distress Committees.

Mr. Charles
Cleveland
Ellis.

14 Jan. 1908.

Special
committees
compulsory in
England but
not in
Scotland.

Duties of
special
committees.

Methods
adopted by
special
committees
for collecting
information.

Applications
received by
special
committees
in Scotland
only.

Unemployed
in Scotland
dealt with by
town councils
prior to
passing of
Unemployed
Act.
Method of
meeting loss
resulting
from relief
works in
Scotland.

"Common
Good" funds
in Scotland.

89379. Does not the Act contemplate the opposite, because it enables the special committee to be sent into a county who have no power to receive applications for assistance, yet they are to obtain information as to the want of employment in their district?—There are only three such special committees established in Scotland.

89380. I know; but I am now speaking of the intention of the Act. Does not the Act show that that is not the sense which is to be attributed to those words, seeing that it contemplates that a special committee who cannot receive applications for assistance are to make inquiries as to the want of employment?—I do not think so. I understand that in England special committees are compulsory.

89381. Yes, they are.—They are not in Scotland.

89382. The point I was rather putting is, what is contemplated by the Act as the duty of distress committee? You say the distress committee should receive applications, and on the strength of that provision, that they should collect information?—Yes.

89383. I am suggesting to you whether that is quite what the Act means, because the Act itself contemplates that a special committee should collect information, although it cannot receive applications for assistance. Do you see the point?—Yes, but there are no special committees where there are distress committees.

89384. True, but how are the distress committees to obtain information, when the special committee is the same? The exercise of that power cannot depend upon their receiving applications, because the special committee could not receive applications?—The special committee would be entitled, would they not, to receive applications at any time?

89385. No; the special committee only collects information—Quite so; but they do so by establishing labour exchanges and employment registers through which exchanges, of course, they receive applications from persons unemployed.

89386. Therefore, receiving applications for assistance is not a necessary reason for collecting information as to the want of employment?—One of the duties of the special committee is to keep themselves acquainted with the conditions of labour, I think.

89387. Certainly.—That they do by receiving applications.

89388. But the special committee does not receive any applications, does it, in Scotland?—Yes.

89389. It does not in England.—We have only, as I said just now, three special committees—for the burghs of Hamilton and Motherwell and the county of Lanark.

89390. And they do receive applications?—They receive applications from persons unemployed.

89391. What do they do with the applications?—They merely endeavour to provide the men with work through the medium of the labour exchanges which they have established.

89392. And they do not themselves do anything in the way of assisting the men?—No, except, as already explained, through the ordinary channels of labour. They have no power, of course, to provide relief work.

89393. Then I think I understood you to say that the town councils, before the passing of the Act, did themselves do what was necessary in the way of dealing with the unemployed?—That is so.

89394. Had they got any special powers in that connection?—No, they had none.

89395. Was it legal what they did?—I have heard it said that it was illegal to apply the rates to the payment of wages to the unemployed, or at least I should rather put it this way, that the payment out of the rates for the loss resulting from unemployed labour was illegal. In many cases, of course, that is overcome by what we call in Scotland the common good—the burghs have common good, and the loss in that case is met out of the common good and not out of the rates.

89396. (Mr. Patten-MacDougall.) The common good is a corporation fund which has been created hundreds of years ago, over which there is practically no control?—That is so.

89397. It is not subject to audit, and there is no control, and they can use it for purposes which are not provided for by statute?—That is so.

89398. (Sir Samuel Provis.) I suppose that in the Special larger burghs the town councils manage the unemployed committee business by means of a committee?—Yes, by a special Glasgow committee. Indeed, in Glasgow, the work that is being done there is merely a repetition of what has been done for many years.

89399. They appointed a special committee of the town council?—That is so.

89400. Could they add members to that committee under their general powers—outsiders, I mean?—No.

89401. Therefore, if you want to bring persons of acknowledged experience on to that special committee, you must have some legislation?—Yes; if you want to give them full powers, that is so. Of course, you could have advisory committees.

89402. Without any powers?—Without any powers.

89403. But that would not quite answer the purpose, I suppose, in a large burgh, because you want the executive power?—Yes, I think that would be better.

89404. They would have to hold more frequent meetings, and would deal with the settlement of details which you do not want to refer to the larger body, and so forth?—Exactly.

89405. It may be said, may it not, that this Act contemplates that the distress committee shall be a committee of the corporation?—They are expressly termed that.

89406. Therefore what you come to is some modification in the constitution of that committee?—It comes very much to that.

89407. Do you think there is advantage in representing the parish council on that committee?—I think if there is to be a separate body the present constitution is satisfactory.

89408. Although a separate body, it is treated as a committee of the corporation?—Yes.

89409. Therefore you would not object to the special committee of the corporation containing a representation of the parish council, if I rightly understand you?—No, I would not object to that.

89410. And also you think it desirable to co-opt some persons of knowledge and experience?—Yes, I think so.

89411. Has any objection been taken in Scotland within your knowledge to the questions which are put under the Regulations?—Not to any great extent. We especially asked that question, and twelve out of fourteen distress committees stated that they have received no complaints at all, and that the visits of the investigating officers were not looked upon as inquisitorial.

89412. (Chairman.) Is that in the burghs where the great mass of the applicants were passed, because, judging by the figures, the inquiry was of a very perfunctory character there?—In Edinburgh the answer to that question was that the dependants frequently refused to give information, and a large number of employers, particularly the large employers of unskilled labour, absolutely declined to give any information with regard to the applicants. Glasgow said that they had met with no opposition, except that a number of circulars were not returned from employers.

89413. (Sir Samuel Provis.) Do you think that in the cases in which the great bulk of the people were passed, the questions were somewhat perfunctorily put?—I would rather put it upon the investigating officers. I am afraid their system of investigation varies very considerably.

89414. Even in those cases questions were put to the applicant, were they not, and he filled up a form?—Yes, the form is filled up for him in every case. In some cases we find that references to employers are not followed up, nor enquiries made whether the applicants had been in receipt of relief from the parish council, or anything of that kind.

89415. (Mr. Patten-MacDougall.) In Glasgow, where the investigation was most strict, the parish council were in complete touch, and, in fact, the investigating officer was one of the inspectors of poor—the assistant inspector of poor?—That is so.

Absence of power to co-opt members by Glasgow Special Committee.

Executive powers desirable for special committees.

Representation of parish councils on special committees.

Attitude of applicants towards investigation.

Result of investigations in Edinburgh and Glasgow.

Varied methods of investigation.

Co-operation in Glasgow between officers of Distress Committee and parish council.

89416. In other cases that is not so?—Yes.

89417. In Glasgow you find that a great many applications were refused?—Yes.

89418. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) Just take for a moment the cases in which they did provide work and in which grants were made to them; was that work always work which it was in the power of the town council to undertake, or was it something outside that power—I am speaking of their ordinary powers, of course?—I think it was always within their power to undertake the work.

89419. Did you pay the whole cost of the work or did you only make a grant in respect to the cost of the work?—We make a grant in respect to the cost of the work. That really is a difficulty that I foresee. Take the case of a town council who simply say: “We have nothing to do with the unemployed, but it is a question for the distress committee; we are not bound to provide work, but we will do it to oblige the distress committee; we will form this street, but we ask the distress committee to pay the wages.”

89420. You limited their application to the distress committee to wages, did you?—So far we have done so.

89421. Did they not ask for the cost of the materials?—That question is very likely to arise.

89422. But it has not arisen yet?—No, it has not.

89423. Nor even the cost of supervision?—The cost of supervision has already arisen.

89424. There has been an unwillingness on the part of the town council to pay the cost of supervision?—That is so.

89425. Have you ever had this point—as to whether the distress committee should do more than pay the difference between the ordinary cost of the work and that involved in the employment of assistants?—We have had that frequently under consideration and the view that we take is that it is not unreasonable for the distress committee to pay the difference between the contract value and the actual cost. We are inclined to favourably look upon an application of that kind and to give a grant accordingly to meet that loss. But the difficulty is where a town council take up the position that they will not provide work unless the distress committee pay for it; if we refuse the grant then the unemployed suffer.

89426. Although you might express willingness to pay the difference to which you have just referred?—That is so.

89427. In England refusals have been given on that ground, as perhaps you are aware?—Yes.

89428. The ground being that the grant was not intended to relieve the rates if the cost of the work would ordinarily fall upon the rates?—Quite so.

89429. You have not had, I think you said, any case in which the local authority proposed to carry out work which was outside their powers?—I am not sure that I follow quite what you mean by “work outside their powers.”

BAILIE ALEXANDER WILKIE; called, and Examined.

89442. (*Chairman.*) You are a member of the Town Council of Aberdeen?—Yes.

89443. You have been kind enough to send us in a Statement which we will treat as your Evidence-in-chief if you will hand it in?—Certainly.

1. I have been a member of the Town Council for sixteen years, and during that time have held the office of City Treasurer, and been Convener of several of the Council's Committees. I have been a Magistrate since November, 1906.

I have been a member of the Local Distress Committee since its formation, and have taken considerable interest in the work of the Committee, acting in the capacity of Convener of the Finance Committee. I have been Chairman of Distress Committee for the last twelve months.

I am also Managing Director of the Aberdeen Suburban Tramways.

My connection with the Town Council and otherwise has been such that I have had ample opportunities of

89430. There have been cases in England where work has been carried out which was not within the powers of the local authority, consequently the local authority could not pay any cost, and the whole cost has then fallen upon the distress committee?—I am not aware of any case of that kind having arisen.

89431. There is a case just now—you may see it in the papers—which will show you the sort of case I mean, where it was proposed that some work should be done to the Alexandra Palace; that is the sort of case?—I am not aware of any case of that kind.

89432. (*Mr. Patten-MacDougall.*) Have there not been cases in Scotland where the municipality have said: “Here is a road or a street which we shall probably be called upon to make some ten years hence; we will provide work there now and make the road in anticipation.” There was a case of that kind the other day, was there not?—Yes, I recollect that. That is a case where we had a distress committee going outside their own boundaries to make a road. I had forgotten that.

89433. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) There you are obliged to allow the distress committee to pay the whole cost?—I cannot see how we could possibly refuse it.

89434. Because otherwise there would be no legal motive for paying the cost of the work; that is the short reason, is it not?—Just so.

89435. I have only two other points to put to you. First of all, with regard to the residential qualification; you are rather opposed to it, but without it would there not be this danger that where there is a distress committee persons would be attracted and would come into that place?—Undoubtedly. I am not opposed to the restriction, but I think that power should be given to relax it in certain cases.

89436. Would you allow the distress committee, probably with the sanction of the Local Government Board, to relax it?—Yes.

89437. It is a little difficult to investigate particular cases, is it not?—We have had several cases brought under our notice where I think it would have been quite reasonable, on the statement that the distress committee furnished, to have allowed them to relax the residential qualification.

89438. Just one point on the labour exchange. Have you had any difficulties suggested to you by reason of the want of any linking up of these labour exchanges. By linking up I mean having some central organisation, with which they were all connected and through which the information was circulated to the different exchanges?—No, we have not arrived at that stage, but I am in entire sympathy with the idea that there should be a central exchange linking up all others.

89439. Something of the kind is done in London, as you know, of course?—I am aware of that.

89440. But not as regards the rest of England?—I understand so. I think that Scotland could quite well be linked up under some central exchange.

89441. Is anything of the sort done in Glasgow?—No.

making myself fairly well acquainted with the labour and economic conditions of the city and district.

2. Prior to the establishment of the Distress Committee, the Town Council, out of the funds of their Common Good, started relief works under the charge of the Finance Committee, of which I was then convener. The following sums were spent by the Corporation:—

Year 1904-5.			
New road at Girdleness	-	£3,634	14 1
Pitching at sea-beach	-	1,665	9 7
		£5,330	3 8
Year 1905-6.			
New road at Girdleness	-	£1,629	7 0
Pitching at sea-beach	-	303	16 11
		1,933	3 11
		£7,233	7 7

Other work has likewise been provided from time to time by the Town Council and the Harbour Commissioners.

Mr. Charles Cleveland Ellis.
14 Jan. 1908.

Anticipating work for unemployed.

Need for power to relax residential qualification.

Linking up of labour exchanges by means of central exchange proposed.

Bailie Alexander Wilkie.

14 Jan. 1908.

Relief works provided by Aberdeen Town Council prior to passing of Unemployed Act.

Amounts expended on relief works out of Aberdeen Common Good in 1904-5 and 1905-6.

Baillie
Alexander
Wilkie.

14 Jan. 1908.

Donations from Aberdeen Common Good in aid of unemployed. Infrequency of applications to Distress Committees by Trade Unionists. Number and occupations of persons registered at Aberdeen Labour Exchange.

Besides providing work, the Council has, during the past four years, given donations from the Common Good of £20, £200, £100, and during the current financial year, £500.

3. The unions of all organised trades have facilities for registering their unemployed members, with the view mainly of the men being paid "out-of-work" benefit, and the men in these unions, with proper contributions and benefits, are seldom or never under the necessity of applying for distress relief outside their union. Consequently, although the number of unemployed organised workers during certain periods is considerable, those registering for relief work are, you may say, wholly confined to the unorganised, *i.e.*, unskilled workers.

4. Coming now to the experience of the Labour Bureau—since the Unemployed Workmen Act came into operation—the number registered from December 11th, 1905, to May 31st, 1906, was 1,312 persons. From June 1st, 1906, to March 31st, 1907, the number was 1,250. Of the latter (1,250), there were:—

General labourers	-	-	-	-	636
Dock labourers	-	-	-	-	22
Shipyards labourers	-	-	-	-	14
Engineers' labourers	-	-	-	-	9
Woodyard labourers	-	-	-	-	5
Masons' labourers	-	-	-	-	17
Plasterers' labourers	-	-	-	-	10
Carters	-	-	-	-	32
Stone polishers	-	-	-	-	27
Masons, dressers or finishers	-	-	-	-	55
Masons, building	-	-	-	-	72
Painters	-	-	-	-	24
Joiners	-	-	-	-	19
Plasterers	-	-	-	-	9
Slaters	-	-	-	-	6
Plumbers	-	-	-	-	2
Millworkers (men)	-	-	-	-	27
Tinsmiths	-	-	-	-	22
Blacksmiths	-	-	-	-	7
Engineers	-	-	-	-	4
Clerks	-	-	-	-	19
Bakers	-	-	-	-	8
Butchers	-	-	-	-	7
Tailors	-	-	-	-	5
Upholsterers	-	-	-	-	3
Cabinetmakers	-	-	-	-	2
Sundry trades	-	-	-	-	123
Charwomen	-	-	-	-	54
Millworkers (women)	-	-	-	-	10

1,250

It thus appears that about 70 per cent. are of the labouring (unskilled) class, the others (*i.e.* tradesmen) being the least skilled of their class.

Extent of unemployment in Aberdeen as regards period and class affected.

5. With 50 per cent., unemployment is chronic; with 50 per cent., periodic, mostly during the winter months, when the weather tends to stop outdoor work. In Aberdeen, during the last three years, the building trade has been unusually depressed, which would account for the considerable number of tradesmen, *viz.*, masons, joiners, painters, etc., being out of work. This depression has been caused in great measure by over-building, and by the completion of large works such as the university buildings, theatre, post office, etc.

Causes of unemployment.

6. Opinions may vary as to the causes of unemployment, but primarily it would point to the labour market being over-stocked at certain periods, with the result that the least skilled are crowded out.

7. In the case of individuals, intemperate habits, want of early training and discipline, physical and mental deficiency, old age and improvidence, all contribute to their displacement.

Effects of unemployment.

8. The effect of unemployment is the demoralisation of the individual, with the result that it destroys his independence, his initiative, and his usefulness, while it also inflicts hardship on himself and his dependents, and afterwards spoils the chances of his family getting a good start in life.

9. As to the question of remedies, it is rather difficult to venture an opinion, and above all to speak with authority; but in my opinion the following suggestions would go far towards remedies, *viz.*:—

(a) A training or apprenticeship during youth and early manhood; a raising of the ideals of the lower classes; teaching the parents self-sacrifice for the sake of their families; and teaching both parents and families habits of thrift and providence. In this connection, I think a man's early association with his fellows through the friendly and trade societies has a splendid effect, creating emulation and self-respect, and a proper conception of moral and social virtues. Employers should be compelled to give a lad a proper chance of learning his business.

(b) There should also be proper agencies for supplying information as to the state of trade in different localities, and a workman properly trained would have no diffidence in going into any workshop, warehouse, or squad. At present, in the skilled trades, labour is mobile, with the result that there is less unemployment.

(c) I think technical training should be given to both sexes in dairying, the rearing of poultry, fruit culture, market gardening, bee-keeping, and the feeding and rearing of pigs.

(d) That power be given to local authorities to purchase land at its agricultural value or prairie value for the establishment of farm colonies and the starting of factories.

(e) Recognising that unemployment is not local but imperial, that there should be a complete system of registration, with relief stations established over the country, to assist men travelling in search of work. That workmen be bound to carry papers of identification when they are travelling in search of work, so that the authorities might know what sort of character they bore. We must differentiate between the genuine unemployed man who is in search of work, and the vicious vagrant who is in search of opportunities for plunder, and who has not the slightest intention of working.

10. Referring to the working of the Unemployed Workmen Act, it is difficult to speak with authority as to the results; but I believe so far it has lessened the need for relief or charity of a kind different from that given under the Act, especially in the cases of the older men. With the younger men, I believe relief work is a mistake to a certain extent, sapping their self-reliance.

11. To have a greater influence for good, I believe the liberty of the individual being relieved should be to an extent curtailed, such as it would be if he were put under proper supervision on a labour colony away from his present haunts and associates.

If the younger men could be trained on a farm colony, I believe the effect on the individual and on society would be most beneficial.

89444. (Chairman.) You have had, independent of your public appointment, considerable experience, because you are Managing Director of the Aberdeen Suburban Tramways?—Yes.

89445. Prior to the Act of 1905 the town council had, in preceding years, spent money to find employment for persons out of work?—Yes; they spent a considerable sum, about £7,233, in relief works before this Act came into operation.

89446. Was there, as far as you know, any expenditure previous to that which you allude to?—No, not any large sums. There were some small sums from time to time every winter, but not until that year 1904-5 was there such a large undertaking.

89447. Did the town council, in doing this, have regard for their own permanent employees; they did not dispossess them in giving this work?—In this case they did not. They have had regard, and always have had regard, to the displacement of their own employees. This was a road as to which there was no immediate necessity for its being made. It was merely gone into for the purpose of providing work for the unemployed.

Remedies for unemployment.
Apprenticeship.
Membership of friendly Societies or trade unions.
Adequate instruction during apprenticeship.
Agencies supplying information as to state of local trade.
Technical training in agricultural pursuits.
Power for local authorities to acquire land for farm colonies and factories at prairie value.
Registration of workmen.
Relief stations to give travelling aid to searchers for work.
Workmen to carry properly authenticated identification papers.
Differentiation between *bona fide* workmen and habitual tramps.
Effect of Unemployed Act on applications for charitable or Poor Law relief.
Effect of relief works on self-reliance of young men.
Restriction of liberty of those receiving relief.
Farm colony training for young male unemployed.
Relief works provided by Aberdeen Town Council prior to passing of Unemployed Act.
Displacement of regular corporation employees avoided by Aberdeen Town Council in providing relief work.

89448. The Act really only regularised and legalised what you had been in the habit of doing before?—That is so. Of course, we also, to meet the requirements of the Act, gave £500, I think it was, to the distress committee.

89449. Your experience is that there are few skilled workers who have availed themselves of this Act?—Yes, very few skilled workers, the large proportion are unskilled labourers.

89450. You speak of these persons as being persons with whom employment is chronic, 50 per cent. of them?—Yes, 50 per cent. of these people are chronic; they are always out of work every winter, and are always very willing to take advantage of anything that is going.

89451. And 50 per cent. are periodically out of employment?—Yes.

89452. There has been an expression used by a previous witness which I daresay I could fit into your view, which is that it is under-employment; 50 per cent. would be under-employed, perhaps get one or two days' work a week?—Yes.

89453. The others would be those who would be regularly employed, but would lose their employment at regular seasons?—That is so.

89454. The intention of the Act was that it should apply to persons who were ordinarily in continuous employment and who were temporarily out of employment. That class did not come up very much, did it?—Not to a large extent. It did to some extent, but not to a large extent. Of course, as to those who are in trades unions, their unions provide for unemployment, or at least, some of the trades unions do, and they would not come up.

89455. That would account for a certain portion of the skilled who are not employed?—Yes; there is a certain amount of dread by the really skilled workman of taking advantage of this Unemployment Act.

89456. Your impression is, I think, that there is always a certain number of unemployed people in Aberdeen?—Yes, that is so.

89457. Even in summer?—Even in summer there are a few. We have kept the labour exchange open during the summer, and we have had applicants, not many, but some.

89458. Going into causes, we have had a great deal of evidence here, particularly in connection with London, that one of the causes that tend to unemployment is that the boys when they leave school, instead of going into a skilled occupation, are very apt to take up casual work, selling newspapers, becoming messenger boys, and things of that kind. Is that evil at all prevalent with you in Aberdeen?—I think to some extent; but it would not be so much prevalent at Aberdeen as it would be in large cities such as Glasgow, London, and those places. I think that one thing that has caused unemployment is the great influx of the country people to the towns.

89459. Do many come in?—An enormous amount. For instance, since the trams have started in large cities that has been a great attraction for farm labourers; they see these cars run along the street, and they think it a very desirable job. That has attracted a large number of people to the towns.

89460. Do you work your own tramways?—We carry on our own tramways and the Corporation carry on their own tramways. Ours are in the suburbs.

89461. These are not municipal tramways?—No.

89462. I suppose they are attracted by the higher wages they can get whilst on the tramways?—Yes, and they are taken away from the country. In fact, a farmer told me the other day there is very great difficulty in getting farm labourers at certain seasons of the year.

89463. I suppose these men coming into Aberdeen would not themselves get out of employment, but being strong people themselves they would push the town-people out?—They would displace others.

89464. Is there much quay or dock labour?—There is a fair amount of dock labour, but these same men are generally employed on that kind of work; they just hang about till the work comes on; they are casual labourers.

89465. Do you think that it is worth while continuing this Unemployed Workmen Act? Would you continue it, or would you take any measures for associating them with the parish council?—I cannot say that I am very much impressed with association with the parish council, although I think, what I heard Mr. Ellis say, there should be a strict understanding between the two bodies. If there are any genuinely unemployed people they are very unwilling to go to the parish council to apply; they practically refuse.

89466. If they are able-bodied they cannot apply?—No; that I think is one of the drawbacks with regard to the parish council in Scotland. They cannot under any conditions give relief. No relief can be given in Scotland, as far as I am aware, except from some charitable organisation, to an able-bodied man, although he may be of the very best character.

89467. You would say that although the great majority of these are persons who are casually employed, still there is amongst them a number of respectable persons?—There is no doubt about that.

89468. Who would not, if they could help it, go to the Poor Law?—They would not apply unless they were in really necessitous circumstances.

89469. You would say the unemployed who were registered under this Act were of a different social class to those who go to the Poor Law, for instance?—Yes; a proportion of them were of a different stamp.

89470. Supposing you had to renew the Act, in what shape would you put the Act? Would you renew it as it is?—There are certain alterations which would have to be made. I think that question of having to collect subscriptions before we get any grant from the Local Government Board is very objectionable, because I find the people realise that they are already rated for administrative purposes; and it is difficult to get them to differentiate between what is for administrative purposes and what is going to be paid in wages. I think that condition would have to be taken out of the new Act if it is going to be renewed, because it is very difficult to get people to subscribe, and particularly so, I think, when part of it is rated for.

89471. I suppose the person who is appealed to says: You have got the rates to help you, why should I do no in?—That is it; they do not differentiate between what the rates are going to be applied to. We cannot apply the rates to wages. We have a great difficulty on that point, although I must say the Local Government Board are very considerate with regard to its grants.

89472. Would you like to have greater powers of expenditure given to these committees as regards local rates. What would the local ratepayers say in Aberdeen?—The ratepayers always object to an increase of rates, that is my experience.

89473. You would keep the control of this work in the hands of the town council?—It is very difficult to say who should control it, whether it should be the parish council or the town council. Speaking as a member of the town council with some experience of it, I am of opinion that the town council has quite sufficient work to do already, without taking in hand this. I must say I do not see any serious objection to the present arrangement; a certain number of members being sent from the town council, a certain number sent from the parish council, and a certain number of people co-opted who are supposed to have a special qualification for taking part in this work. I do not think there is any serious objection to that arrangement at present. There is no doubt as far as Aberdeen is concerned that the officials of the parish council and the officials of the distress committee and also the officials of some of our charities, in fact, most of our charities, work hand in hand together.

89474. You have a fairly efficient system of charity organisation I think outside the parish council, have you not?—We have a fairly efficient system. Of course I find that all these charities year by year have greater difficulty in getting a sufficient amount of funds to carry them on, but I think there should be a common understanding between all these things.

89475. Is the enquiry satisfactory?—Yes, I think as far as we are concerned we have a very satisfactory officer for doing that sort of work. He has had experience of a similar nature.

Baillie
Alexander
Wilkie.

14 Jan. 1908.

Co-operation
essential
between
Distress
Committees
and parish
councils.
Reluctance
of workmen
to apply to
parish
councils.
Objection to
prohibition
of able-
bodied relief.

Social
distinction
between
applicants to
Distress
Committees
and parish
councils.
Objection to
making
grants to
Distress
Committees
dependent on
raising
voluntary
subscriptions.

Increased
powers as to
expenditure
by Distress
Committees.

Constitution
of Distress
Committees.

Co-operation
between
officers of
Distress
Committees,
Parish
councils and
charities in
Aberdeen.

Increasing
difficulty
in obtaining
voluntary
subscriptions
to charities.

Investiga-
tions of
applications.

Baillie
Alexander
Wilkie.

14 Jan. 1908.

Labour
markets
overstocked.

Effect of
unemploy-
ment.

Adequate
instruction
during
apprentice-
ship.

Too much
time devoted
to sports and
amusements.

Membership
of friendly
societies and
trade
unions
desirable.

Agricultural
education
inadequate.

Objection to
increasing
period for
school
attendance.

Dissociation
of labour
exchanges
from Distress
Committees.

89476. Passing on to remedies, you think first as regards the condition of things that the labour market is over-stocked at certain periods. You would say that the skilled labour market was over-stocked?—Yes, I think so.

89477. The unskilled, particularly in its lowest grades is also over-stocked?—Yes, I think so.

89478. The pinch would be most felt in the lowest grades of unskilled labour?—There is no doubt about that; it is the unskilled labour that feels it.

89479. We agree, I think, as regards the demoralisation which unemployment effects. Now we come to remedies: apprenticeship; do you think there is much room now for young fellows to learn trades by apprenticeship?—I do not know that there is a large field for that, but when they are to learn their trade by apprenticeship I think there should be some obligation rest upon the employer to give them a fairly good training in their particular trades. I think they are left with insufficient training.

89480. You go into a number of questions rather of a moral character. You want to raise the ideal. Should you say that the ideal had fallen, that there was a lower standard now than before?—It is very risky to go into a question of that kind; I do not know whether it is intended to go higher, but it is a question which is rather a difficult one to express an opinion upon; in fact, I think myself, with all deference to our young men, that far too much time is given up to sport. I do not know that that is demoralising, but it certainly takes away a lot of valuable time, and it must take away a certain amount of brain power.

89481. I suppose you would go on to say also amusement?—Yes, amusement generally, particularly football. I think that is getting to be a serious consideration.

89482. You think that the association of a young man with his fellows in an insurance society or a friendly or trade society has a good effect?—Yes, I think that is so; it gives them a fairly good business training, and teaches them, or rather they are taught, accuracy in figures, and various business principles, which I think is of considerable advantage to a young man.

89483. Do you think the schooling they get is sufficiently useful and utilitarian?—I am not sure if it is, particularly with regard to the education that would be necessary with regard to country schools, and with regard to agricultural training. We have quite recently had an agricultural college established at Aberdeen, but I think agricultural teaching should be given in every school in the country, and in the towns as well. I have been strongly impressed with what has been accomplished in Denmark in the way of raising food stuffs, and I do not see why a great deal more of that kind should not be carried on in connection with this country.

89484. Would you be in favour rather of increasing the period during which boys and girls had to attend school?—No, I do not think it would come to that at the present time, because I think the parents have a great difficulty in many cases in allowing them to remain so long as fourteen. I think if you increase it it will become more serious, unless there is some provision made by the State.

89485. You might have a system of half time?—That might be adopted.

89486. Or continuation schools which might be made compulsory?—That might be adopted.

89487. I did not ask you any questions about the labour exchange. Did you establish a labour exchange in Aberdeen?—We have a labour exchange in connection with the bureau.

89488. Did it answer?—Yes, there have been a fair number of applications from employers and labourers, but it has been felt by our officers that the labour exchange would be better to be rather away from the bureau where the unemployed people are coming; they think it would be more likely to be successful. I do not know whether there is anything in that much.

89489. Are you linked up with others, or is it carried on isolated?—It was linked up; of course they were carried on together. I suppose that the difficulty which is raised is that good working men do not like the idea

of going into these other offices where the unemployed are coming in, but would rather go to an office apart from that.

89490. If they are to be of real utility and become generally established all over the country, linked up, they must not be too much associated with the unemployed, who are of course the most inferior class of labour as a rule?—To some extent; there is a very large mixture; there is no doubt about that.

89491. Do you think it would be useful in supplying information as to the state of trade?—I think so. I think it would be a very good thing to have information regarding the various works that might be going on in various parts of the country. Labour exchanges as trade information bureaux.

89492. It is suggested to us they might have a negative effect in the agricultural districts, that they might warn people there that although there are high wages obtainable by a few, yet if they come on the chance of getting it they may find their position worse in the town than in the country. Do you think there is anything in that argument?—Do you mean if they go out to the country it will reduce the wages of the agricultural labourer?

89493. No, but that they hear now of some exceptional wages which an individual gets in town; these exchanges might, if they were established at certain agricultural centres, be used rather as a warning and a caution?—I do not think so. Of course, it would be necessary to have one central authority that would be in touch with all these labour exchanges. The information would be fairly accurate, and everyone would know what the other one was doing. Linking up of labour exchanges under a central authority desirable.

89494. You would like a system of registration to be established with relief stations by which persons *bona fide* travelling to get work should be helped temporarily?—Yes. Relief stations needed for giving travelling assistance to *bona fide* seekers for work.

89495. To dissociate them, I suppose, from the vagrant class?—Exactly. Of course, there is a difficulty in this country with the vagrant class. Advantage of identification papers for workmen.

89496. What do you think about a paper of identification? That requires a certain amount of registration. Do you think it would be difficult to enforce?—I do not think so. We cannot have labour exchanges in every little village, but it might be associated with some other office, such as the parish council office; that part might be taken up by them. I think it would be a very good thing if we were able to identify people when they were going over the country to seek work, because there would be some knowledge of them, because everybody is imposed upon by them sometimes, because you do not know with whom you are dealing.

89497. If you had a well-established system of labour exchanges or labour bureaux, they could be utilised for that purpose?—Yes, they could be utilised for that purpose by all means.

89498. It has been pointed out to us that the great mass of the so-called unemployed belong, as you have pointed out, to the lowest stratum of unskilled labour, that they as a rule are ignorant of what is going on outside the immediate locality where they live, and that they have no power of mobility, that they are at the end of their resources, and that labour exchanges would, by encouraging this mobility, enable them to move about and thus diminish in certain places the aggregate amount of this low-grade labour which at present we have to deal with. Do you think they would have that effect at all?—I do not think so. Of course, I am very much in favour of classification in all the various kinds of people that we have to deal with, both in our poor-houses and in our penal settlements, I think you should have classification very much more than there is. Labour exchanges in relation to mobility of labour.

89499. I suppose Aberdeen is rather self-contained as a big town; there is not much exchange of individuals between Aberdeen and other big centres?—No, not a great deal. Of course, there are a good many different kinds of industry in Aberdeen, and it does not suffer so early generally as a town such as Dundee, which is practically dependent on one industry. We have various kinds of industry, and we are generally not affected early. Effect of trade depression in Aberdeen.

89500. Your influx is mainly from the agricultural districts?—There is no doubt about that.

89501. Should you say the condition of Aberdeen, as regards unemployment, has improved or deteriorated of recent years?—There has been very much more unemployment during the past two years than there was the years previous to that. I attribute that largely to the building trade. I think Aberdeen, like some other places, has been very much over-built, and there are very few buildings going up now, and that has put out of employment a very large number of tradespeople, and we also have had several large public buildings going on for the last few years, and that has also tended to affect the unemployed, and the granite trade, which is one of the staple industries of Aberdeen, is not by any means in a good way, nor has it been for some time.

89502. It is a trade, I suppose, which though it supplies the same article, supplies it for a great many different purposes?—Yes.

89503. For street paving?—Yes.

89504. I suppose all these modern new pavements, and so on, compete with it?—Yes, they compete with it, and with regard to the quarries themselves, the quarry people find it does not pay unless they can get a market for all the various kinds of material, some portion to be sold to the builders, some to the monumental masons, and some to people who are going to put it into the pavement. They say it does not pay if you are going to take a certain class of stone for a specific purpose unless you get the others; thus a good many owners have shut their quarries.

89505. The distress of the last few years you attribute largely to the contraction of the building trade, and of the granite trade?—To a very large extent. That has, no doubt, been the source it has come from.

89506. (Mr. Patten-MacDougall.) There has been in existence I think in Aberdeen for a good many years an association for improving the condition of the poor, has there not?—That is so.

89507. Does it still continue its operations, notwithstanding the existence of the Unemployed Act?—It still continues its operations.

89508. Are those extensive?—Yes, I believe pretty extensive. It deals with a class which we would not be able to deal with under the Unemployed Act.

89509. Is it dependent on voluntary contributions from year to year?—To a large extent. Of course, there are some permanent funds in connection with it.

89510. And at times prior to 1905 when there was depression in trade, or business was unusually slack, its funds were distributed towards relieving distress?—That is so.

89511. Would you know what those sums amounted to?—No, I could not give you what sums were expended.

89512. I understand you to say they did to a certain extent do the work which is now done by the distress committees?—That is the only institution we have in Aberdeen that we can get any relief from for an able-bodied person who may be of good character because, as you know, the parish council cannot give any assistance. They are the only body who can. They have a system of giving relief by various of the members having books throughout the town, who can give them a certain amount of groceries, and something to keep them going, if they are in real distress. I say that is the only source we have.

89513. Was any relief given by the corporation out of the rates on these occasions?—We have never given out of rates, but directly sometimes.

89514. That has been done in other places, but not in Aberdeen?—No, it has not been done in Aberdeen. It has been done by common good, which is not raised by the rates.

89515. It has been done by common good?—Yes, but common good is not raised by the rates.

89516. I see it stated, I do not know whether it consists with your knowledge, that a great many of those who get relief from the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor were more or less chronic applicants. Do you know that?—I think that is very likely. I am not a member of the committee, and I do not know what is going on. I am a member of the distress committee,

and I know what is going on there, but I think that is very likely; they carry on one of these firewood factories for breaking sticks, and they employ a certain number at that.

89517. In the working of the distress committee have you found the record paper has worked well?—Yes, I think it has worked very well. I think the whole machinery, considering it is a new experiment, has worked fairly satisfactorily.

89518. Have you any suggestions to make?—I make that one suggestion about having to raise that subscription before getting a grant from the Local Government Department.

89519. The distress committees have not been in actual co-operation with the Poor Law authorities in Aberdeen, have they—with the inspector of the poor?—Yes, we have; our officials have kept in strict touch with them.

89520. Is your investigating officer one of the staff of the inspector of the poor?—No, but he had experience in connection with children as an investigating officer and had a very good training in the work which he is engaged in. I think he has been very satisfactory, and his reports have been very well received by the Local Government Board. He is the kind of man, I think, who would not be imposed upon and would give very fair reports.

89521. Do you know whether any of those who applied to the distress committee for relief were connected with trade unions, or were members of trade unions or friendly societies?—Yes, there were some of them, a certain proportion, there is no doubt about that.

89522. (Miss Hill.) I see you say that you would recommend that workmen should be bound to carry papers of identification when they are in search of work, and so that the authorities might know what sort of character they bore. Do you think there would be any difficulty felt on the part of the workmen if they were asked to do so?—I do not think so.

89523. And you propose that those papers be kept from year to year, and became somewhat like the *dossiers* which one knows of on the Continent?—They would be required to be renewed, or at least they would be required to be marked; that is to say, the paper which had been issued a considerable time ago would not be of much value when shown now.

89524. Would you think that those statements required any verification? If so, in whose hands would you put that?—I think if we are going to extend this Act and these labour exchanges, that could very well be put into their hands. Where there were no labour exchanges, in smaller places, I think it might be put into the hands of, perhaps the parish officer.

89525. The inspector of the poor?—Yes, the parish council officer.

89526. You think there would be no difficulty found in asking independent working men to provide such papers and showing them to the inspector of the poor if they required help?—I do not say there would not be a certain objection, but there would not be the same objection if a man was travelling for work to go to a parish officer away from the town where he was known as there would be in a town where he was known. I think there is an objection for a genuine unemployed man to go to the parish officer of his town.

89527. (Mr. Gardiner.) I do not understand the bearing of the last sentence in Paragraph 10: "With the younger men, I believe, relief work is a mistake to a certain extent, sapping their self-reliance." By "younger men" what do you mean? I notice in the figures about the Aberdeen Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor, nearly 50 per cent. of the applicants are under forty?—I would not say exactly that they were the younger men, I mean lads about twenty or twenty-two, or thereabouts. I think it is a mistake for them to be sent to relief work, because they are likely to come into contact with a certain class which I do not think it is in the interest of these lads that they should meet. It is a time of life when they are very susceptible to influences.

89528. Would you say that no one under twenty should be considered?—That is one of the difficulties we have had in connection with the distress committee,

Baillie
Alexander
Wilkie.

14 Jan. 1908.

Value of
"record
papers" to
Distress
Committees.

Objection
to making
grants to
Distress
Committees
dependent
on raising
voluntary
subscriptions

Co-operation
between
officers of
Distress
Committee
and parish
council in
Aberdeen.

Qualifications
of investigation
officer of
Distress
Committee.

Some few
applications
to Distress
Committee by
members of
friendly
societies and
trade unions.

Attitude of
workmen as
to identification
papers.

Verification
of identification
papers by labour
exchanges or
parish officer.

Reluctance
of genuine
unemployed
to apply to
parish officer
of place of
residence.

Difficulty of
dealing with
young men
by Distress
Committee.

- Bailie Alexander Wilkie.* whether we should deal with these lads under twenty or not.
- 14 Jan. 1908. 89529. What line did the committee decide to take ? —I cannot say we have taken any definite line yet. We just have the question before us. We did not do it last year, but we have had a great number more this year. I think some advice is going to be asked from the Local Government Board before we deal with the matter. There is another difficulty that is now arising, if you are going to deal with young lads of seventeen or eighteen, of course it might induce those lads to come away from places where they were only getting 6s. or 7s. a week and come to us, because we were giving what might be perhaps 4d. an hour. There is a difficulty about that, apart from other questions.
- Attractive-ness of relief works to lads earning low wages.
89530. With regard to Paragraph 9 (d) you advocate, you say, power being given to the local authorities to purchase land at its agricultural value. What local authorities do you refer to ? Do you mean the parish council or the town council ?—It might be the town council or the distress committee. The distress committee under the present Act, I think, has certain powers under the Local Government to purchase or rent land.
- Power of Distress Committees to purchase land. Extension of power proposed.
89531. They can purchase, cannot they ?—Yes, they can purchase.
89532. So they have powers now ?—I think so.
89533. So you do not want fresh powers ?—I think the powers might be extended a little. The distress committees are a fairly representative body, or ought to be ; they contain members from each of the principal boards in a large city : the parish council and the town council, and also they have the power, as I say, to co-opt those who may have special qualifications.
- Reason for delay in purchasing land by Aberdeen Distress Committee.
89534. What you mean is you want the local authority to have the power without appeal to the Local Government Board ?—No, I do not object to the appeal to the Local Government Board by any means ; there is no difficulty as to that. There has been a feeling in the distress committee which I have to deal with, that we did not know exactly whether this Act was going to be continued or a new one introduced, and we were a little diffident in going forward and making a purchase. Of course one serious difficulty that we have had in connection with finding work is that the only kind of work that we could send the unemployed people to was to break stones, and that is a class of work that very few people can do to make anything like a decent living. It is a class of work that requires a special training. I, along with others, think that there should be some sort of spade work, which is work which people will be more readily able to do, and you would be likely to get better results from it than we have been able to from the stone-breaking business, which certainly has not been very satisfactory from a financial point of view.
- Difficulty in providing suitable work for unemployed. Technical training for stone-breaking. Financial aspect of stone-breaking.
89535. (Dr. Downes.) Do you consider the lads you have just been referring to come properly under the Unemployed Act ?—They might in some cases, they might be the support, perhaps, of a widowed mother.
89536. How would the widowed mother come under the Unemployed Act ?—I am inclined to think if they were in a difficulty she would. I do not know that she would get relief from the parish.
- Objects of Unemployed Act.
89537. Is not the object of the Statute to assist persons who are honestly desirous of obtaining work, but are temporarily unable to do so from exceptional circumstances ?—I suppose it is ; but I suppose it is very difficult always to keep within the lines of any Statute. As a matter of fact local authorities have sometimes to stretch points where there is any real necessity.
89538. Has there been any great departure from the intention of the Statute ?—I do not think there has as far as Aberdeen is concerned.
89539. I understand you to say that the labour exchanges should be kept apart from the labour bureaux ? —That view has been expressed by some of our members, and particularly, I think, by our officers, that they are more likely to be successful if kept apart.
- Dissociation of labour exchanges from Distress Committees proposed.
89540. Does that mean that some sort of taint has grown up round the labour bureau ?—There is always a certain number of unemployed who are always unemployed who are always hanging round, and people of that kind.
89541. It lowers the prestige of the place ?—Yes, I think so.
89542. That is, it is a taint ?—The genuine working men perhaps do not like to go through a crowd of these people hanging about, they would be more likely to go to a place which was a little bit apart, although it might be under the same management.
89543. With regard to the papers of identification, have you thought how they might be framed so as to prevent any improper use being made of them ?—I cannot say I have, but I have found from enquiries that I have made that they have been very successful in Germany ; that system has been carried on there very successfully.
89544. (Professor Smart.) I do not think you mention in your statement what kind of work you gave the unemployed to do under the distress committee ?—The kind of work we have been giving them to do has been breaking stones, apart from the road-making that the corporation gave us to do ; any difference in cost with regard to the contract price we paid, and they looked after the management.
89545. Did you do the stone breaking entirely off your own resources ?—Entirely off our own resources.
89546. Do you know anything about the financial results ?—We had a loss of about from 50 to 60 per cent.
89547. What was the experience of the town council before that ?—The experience of the town council with regard to the road-making do you mean ?
89548. Yes ?—They had not such a loss as we had with regard to the stone breaking, although they had a loss, but not anything like what it was with regard to the stone breaking.
89549. And the new road ?—There was a loss there, I think it would be somewhere about 15 or 16 per cent., perhaps, but not nearly such a large loss, because you can get a great many people who can work a shovel and spade who cannot break stones.
89550. You had no other means of getting employment than by working in co-operation with the town council ? —That is the only means we had ; that is one of our great difficulties.
89551. So that the town council might have been working the Act all along ?—They might, but I do not know that they would have worked it any better. There is this difficulty, the town council object that they cannot give us work because there is a possibility of their displacing their own permanent workmen. Nearly all these roads that the corporation made were roads that might have been left over, but just to provide the work they were gone on with.
89552. Were they main roads ?—There is one road way round by the sea which is entirely devoted to people in the summer time taking a walk by the side of the sea. That could quite easily have been left. It was in fact the one that cost the most money. They are not roads in the centre of the city.
89553. Not roads that require to be made very scientifically perhaps ?—No, they are not roads upon which there is going to be a large city traffic done.
89554. With regard to what you say about employers being compelled to give a proper chance to apprentices, are not employers as a rule only too anxious to give that ? —That may be in some cases, but not always. There is a tendency to take on more apprentices perhaps than would be well for them to get a good training. I do not think they are under any obligation now. I do not think there are any indentures to compel them to give proper training as there used to be in old times.
89555. Have you no experience of trade union limitation of apprenticeship in Aberdeen ?—There is a little, but not very much.
89556. As regards what you said as to technical training being given to both sexes, do you mean instruction in schools ?—I think so.
89557. In the elementary schools ?—Yes, I do not see why the people in Scotland should not make butter as well as the Danes, and be taught to make it ; unfortunately they are not doing it.
- Reluctance of genuine unemployed to apply to distress committee.
- Successful use of identification papers in Germany.
- Nature of work provided for unemployed in Aberdeen.
- Financial aspect of stone-breaking.
- Financial loss on relief works.
- Difficulty in providing work for unemployed.
- Question of displacement of corporation's permanent staff by relief works.
- Anticipated work for unemployed.
- Proposal to make adequate instruction of apprentices compulsory.
- Trade union limitation of apprenticeship.
- Technical training in agricultural pursuits in elementary schools proposed.

89558. Then, with regard to power being given to the local authority to purchase land at its agricultural value; have you any difficulty in obtaining land on those terms?—We have very great difficulty near the town.

89559. Near the town but not otherwise?—We have never extended our operations beyond near the town, because we thought there would be a difficulty in conveying them to a distance.

89560. You have not thought of a farm colony at all?—We have just been speaking about it and getting information, but we have not gone beyond that point.

89561. You do not think there would be difficulty in getting land for that, do you?—I am not sure but what there would be some difficulty.

89562. (*Mr. Benthams.*) Do you suggest that the distress committees should be abolished?—No, I would not go that length. I think they have been of a considerable amount of service.

89563. You do not suggest their duties should be handed over to the town council?—No, I think it is better the way it is. It is practically recognised in the Act, I think, as a committee of the town council, and it is more satisfactory as it is, because, as I have already stated, I think town councils have quite a sufficient amount of work to do already. Their work has very much increased the last few years.

89564. Do you consider the result of the working of the Act so far would justify its continuance?—Yes, but I think, of course, that the question of having to raise a certain sum of money before we get a grant is certainly objectionable, because you have very great difficulty in getting people to subscribe, because they are already rated for a certain portion of it.

89565. Do you suggest that you would abolish that appeal for voluntary contributions?—I think so.

89566. You would?—I think so.

89567. And provide work through the grants only?—And provide work through grants only, or some such arrangement; I think it all tends to this that there must be a central authority in close touch with all the labour exchanges or labour bureaux all over the country. Of course, a great deal depends in the working of an Act of this kind on the people who have the administration; there is no doubt about it that it is always dangerous to go to the extreme one way.

89568. How would the question be received of paying the whole of the costs out of local rates, and receiving no grants at all from the Imperial Exchequer?—I do not approve of that at all. I think this unemployed question must be dealt with as an Imperial question.

89569. That means it must be managed imperially?—I do not say it is entirely Imperial, but I think there should be cohesion between the local authority and the imperial authority.

89570. If there are Imperial funds, should there not be some safeguard of the expenditure of those funds by some control of the Government, either in the form of representatives on the distress committees or in some other form?—You mean a control from the Government side?

89571. Yes?—There would be that under the present Local Government Board. I find them very careful in regard to matters of that kind.

89572. You would agree that the restrictions that are imposed by the Local Government Board should continue?—I think so; I think they are very satisfactory.

89573. If you were allowed to pay wages out of the grants, and were relying on grants only, it would mean that you would have more restrictions than you have at present to prevent abuse, would you not?—I think it is very possible. I think really there is more need for that in Scotland than there is in England, because you have power, as I understand, under the English parish council system to give relief to able-bodied men.

89574. Yes?—We have no such power in Scotland, of course.

89575. Therefore you feel that you need some power for dealing with the unemployed, apart from the Poor Law, because the Poor Law does not deal with them; is that the point?—Yes, I think so; apart from the Poor Law.

89576. Then, as the Unemployed Workmen Act was intended to provide for an honest working man who was temporarily out of employment, you acknowledge that that has not been entirely adhered to?—No, but in the main it has.

89577. It is rather a high percentage of the total Number of applicants in Aberdeen that has been considered eligible for work. It is about 80 per cent., is it not, to Distress Committee qualified for work under the Act—I think you will see it is 81·09?—I suppose you are speaking from a Local Government Report? found eligible for assistance

89578. Yes?—Very likely that is so.

89579. Does not that point rather to a lax discrimination?—From practical experience, I do not think there has been much. I quite admit that in some cases there may be a little stretching of the point, but there is very careful supervision by the Local Government Board from Edinburgh over the matter. I am quite satisfied if anything were very far out we should soon hear of it.

89580. Do you agree that you should deal with people under the Act who are at certain periods of the year receiving Poor Law relief from the parish council, or would you disqualify that class altogether?—It is very difficult to say on a point of that kind. Question as to making Poor Law relief a bar to assistance by Distress Committee.

89581. The object is to deal with those cases which are not ordinary Poor Law cases. If they first come to the distress committee and then to the parish council and get relief alternatively, it would be relieving a class not intended by the Act, would it not?—Yes, that is so, but you always come back to this; what are you going to do with these people; you cannot allow them to starve in the streets. If you cannot get a charity to take them up, what are you going to do with them.

89582. Those who are oscillating between the one and the other could be left to the other, could they not?—Left to the charities?

89583. No, left to the Poor Law; if the Poor Law recognises it is a class they can deal with, why should the distress committee do it?—If the Poor Law recognises they can deal with them, you do not deal with them.

89584. I thought you hesitated about giving a direct answer as to whether the distress committee should deal with such cases?—I do not exactly understand that; if it is a case that comes under the powers of the parish council, I would have no difficulty in saying that they should go there.

89585. What would be the evidence you would require for that?—The evidence that the person could go to the parish council.

89586. You would let the parish council decide, would you?—Certainly, if it was a case applicable to them the parish council would decide that it was a suitable one to be dealt with by them.

89587. If they made application to the distress committee first would you refer them to the parish council to see whether they would be dealt with there?—You mean to say they might get the advantage of the distress committee before going to the parish council?

89588. Yes?—I say our experience in Aberdeen, and Co-operation I am pretty emphatic upon that, is that we are in each in Aberdeen case in such close touch with the officials of the parish council that we have no difficulty upon that point. Of officers of course Aberdeen is not a city like Glasgow, and it is more easily managed than a large city. Distress Committee and Parish Council.

89589. I take it you have a very careful enquiry made into the condition of these people?—Very careful Strictness of enquiry, if they are being enquired into by the distress committee. If there is any doubt in their mind that these people are trying to impose on them, communication is opened between the parish council and the poor association, which has been referred to. Distress Committee.

89590. The officer does not go as a matter of course for information to the parish council?—If there is any doubt about the applicant.

89591. I meant taking all the cases as they arise?—Method of If our officer is not perfectly satisfied with what is stated in the schedule, he opens up communications with the parish council, and also with the local charities. investigating cases by Aberdeen Distress Committee.

89592. With that method a good many people might slip through which your officer had no doubt about.

*Baillie
Alexander
Wilkie.*

14 Jan. 1908.

Objection of
genuine un-
employed
workmen to
apply to
parish officer.

while it might be found the parish council knew a great deal about them?—It might; but I suppose no system is absolutely right.

89593. Do you think a little closer co-operation would be of great advantage?—I have no objection to close co-operation, only this: that I say the genuine unemployed workman objects to go to the parish council to make application. There is no doubt about that. I remember when we started working under this Act first in Aberdeen the question was discussed whether the office should not be in connection with the parish council office; and the consensus of opinion was very largely against it.

Class of
persons in-
tended to be
dealt with by
Distress
Committees.
Approxima-
tion of
powers, etc.
of Scottish
parish
councils to
English pro-
posed.
Assistance to
able-bodied
by parish
councils pro-
posed.

89594. I take it that the genuine unemployed workman is the only class of man you want to deal with under the Distress Committee?—That is the only class of man we want to deal with.

89595. Then you would have no objection to subjecting all the cases to a very rigorous investigation by the parish council in order that you do not deal with any other than that class?—Provided you extend the powers of parish councils, and make them the same as they are in England.

89596. That would not be needed, would it, if you went to the parish council to make enquiry, or submit all your particulars to the parish council to see what they know about the case?—I think the parish council (leaving the distress committee for a moment) should have power to assist able-bodied persons on some occasions, because they sometimes arise, I have known them arise, when they have no power to give them anything.

89597. If that is so do you think you could abolish distress committees?—With the present number of unemployed men I do not think you can. I am afraid, except some general improvement takes place in trade, and in getting people back from the towns on to the land, a distress committee becomes an absolute necessity.

89598. If your suggestion is acted upon both bodies would be dealing with the able-bodied, would that be right?—To a limited extent they might.

89599. How can it be limited?—I say there are some cases of men who come under the cognisance of the parish council who perhaps are away from home; they are able-bodied, they are away from the particular place where they are located, and their wives and families are left. What are you to do with them? The parish council can do nothing. I think in some way or other that class, whether good or bad, has to be dealt with in some way. You are not going to allow them to starve, however bad they may be.

89600. You can get over the difficulty by allowing the parish council to deal with all classes and abolish the

distress committee altogether?—We have had that experiment before the distress committee came into operation.

89601. Not quite, because the parish council could not deal with the able-bodied?—But you could in England.

89602. Yes.—Have not you distress committees in England.

89603. Yes, we have.—But you found it necessary to bring distress committees into operation.

89604. I wondered how far it would have been possible to dispense with them in Scotland if that power were given to the parish council?—I do not think it would be.

89605. (*Mrs. Webb.*) Have you any difficulty in Aberdeen in finding work for the unemployed?—We find great difficulty.

89606. Do you foresee any work before you?—I cannot say we do.

89607. You have finished your roads, have you not?—We have, and we have found great difficulty in finding work for them. We have been driven back to sending them to the quarries to break stones, and we do not know whether we can get a market for them.

89608. Would there not be something to be said for the whole question of unemployment being dealt with by a Scotch National Committee?—But I think you would have to have local committees, as well.

89609. I mean to deal with finances?—I have no objection to that. I think it is an Imperial question to some extent.

89610. Practically the distress committees in Scotland has become the authority to deal with able-bodied destitution?—That is so; there is no other way it can be dealt with.

89611. You have quite a different problem to what we have?—It is a different problem to what there is in England.

89612. You found that the old strict Poor Law, which had no provision for able-bodied destitution, was a hardship?—I think so; it has been in the same position now for sixty-two years and there has been no change.

89613. I gather that in Aberdeen the parish council had a gravel pit to which they sent able-bodied adult persons?—Yes, the parish council have a sand-pit; they sell the sand and that employs a certain number, but it is a very limited number.

89614. Those were able-bodied men, were they not?—I do not know, I am sure. I do not know how they work that sand-pit. It does not employ a large number. I know they have such a thing, but I do not know how they work it.

Colonel J. SMITH PARK, M.V.O., called; and Examined.

*Colonel J.
Smith Park,
M.V.O.*

14 Jan. 1908.

Qualifica-
tions of
witness.

Annual dock
labour bill of
Allan Steam-
ship
Company.
Number of
dock
labourers em-
ployed by
Company.
Direct en-
gagement of
dock labour.
Employment
of stevedores.

89615. (*Chairman.*) You have been kind enough to prepare a statement which we will treat as your evidence-in-chief, if you will kindly hand it in?—Certainly. (*The Witness handed in the following Statement.*)

1. I am a shipowner and underwriter at Lloyd's; have been connected with the "Allan" Line of steamers for thirty-six and a half years, and have also been manager of the Park Steamship Co., Ltd., for fourteen years. During my connection with the "Allan" Line, besides having charge of the commercial department, I have had to be thoroughly in touch with the quay department of its business, and the following *précis* is based on personal experience, supplemented naturally by that of the working heads of our quay staff. During a year our dock labour bill, i.e., exclusive of tradesmen, etc., at the port of Glasgow will amount to about £45,000. During a year we may occasionally have as many as 600 to 700 individual dock labourers at work in a period of twenty-four hours, and again may have as few as 125 in the same time.

2. The principal steamship lines sailing from Glasgow engage direct the dock labourers required for the discharging and loading of their cargoes. The other lines and steamers coming to the port employ stevedores, who contract for the work at a rate per ton and themselves engage the necessary labour.

These principal steamship lines and the stevedores retain continuously on weekly wages as many foremen distinct as they consider necessary to carry on their work under classes of normal conditions, and each foreman has a following of dock labourers.

3. The dock labourers may be divided into three classes:—

(a) First class or *bonâ-fide* dock labourer, who is thoroughly experienced and is included in one of the regular foremen squads above referred to. These men seldom leave their foreman, and are in attendance to take whatever employment offers, by day or night.

(b) Second class.—The men of this class are as experienced as the first, but are not attached to a regular squad. They find employment when extra squads are required, which occurs almost daily, and they seek and find their employment all over the harbour.

(c) Third class.—This class is only occasionally employed at the dock. They are not experienced in discharging or loading. They find employment when work is in excess of what the first and second class can overtake, and the foremen are consequently

obliged to employ them. They are a mixed lot, representing all professions and trades, and their numbers are greatly augmented when there is a slackness of work in any other class of trade.

4. It may be broadly stated that there are no unemployed dock labourers of the first and second classes, but there are always a large number of men of the third class out of work.

They are to be found at all hours, day and night, seeking employment.

They seem only anxious for work when necessity compels, and are, as a rule, of little use. A short spell of a few hours satisfies them, and when they receive their wages they disappear for a time. They have no intention of continuing seriously at work or of qualifying themselves for regular and better employment.

5. Labour at a port, where arrivals of steamers are intermittent, necessarily involves irregular hours of working, but it is not quite correct to call the work done at night as "overtime" in the ordinary sense of the word, although a higher rate of wages is paid between 6 p.m. and 6 a.m. When the principal lines find it necessary to work at night, they regulate the employment of their men by working a number of their foremen and their squads during the day and relieving them by others at night.

This arrangement is carried out as far as possible, and at the "Allan" Line the record of the total number of hours a foreman has been directing his squads, day and night, shows a weekly average of fifty-one hours for the year 1906. This number of hours would represent an average weekly wage to a first class dock labourer of about 31s. 6d.

The stevedores' practice conforms to the foregoing where they have the same class of work, but with many stevedores there is little night work save on the eve of sailing.

6. The first and second class dock labourers cannot be said to be unemployed at any season. Their hours are regulated by the amount of work there is to do, and taking the year through they will earn a fair wage, probably about 26s. to 30s. a week.

7. Many causes account for those of the third class not being fully employed. A principal reason is that they are unfitted for the general all-round work of a dock labourer, partly because of their physique, but mainly on account of their unsettled habits.

They never seem willing to undertake any other than the lightest kind of work, and they certainly never exert themselves as they might to secure regular employment.

When they earn sufficient for their present needs, they knock off work, and consequently cannot be depended on.

They rarely qualify to fill vacancies in the first and second classes, which classes are usually recruited from able-bodied men attracted from other places by the good wages; such men soon adapt themselves to the work.

8. The effects of any depression in trade throughout the country, or of a protracted strike in any of the shipbuilding centres, are very noticeable at the docks. Both labourers and tradesmen thrown out of work find their way to the docks and swell the ranks of the third class of labourers referred to. Those men naturally don't intend to remain dock labourers, but there are always a number of these who get employment, who adapt themselves to the work, and eventually secure places in the first and second classes.

Such an influx of men to the docks does not materially affect employment of men in the first and second classes, but the men of the third class suffer, as there is a better selection of steady able-bodied men among the strangers.

9. The operation of the Workmen's Compensation Acts more and more tends to prevent weaker and older men being employed.

10. As indicated, the genuine well-conducted able-bodied dock labourer can have practically constant employment at wages above that of the average labourer, and he is quite contented.

11. The finding of a remedy to improve the condition of the men in the third class can only be considered when dealing with the unemployed question as a whole.

12. It would be manifestly unfair to the shipowner or stevedore to be burdened with any responsibility in regard to them, and they could not reasonably be expected to alter their methods of engaging men, and to arrange their work so as to give an equal share of employment to a class of men who are in themselves unsuitable, and whose numbers are constantly fluctuating according to circumstances.

13. The proportion of men in the third class, however, who are permanent frequenters of the docks is not regarded as great, and if they could be separated from the others who come to the docks periodically owing to slackness of work, strikes, etc., it would probably be found that their remedy lies only in their own hands. The Minutes of the Govan Distress Committee of February 25th, 1907, show that out of the 138 applications for relief from men belonging to the labouring classes only five were from quay labourers, and that prior to the meeting at which the Minutes were submitted three had secured work, leaving only two to be assisted.

14. So far as my observation goes, the work of the unemployed committees has not been a great success, is costly, and is subject to much abuse.

15. My own view is that want of employment is very largely the result either of idle or vicious habits, or absence of sound physique and well-trained habits, and of men not being properly educated in some kind of handiwork.

16. As already explained, the principal employers of dock labour organise their work so as to, as far as possible, give a constant employment to the men who form their regular squads.

There are many difficulties to contend with. The uncertainty of arrivals of vessels, the necessity for adhering to fixed sailing dates, especially with passenger steamers, and the variation in the amount of work to be overtaken, make it quite impossible to decasualise labour at the docks.

17. The men fully realise the necessity of the conditions under which they work, and when work is plentiful it is very noticeable that numbers of them prefer the somewhat higher pay of night work, taking a day off when it suits them, and returning when they feel inclined to work.

Many men who have accepted permanent weekly employment at other places, having had experience of the dock work, returned to the latter with its greater freedom.

18. Beyond the obvious ones of inculcating the practising of the virtues of thrift, sobriety and independence, I have no special remedies to suggest. I often think, however, that there is a great field for improving the physique and habits of the rising generation by universal physical and military training, and that some of the money presently spent on ordinary education might with greater advantage be used in teaching lads between fourteen and seventeen some useful handicraft, as far too many lads are growing up simply as errand boys, etc., learning no useful trade, and not even having their physical powers properly developed. I believe a sound physique is more often than people think a great safeguard against one becoming the victim of drink, etc.

89616. (Chairman.) I only propose to put to you questions where your paper deals with matters special to Glasgow which have not been before us. You have a very special knowledge of the Allan Line of steamers? —Yes; I have been connected with it for thirty-six and a half years.

89617. In Glasgow what is the distinction between a stevedore and a docker? Is the stevedore a skilled man? —The stevedore is a skilled stower of cargo, whereas a mere docker is engaged both in discharging and loading and is a man who does not require to have any very great skill for the mere discharging.

89618. Would the foreman be a stevedore? —He would be a foreman stevedore, and, of course, there are master stevedores, too.

89619. Taking your system of dealing with dock labourers, you have three classes. Have you them on your books? —No.

89620. You have not a certain number of men, as is the practice on certain lines, who remain on the first list from 1 to 500, the next from 500 to 1,000, and so on? —No; but these classes which I have divided the dockers into is rather an arbitrary division that I have

Colonel J. Smith Park, M.V.O.

14 Jan. 1903.

Proportion of dock labourers among applicants to Govan Distress Committee.

Abuse and costliness of Distress Committees.

Causes of unemployment.

Impossible to decasualise dock labour.

Freedom of dock labour appreciated by men.

Remedies suggested for unemployment.

Technical training for boys on leaving school needed.

Qualification of witness.

Difference between stevedores and dock labourers.

Colonel J. Smith Park, M.V.O.
14 Jan. 1908.
Chances of employment among various classes of dock labourers.

made myself in order to distinguish clearly between the different classes of labourers. But what happens is this, that the permanent hands are all in the first class. They always get the first chance of employment, and naturally we take the second class next, and the third class we only take when, from pressure of work, we cannot get either of the other two classes. The men are known by head-mark by the various foremen.

89621. Then the foremen select?—Yes; a foreman keeps, as much as he can, a steady gang working with him. He always gives them the preference of work. The result is that they come to the ships regularly looking for work; and the men of the first class pretty well confine themselves, in the case of our service, to our own boats, unless we happen to be specially slack.

Systems of dock labour in Glasgow and Liverpool.

89622. Is the system you have been describing in force in Glasgow alone, so far as the Allan Line is concerned, or does the same system prevail in Liverpool?—I think the system is somewhat different in Liverpool; but there are other lines in Glasgow which practically follow very much the same lines as ours. In fact most of the large liners employ their labour just as we do.

Irregularity of dock labour unavoidable.

89623. Then you would say that classes 1 and 2 are in receipt of regular employment?—It works out regular employment; but both classes are employed by the hour; and necessarily where they are employed by the hour the employment is more or less irregular; but it works out in practice that the men of these two classes get steady employment.

89624. I understand all employment is casual, that is to say, it is for a short period, and the short period is an hour, and not for half a day?—No, we do not work by the day or half day at all, we work by the hour.

First class dock labourers remain so during working life.

89625. Taking these classes, would it not be the fact that a man who was a first class labourer up to a certain time of life would, as he got older and his strength became less, drift down into the second class, and then find himself in the third class?—I think the first class dock labourer is a pretty stuffy individual; and his experience and skill enable him to keep in the first class almost to the end. We have had men working in our gangs for over thirty years.

89626. Men of, say, fifty or sixty working?—Yes, we have men of fifty and sixty years, and even over, but of course the tendency of recent legislation will be to make it more difficult to keep the old men in employment.

Casual nature of dock labour appreciated by men.

89627. We have had certain evidence from those engaged in this work, and it appears that certainly in Liverpool strong men, and the men whom you put as first class, like the system of short employment, because they can break their employment without losing it, that is, they can take a day or two without losing the employment?—I think you will find I have made a statement to a similar effect in my own evidence. I have pointed out that my own men who have accepted permanent weekly employment at other places, having had experience of the dock work, returned to the latter with its greater freedom. They like to take a day off when it suits them and return to work when they feel inclined to.

Surplus labour at docks inevitable.

89628. Still the result is that there is always a surplus of labour at the docks?—That I think is inevitable, because the nature of the work is such that men who are unemployed in other work drift down to the docks in the hope of getting work. It is a class of work in which casual work is more easily obtained than any other; for example, when the shipyards are idle we have a great influx of men coming down to the docks seeking work.

89629. The labourers come down?—Yes, the labourers from the ship yards, and then the moment the shipyards begin to be busy again these men, or the greater portion of them, withdraw from the dock work and go back to the yard.

89630. I suppose those men are fairly efficient?—Fairly efficient for discharging work, where it is a matter of physique principally, but there are in this third class which I referred to, a great many men who are very indifferent workers and who are only taken on because of the pressure of work which leaves us no alternative.

89631. The third class would be rather the receptacle for those who failed in other businesses?—Yes.

89632. What sort of proportion would you say the third class was numerically to the first and second classes?—It is a varying percentage, but a comparatively small one, I think. I really cannot tell the numbers.

89633. Less than in Liverpool would you say?—Of course, Liverpool must be very much larger in every way in its numbers.

89634. In Glasgow are the vessels loaded and unloaded in basins?—Glasgow is a tidal port, and the vessels simply lie in the river, or docks off the river, which are all tidal docks; that is, the water in them rises and falls with the tide.

89635. Do the large vessels come up to Glasgow?—Ports of Yes. The largest vessels go up to Glasgow. We have vessels going up drawing 29 feet, but we cannot have the largest vessels for size because we are limited for length. Liverpool is an incomparably larger port than Glasgow. as to size.

89636. You do not think that the life the docker has to lead, which necessitates his dawdling about a great deal, tends to deterioration?—I do not think so if he is a well-behaved man, as I think the bulk of our regular hands are. Moral effect of dock life.

89637. Take the first class; in an ordinary year how many days' work a week would the men get? I suppose I must take hours rather than days?—I caused the time of our foreman to be worked out for the past year, and I found he worked a weekly average of fifty-one hours all the year round. Average weekly working hours of "Allan" Line foremen and 1st class dock labourers.

89638. That is the foreman?—Yes, and the chances are that this would fairly represent the number of hours that the men in the first class would also get.

89639. You think that the men in the first class would be as continuously engaged as the foreman?—Pretty much so.

89640. Taking Classes 1 and 2, how do they stand one to the other, say as regards the Allan Line?—What will happen more with the second class is that they will probably not be so fully employed with the Allan Line, but as far as their weekly employment is concerned, they will probably have as much as the other men because of the employment they get with other lines. For instance, to take the dock at which our vessels load and discharge principally, the Princes' Dock, Glasgow, the Donaldson Line also load and discharge in that dock, and what regularly happens is if we are specially busy and Donaldson's happen to be slack in that particular week, which quite often happens, men who work at Donaldson's when employment is offering there will come to our berth and get work, and in the same way, when the position is reversed, our men will go to the Donaldson boat and get work. I think both the men of the first class and the second class get pretty regular employment all the year round, and we calculate a good dock labourer will earn from 26s. to 30s. a week all the year round. Condition of employment among 2nd class dock labourers.

89641. Do they all come on the stands at the same time. You have stands, have you not, to which they come for employment?—They come for employment to our berths at hours depending on our requirements.

89642. Are the hours always the same every day?—No. Ours being a regular service, we must dispatch our boats on a given date, and the result is that if by reason of weather, or any other cause, they arrive at a time that gives them a short period to discharge and load, we would work continuously night and day after they came in, and the men would be told to turn out accordingly. We usually get them reported off the coast. Supposing a steamer that was in a hurry was notified as coming up the Firth on Sunday, a note would be put up that work would start at midnight Sunday and the men would turn out then. Methods of engaging dock labour at Glasgow.

89643. Is not the practice for the people to come every day to a certain place in order to see if they can get employment on your line?—They will come to a certain place more or less, but not to a common place for all the lines.

89644. There are different what I call stands for the different lines?—They will go to the berth at which a particular steamer has work.

89645. They are not all taken on at the same hour?—No.

89646. For instance, if a vessel comes in late, say in the afternoon at four or five, a lot of men might get taken on then?—Yes, they might.

89647. How do they know a vessel is coming?—They get to know pretty well by their experience in the work. They, for instance, will get to know whether that boat is in a hurry. For instance, if a boat came in about five in the afternoon and that boat was not in any hurry we would not start until the following morning, but these men would know when the steamer arrived at the berth whether that steamer was in a hurry and whether they would start that particular afternoon.

89648. It seems to me that if there is no particular hour at which the men are engaged, they must be hanging about in order to get engaged?—The men get to know very well whether a vessel will start or not, and if they know the vessel is going to start the limit of time within which they require to appear is pretty clearly defined by the tide. The vessel must come up on the tide; she may vary half an hour or so, but not more than that.

89649. Take this case, supposing your foreman takes on the number of men that is wanted in the morning, and no vessel comes in, I suppose the number of hands he takes on in the morning would be the number of hands that would probably be employed for the day?—Yes, the chances are that would be so unless we were finishing discharging or loading.

89650. If a vessel came in the men would hear of it and come?—If another vessel came in and the one vessel were finishing, the chances are the permanent hands would be transferred to the new one.

89651. Supposing a new vessel came in, would not a number of new hands come in on the chance of being taken on?—Yes, if she was going to be started that day.

89652. It seems to me that under that system the men must spend a considerable amount of time waiting about on the chance of getting employment?—It looks like it in theory, but in practice it is not so. I may say I examined our heads of department very specially on that point before I came up here, and the reply I got was practically to the effect that these men get to judge wonderfully well how much work there would be going and when it would be starting, and they do not have to hang about very much.

89653. Then as regards the other point; you are pretty confident with regard to your own men that the men of the first class stop on there for a long time in that class?—Yes, there is no question about it whatever. We have them for years and years.

89654. As regards the unemployment, in Paragraph 13 you state that out of 138 applications to the Govan Distress Committee only five were quay labourers?—Yes, and prior to the meeting at which the minutes were submitted three had secured work, leaving only two to be assisted. I do not profess to be up in the work of the distress committee, but at the time I was preparing this statement I was consulting some of our quay people about it, and our time-keeper, who is a very intelligent man, brought up the minutes of the Govan Distress Committee to show me as a proof of what he had stated himself, that the dock labourers in Glasgow were not a class who were out of employment; that is dock labourers proper, not the hangers-on. I may say that they receive very good pay; we pay our dock labourers 7d. an hour during the day.

89655. I think we have it in evidence that, taking the customary rate of wages, those who get employment get well paid?—Yes. Of course, they have to be of fairly good physique.

89656. Our evidence rather was as to this distribution of money that the wages that were earned were distributed amongst a good many people, but that there was not continuous employment. —We have to settle a good many claims under the Workmen's Compensation Act, and we never are able to settle any dock labourer's claim on a less basis than an average wage of 26s. per week.

89657. Your experience is that this work is popular with the men of certain physique?—Yes, it is certainly popular amongst the regular men, and it is not by any means such hard work as it used to be. I can recall the

time when there is no doubt that dock labour was very severe. For example, it used to be a regular practice that these men had to carry ashore on a plank bags of flour weighing 280 lbs. Practically all that sort of thing is done away with by the introduction of cranes.

89658. Did you ever consider at all, as connected with this great line, whether it would be possible to convert a certain number of your dock labourers into weekly wage earners?—Yes, we have worked our men on weekly wages for a good while. I may say we started it during the time of a big strike, which is very often the cause of these changes being tried. At that time we were paying 6d. an hour as wages, and we offered a guarantee of fifty-four hours work a week, that is a wage of 27s. a week, for men to come, and we got an immense number of good able-bodied men just come from the country to take this form of employment. In the long run we found that it did not work satisfactorily, the men preferred to take the chance of getting night work and not being tied down to so many hours of day work.

89659. When you say not satisfactory, do you mean not satisfactorily financially? What was the effect, was there much difference?—I think the men preferred to be free.

89660. That is another point rather; as an employer of labour was it more expensive?—I do not know that we cared for it very much either, because it sometimes left us with a good many men that we could not find employment for, because, as I have explained in my statement, our work varies considerably in extent. Sometimes we will have 600 or 700 men employed in the twenty-four hours, and in another twenty-four hours we may have as few as 125; and that had another result, that the number of men that we could afford to take on for weekly wages was comparatively limited, and there was apt to be jealousy and difficulties between the two classes of men.

89661. Supposing you had regular labourers, I suppose it would not affect the amount of wages you paid, would it, as against the present system?—I do not think it would affect the amount of wages, because we would naturally take care that the number of weekly wages men we took on would be pretty well confined to the number that we could employ constantly.

89662. Supposing you were able to regularise employment, and take on a certain number, I suppose those whom you took on at odd times would not get as many hours a week as those that you had in your regular employ?—Naturally those we had in our regular employment would get the first call.

89663. It has been urged on us from many sources that this irregularity of employment exercises a detrimental effect both morally and physically on the men?—No doubt it may have some effect in that way, but I do not see how in the circumstances of the business you can very well avoid it, unless you have one great employer to do the whole work of the harbour, which would be a remedy ten times worse than the disease.

89664. There is the objection of the men. The men prefer the freedom of the present system, I understand?—Some of them; I do not think it applies to a very large number.

89665. Supposing you could get over the objection of the employers to having a considerable number of men regularly employed weekly, do you think the men would like it?—I think a weekly wage has an attraction for men, but then there is this great difficulty about weekly employment with us, that we have to have frequently so much night work. As I have explained already we will sometimes go on continuously working from the hour the ship arrives until she sails, and it is very difficult to work weekly wages men into that.

89666. I suppose the man who was working all night would be off next day?—Of course, that is what we try to do, but the physique of these dock labourers is such that I have seen many working practically for thirty-six hours without a stop except for their meals. So much did we dislike that sort of thing, because we know that you do not get the full value from the men, that we used to try to put the men off in the day—refuse them during the day and keep them fresh for the night, but we found we had to abandon that as a fixed rule because what very often happened was that they went and worked with someone else during the day and worked with us

Colonel J. Smith Park,
M.V.O.
14 Jan. 1908.

Permanent wages for a good while. I may say we started it during the time of a big strike, which is very often the cause of these changes being tried. At that time we were paying 6d. an hour as wages, and we offered a guarantee of fifty-four hours work a week, that is a wage of 27s. a week, for men to come, and we got an immense number of good able-bodied men just come from the country to take this form of employment. In the long run we found that it did not work satisfactorily, the men preferred to take the chance of getting night work and not being tied down to so many hours of day work.

Preference of dock labourers for casual employment.

Financial aspect of permanent engagement of dock labourers by "Allan" Line.

Moral and physical effect of irregular dock labour.

Preference of dock labourers for casual employment.

Difficulty of weekly employment of dock labourers.

Colonel J. Smith Park, M.V.O. for the night, so we felt we were better off to get the freshness during the day rather than let someone else have it.

14 Jan. 1908. 89667. What is the attraction of working twenty-four hours on end?—Then they can lie off for a day or two.

89668. (*Mrs. Webb.*) The work to be done is there?—Yes, and they might not get it next time. It has an advantage with some of them that they can then take a day or two off. I do not think they are quite so hard worked during the night, that is another thing; you never get the work so well supervised at night.

Tendency of boys to casual work. 89669. (*Chairman.*) Now coming to your last paragraph, do you think there is a tendency amongst the boys leaving school to take up casual work, doing errand jobs, and things of that kind?—I think there is an undoubted tendency with all boys of the working class to take the biggest price they can get at first. I think neither they nor their parents, speaking generally, seem to realise the benefit of sacrificing a little in their earlier years for the benefit of the better pay arising from knowing a trade. I had a very striking example of that brought to my notice a short time ago in connection with one of the largest shipbuilders on the Clyde. He was over in Ireland on one of the famous golf links, and he was rather taken with the lad who caddied for him. He asked him: Did he never think of learning a trade, and he said: Well, he might. He said, If you come over to Glasgow and come to my yard, I will see that you get employment. The lad came over; he was a lad of about sixteen, and he started him to train as a joiner. Within a month of his being started at that he came to him to get rid of the agreement to learn the trade of a joiner, because he found he could earn so much more as a labourer, and all the persuasion of my friend could not induce that young lad to stick to his apprenticeship to learn to be a joiner and give up the temptation of the extra pay.

Technical training needed for boys.

89670. That is a tendency which has been described to us by a great many other witnesses. How can you deal with it?—I cannot say that I have studied this question in detail. I am satisfied in my own mind that there is a great evil in the youth of the country not being trained to handicrafts, but I cannot say that I have studied the matter. As I say in my evidence, I think that some of the money that is spent in teaching a lot of these boys a, to my mind, somewhat useless class of education, might with advantage be employed in training them in handicraft, but I do not profess to have gone into the question fully.

89371. Though you have no remedy, you know that the evil is there?—I am quite satisfied the evil is there.

Desirability of universal military and physical training for boys.

89372. You also suggest that you think the physique and habits of the rising generation would be improved by some physical training?—Yes. As a volunteer officer, I am in favour of universal physical training and universal military training.

89673. At an early period, when they are boys?—Yes, I think it should be carried out in the schools most thoroughly, and I think when they leave school, when they come up to be lads, they should be compelled to train themselves to take their share in the defence of their country.

89674. Do you attach importance to that training from a physical point of view or a moral point of view?—I think from both a physical and moral point of view.

89375. In the moral sense that they get habits of self-restraint and discipline?—I think they get into better habits when they are under discipline. I think that a great many of these hooligans get into mischief because they have no proper outlet for their energies. I may say I am a great believer in the degradation that arises from cigarette smoking. That is not a matter of theory, but a matter of experience in my own office. I traced so frequently pilfering of cash, stamps, &c., to boys who smoked cigarettes, that a few years ago I made a rule that during their apprenticeship they were liable to be dismissed for smoking, either within or out of office hours.

Evils of cigarette smoking.

Half-time employment for boys.

89376. (*Mrs. Webb.*) About these boys, would it be possible to have a half-time arrangement, so to speak, an extension of the Factory Act from fourteen to eighteen or nineteen?—I may say that I cannot speak for apprenticeship for the class of labour that we have, because we do not take boys at all; they do not get employment with us.

89377. I was rather thinking of whether it would be possible to organise some system of half-time education or training, whereby you take the boy for half his working hours and his leisure and give him some sort of technical education in classes or military training?—You mean after he has entered on his apprenticeship?

89378. Yes. I was not thinking of the boy who was properly apprenticed, but the boys you spoke of, who were errand boys and went to highly paid labour?—I cannot speak from the point of view of an employer of that kind of labour and how it would work. An employer might say: It does not suit me to have lads on for half a day.

89379. That would not necessarily be a complete reply to the community, would it? It might not suit the employer, but it might suit the community?—I am afraid you will have to have some regard to the employers' interests, although they are not much considered now-a-days.

89380. Really your position is that it would be desirable from the point of view of the community?—I have no doubt whatever it is desirable something should be done to prevent these lads growing up without any sort of training. In fact, they do not even get their physique properly trained. I may be wrong, but I have a very strong opinion that there is no man of proper physique, proper intelligence, and proper character who need go without work in this country. The men who cannot get work, generally speaking, are wastrels, either physically, mentally, or morally.

89381. And you say that is caused largely in your opinion by these boys when between fourteen and twenty getting high wages and no training?—Fourteen and twenty; I dare say that is so, because from fourteen to sixteen, I do not know if it is so objectionable, because they are free to leave school at fourteen and, with workmen's children, I do not think they can do much good by remaining after fourteen, and they cannot get apprenticed as a rule before sixteen, so I do not know that there is any harm in their getting employment between fourteen and sixteen, but the evil is that they continue doing that class of work even after they are sixteen, instead of learning a trade.

Evils of casual employment for boys after 16.

89682. Assuming we could not establish the old-fashioned apprenticeship, which I suppose you would assume?—Of course, trade unions are a great barrier to apprentices being taken.

89683. Quite apart from that, we are told in London that the employers do not find it worth their while to take on apprentices of that sort?—I suppose that is partly due to the fact of the difficulty in getting lads to complete their apprenticeship.

Reason for desuetude of apprenticeship.

89684. They find it does not pay them to have the bother of teaching?—I can quite understand that.

89685. Assuming that, would you be in favour of some sort of compulsory military training or military drill?—I am in favour of compulsory training or physical drill, apart from the question of apprenticeship.

Desirability of compulsory military and physical training for boys.

89686. Supposing that employers of labour objected to your military training, would you sympathise with them?—Speaking from an experience of a pretty large number of employers, I do not believe they would object to military training.

89687. Supposing they did very violently, what would you say, would you still want it?—You mean supposing the Legislature said there was to be military training and the employer objected?

89688. Supposing we miserable folk who propose things proposed military training which representatives of employers of labour declared against, and said it was very inconvenient to have it because it took the men away?—That is where the benefit of a compulsory military training would come in. At the present time I know some employers do object to those of their employees who go in for military training. I have had experience of men losing their employment because they had gone to camp, but if it was the law of the country that every youth had to undergo a certain amount of military training no employer could have any interest in objecting.

Advantage of compulsory military training.

89689. That is a great advantage, it would end the matter?—It would not work out as an injury to the employer because every man would have a small number

possibly in his employ each year; but seeing you talk about military training, I want you to understand I am not one of those who are in favour of anything like conscription. I do not think there is any necessity to take men away from their homes at all. I think we can give a military training quite well without interfering with the normal employment.

89690. I am very glad to hear that. You would not think that the employers' objection against military training of this reasonable sort ought to hold good against the proposal for military training in the interests of the community?—In the first place, I do not think there would be any serious objection on the part of the employers to it.

89691. But if there was?—As I say, if it was made the law of the land, it would not matter a straw supposing they objected. It would not matter one whit, because they could not help themselves.

89692. Quite so, that is a great advantage. To come to this question of casual labour, do you think it is a good thing for these various characters to be able to get work casually at the docks?—I think it is; it very often tides over a period of difficulty. For instance, supposing a man is out of a job from, as I have indicated, slackness in the shipyard, it is better for him to be able to get some work at the docks than have to go about entirely idle or to be taken on and practically get pauper relief.

89693. Do you think it is good for a whole body of men to know that they can get work easily without reference to past character? Do you think that has a good effect on their conduct? Would you subject your own son to those conditions?—The class of work that they get, except a little tendency to steal whisky, is such that it does not offer much temptation, and does not require references very much.

89694. Is it good for a large body of men to feel that they can get employment without having a good character?—I do not know that you are entitled to say that that is the position even with the dock labourers. As I have said, the foremen know their men.

89695. But these hangers-on that you talk of?—There is a certain number who will get work without much enquiry; I think that applies to all classes of labour throughout the country, apart from skilled labour.

89696. Surely it applies more at the docks, where you have this sudden rush of work?—I daresay it does.

89697. Do you think that is a good thing for the character?—I do not know in theory it has any special benefit; it is certainly not a benefit.

89698. Is it a harm?—I do not know that you can establish it as a distinct harm.

89699. You said it is impossible to decasualise dock labour, but I notice you made one exception. You said, if there was one great employer to do all the work. Supposing there was one great employer to do all the work, could you decasualise labour?—I told you the remedy would be ten times worse than the disease.

89700. Assuming it was Messrs. Allan who were the one great employer?—We would certainly not face the duty, unless you gave us a monopoly of the shipping.

89701. Assuming for the moment you had a monopoly of the shipping, could you decasualise labour, supposing you were the sole employer?—I think it would almost necessarily imply that if we had the whole labour of the port and the whole business of the port to do, we unquestionably would be in a very much better position to dovetail the work. Mind you, we would have enormous other difficulties that would arise. I am simply talking of that broad question. Naturally the labour that does the work of the port just now, and which tends to divide itself over the work, so that dock labourers, whether they are working continuously with us or not, get a pretty steady average, could naturally be arranged so as to have pretty much a steady wage, if all the employment were in one hand.

89702. But you think that the other disadvantages of that would be so great that they would outweigh the advantages to labour?—Absolutely. I think the scheme is absolutely Utopian.

89703. Supposing you could do the same thing without having this great monopoly of trade, supposing you had some system like they have in Germany of labour exchanges at which all employers employ their casual labour, that is to say, you would go on with your permanent or semi-permanent hands, but when you wanted casual labour you would send to the central labour exchange, and all other employers would do the same, and although John Smith would only have half a day from you or two days in a fortnight from you, he would get other work dovetailed in from other employers. Supposing you could do that amongst yourselves, supposing it was administratively possible, would that not get over the difficulty of casual labour?—I do not think so. I think it is better to let the individual who wants to get the work look after the decasualisation of his labour himself.

89704. As you say, although you can decasualise some of your labour, there are always some of these hangers-on whom you could not decasualise?—If these men wanted they could go about from employer to employer, just as the regular hands do, but they do not want it.

89705. Do you not think the fact that they can pick up a livelihood in one or two days is rather a temptation not to want it?—I think those men who only get one or two days' employment during the week are usually the class of men who only want to work that time.

89706. Do you not think it would be better for them not to be able to do that?—I do not see that the labour exchanges would help you to do that, unless you were going to compel the men to work. Supposing you had some system by which you were going to compel all the wastrels of the country to work, locking up them if necessary to do it, I would go a good length with you.

89707. Supposing your labour exchange was in a position to say to John Smith: You come to us and we will give you regular work (through dovetailing your work with all these other employers), but if you do not come to us you will have to walk the streets without any work at all, in which case we shall be prosecuting you for not maintaining your wife and family, and then we may send you to a penal colony or something like that, do you not think that is a possible way of getting rid of this great stagnant pool?—It is very difficult to see. We want the men to be waiting for our work. We have very often spurts of work come on, and it would very often be awkward to go to a labour exchange for the men.

89708. That could be managed by telephone if you have a certain number of men always there waiting. It has actually been done in Germany in order to put down vagrancy.—You have a great many things in Germany which you have not got here.

89709. You would not like the restriction on your personal freedom?—It depends on what the restriction is. I have said I am strongly in favour of putting a restriction on the personal freedom by compelling the men to share in the defence of their country. You compel a man to do almost everything in this country, but that is the one thing that must not be touched.

89710. Supposing we thought it was very important to decasualise labour, we might restrict personal freedom?—I am quite prepared to consider your scheme when I see it in full detail. I will not commit myself in favour of it until then.

89711. (Professor Smart.) Is it correct to say that apprenticeship only begins at the age of sixteen?—I think in most trades it does, but really I am not well up on that. I think as a general rule it begins at sixteen.

89712. That is your impression on the Clyde?—I think the engineers require boys to be sixteen before they start apprenticeship.

89713. So there would be the less objection to raising the school age from fourteen to sixteen?—I do not know that, because the parents' needs come in. It is a very serious thing for the parents to have to keep their children up to sixteen without their earning some money. I went to business myself when I was fifteen, and could just as well have gone at fourteen.

89714. If you had not been able to get a job at fourteen you might as well have been at school?—As far as I can recollect I consider I wasted at least the last year at school.

Colonel J. Smith Park, M.V.O.
14 Jan. 1908.

Preference of certain class of men for casual labour.

Advantage of surplus dock labour.

Desirability of compulsory military training.

Objection to increasing age for school attendance.

Colonel J. Smith Park, M.V.O. 89715. The men who are regular men with you, the men you speak of as regular men, are men doing their fair share of overtime?—Yes, they do a fair share. Unquestionably the regular squad tends to get a fair share.

14 Jan. 1908. We do not regard the work at the quay as overtime in the ordinary sense; it is more night work.

Preference of dock labourers for night work. 89716. But the men like it?—They like it because they get a penny an hour more in our case, and, as I say, I do not think they have to work quite so hard.

89717. Then I understand these men, as a rule, are selected by the foremen?—Yes.

Conditions of dock labour. 89718. They do not work except for that foreman?—Not as a rule. If we are very slack, as sometimes happens, even our most regular men would go to another line and get employment. If they knew as an absolute fact that they were not going to get employment for two or three days, they might go to another line.

89719. That makes a sort of compromise in the matter of decasualisation?—I think so. I think it is a decasualisation which works out in practice.

89720. You spoke of joining the Donaldson Line?—No, not a bit.

89921. Not joining the line, but having your labour in common?—No, we never dreamt of such a thing.

89722. The men who are regularly engaged with you sometimes go to the Donaldson Line?—Yes, they sometimes do that, but they do that of their own volition. We take no part in it.

Suggested association of Glasgow shipowners for employment of dock labour. 89723. Would it not be possible for all the shipowners in Glasgow to join together into some association to enlarge the unit and so decrease casualisation?—I think there would be apt to be jealousies, because there would be times when you wanted a big lot of men.

89724. If you were forced by legislation to do something, is that not a possibility?—If forced by legislation, we have to do the best we can to comply with legislative requirements, but I for one would do my best to resist any such legislation being carried.

89725. Do you think it could be done?—There are very few things in this world which are impossible. I do not think it would be expedient, nor would it be profitable.

Experimental shift work by "Allan" line. 89726. You practically work by shifts. You say: "They regulate the employment of their men by working a number of their foremen and their squads during the day and relieving them by others at night"?—Yes, we relieve them as much as we can at night but, as I explained, we had to depart from that to a certain extent because we found if we were too rigid in knocking the men off their day work in order to keep them fresh for the night there was a tendency for them to go to other people during the day.

Nature of stevedores' work. 89727. You speak of the stevedores; they have little night work. How do they manage that; ships are always coming in at night?—Stevedores do a different class of work from the liners. As I explained, the liners are boats which must sail on a fixed date, and we come in and we are late, and we must work at whatever cost in order to overtake our date. A stevedore is more usually loading sailing ships and outside tramp steamers which are not so pushed for time and, as their work at night is very costly, I may say stevedores instead of paying their men a penny an hour extra during the night, as we do, have to pay three pence an hour extra, so their night work is tremendously costly and they, as a rule, do not work night work at all, unless perhaps on the eve of sailing when, by working a few hours, they can get a vessel away a day earlier.

Extra night pay by stevedores and "Allan" line compared.

89728. Then the plan you follow is practically followed by all the liners?—Yes.

Character of 1st class dock labourers. 89729. The vacancies which arise in the first and second classes are scarcely ever recruited from the third class, they come rather from other trades, I gather?—The first class are really men of good physique and good character who have adopted dock labour as their regular trade.

89730. You say the first class is usually recruited from able-bodied men attracted from other places by the good wages?—I thought you said other trades.

89731. I suppose you mean other trades as well?—There may be an occasional man; but I do not think a tradesman of good character and physique will become a dock labourer. Of course sailors who give up the sea very often become dock labourers.

89732. Do you know anything about the Dundee system of dock labour?—No.

89733. They have a sort of co-operation between them?—But then Dundee is a very one-horse place as compared with Glasgow. Dundee system of dock labour.

89734. You do not work on Sunday at all, do you?—No, never in this country. Like most Scotsmen when abroad we are a little more broad-minded. Absence of Sunday labour in Scotland.

89735. Your men get six days' work a week on the whole, but still there is a good deal of waiting about?—There is bound to be a good deal of waiting about; but as I explained the men get very smart in not requiring to wait about very much. They know pretty well when the work will commence.

89736. Waiting about you acknowledged is not a good thing for the men?—It is not a nice thing for any man having to seek employment.

89737. If all the sober men at the docks were employed would there be any work at all for the third class men, for the wastrels?—Unquestionably there would be at times, because the work comes in spurts. It is not as if we could distribute all our work over the whole year evenly. We cannot do that ourselves. A great deal of our trade is seasonal. Irregularity of dock labour inevitable.

89738. You do not think there is any large surplus of labour?—I do not think so.

89739. Nothing corresponding to Liverpool, for example?—No, nothing like it.

89740. And the general character of the docker is supposed to be superior to that of Liverpool?—I think he is quite a respectable man on the average—these first and second class men. Of course, there are a lot of wastrels unquestionably amongst those in the third class. Character of Glasgow dock labourers as compared with Liverpool.

89741. (*Mr. Phelps.*) In answer to the chairman you spoke of the tendency of recent legislation. Will you enlarge that a little? You spoke of the operation of the Workmen's Compensation Act. In what way does that affect you?—I will give you one illustration. The insurance company with whom we insure our labourers specially advised us, about a year ago, to dismiss every man from our employment who was over sixty years of age, and they explained it in this way. They said: Take a man of thirty years of age. Supposing he breaks his thigh, the chances are that man will be out and about at his work again in three or four weeks. If a man of sixty breaks his thigh there is a very considerable chance that that man will be permanently disabled for life. Then the men themselves will not allow any cheaper wage to be provided for older men in cases where the trades unions control the wages; so that employers who would like, perhaps, to keep on an old man, although not quite so fit as a young one, are deterred from doing it by the fact that the trade unions say: No, we will rather let this man starve than allow you to pay him a lower wage than a man half his age. Effect on shipowners of operation of Workmen's Compensation Acts. Attitude of insurance companies as to employment of old men. Elderly workmen affected by trade union "minimum wage" rule.

89742. Do the insurance companies charge different rates for different ages?—No; what the insurance companies do is they charge a rate proportionate to their experience of your risk; and if you have a lot of old men in your employment, and in consequence of that have heavy claims on the insurance company, the premium will go up. Insurance premiums in the stevedoring business.

89743. That is to say they do not charge the same premiums to all firms?—No, they may do in some trades, but they certainly do not in the stevedoring business.

89744. (*Chairman.*) In this particular case you were advised by the insurance company to get rid of the men above a certain age for the reason you give, I assume you did not agree to that?—I cannot speak, of course, to what insurance companies may do. But I do know, so far as we are concerned, we have no definite rate according to the ages of the men.

89745. What I wanted to get at was that they put a certain proposal to you to get rid of the old men because it might put on them an additional risk. If you did not accept that proposal they put their rate up. Did you get rid of the old men?—No, we did not. Attitude of insurance companies as to employment of old men.

attitude of insurance companies as to the employment of old men. 89746. Did they put your rate up?—No; they did not say to us: We will charge you a higher rate if you do not do it. They simply gave us that warning as the result of their experience, because, as I say, we have higher rates in the long run. Insurance rates, like everything else, have to bear a profit for the men accepting them. They gave us that as a warning: It is not in your interests to keep on old men in your employment because of the chances of claims which in fact will effect the premiums in years to come.

89747. Do you insure yourself?—No, not for the Workmen's Compensation Act on shore. We do for a considerable portion of it at sea.

89748. We rather want to get to the bottom of this about the insurance. Let me put this case. Supposing you had had a considerable number of cases of people between fifty-five and over sixty and the insurance company had had to pay, would they not in subsequent years have put your rate up?—I do not think they would do it because of the men being fifty-five or sixty; but what they do do is they keep a very careful note of all the claims they have had to pay for our line during the past year; and next year when we come to discuss the question of rates it is brought out against us: Looking at the claims we have had to pay, our rate must be so much higher.

Effect of Workmen's Compensation Act in reducing length of working life. 89749. It has been brought strongly to our notice that this Workmen's Compensation Act has reduced the age at which people previously could get work. We are rather anxious to know why it has in the case where the people do not insure themselves. The only conclusion I can come to is that the insurance companies do raise the rates?—As I say, it inevitably happens that they do raise the rates. For aught I know it may be the practice of some insurance companies to stipulate that men shall not be above a certain age, or they will charge an extra premium; but they do not do that with us.

89750. But in practice you get your insurance rate raised by having old men in because of the greater liability to claims from these older men; and the claims become in the long run the basis of the premiums you have to pay in that sense?—Yes, it is a deterrent. We did not dismiss any of our men; but we certainly gave instructions that our people should be careful not to engage new men over sixty years of age.

89751. The main reason alleged is that they are so long in recovering; not only that they are liable to accidents, but they are longer in recovering?—I think in some respects there is an increased liability to accident; but the main reason given at that time was the greater risk of the accident being a permanent disablement; because it is one of the anomalies of the Act that really it is better to kill a man than permanently disable him.

89752. (Mr. Phelps.) When you effect the insurance does the company enquire the ages of the men?—No.

attitude of insurance companies as to the employment of old men. 89753. Do they make any stipulation or give you any advice with regard to other physical defects than that of age?—No; age was the only point they ever mentioned to us. Of course, it is not the insurance company's business. It was simply friendly advice by the insurance company. It does not matter a straw to the insurance company what the risks are, they want a premium adequate to the risk. That is all that concerns them.

89754. Still, did they enquire, for instance, with regard to one-eyed men?—No.

89755. You have not heard that question raised?—No.

Effect of machinery on severity of dock labour. 89756. Take another point, that is with regard to the use of machinery. You say the use of machinery has very much reduced the physical strain of work in the docks?—Yes.

89757. Do you find the use of machinery has affected very much the amount you pay in wages?—We pay higher wages than when we had less machinery.

89758. It has increased your wages bill, not decreased it?—I did not know whether you meant the aggregate. Colonel J. Smith Park, M.V.O.

89759. Did you pay more wages after the introduction?—We pay a higher rate of wages to the men now. I do not think the actual cost of the work done is greater, in fact, it could not possibly be, because everything now is in favour of working economically on your loading and discharging, hatches are larger and there are cranes working; they all tend to make it cheaper. 14 Jan. 1908. Increased rate of dock wages.

89760. Wages may be much higher, and yet the cost of labour may be lower?—Yes; as a matter of fact, our cost of labour is higher. We pay 7d. an hour where we used only to pay 6d. an hour.

89761. Do you find you have reduced the number of people you employ much?—There is no fair comparison, because the business has enormously increased during my time. There is no comparison between the amount of business we do now and when I started. We were running, when I started, a fortnightly steamer for about six months of the year from Glasgow, now we are running on the average about two to three steamers a week all the year round. Progress of "Allan" Line.

89762. Taking a steamer of a definite size, is there a great reduction in the number of men that would be employed in unloading it now, do you think?—You have a certain amount; I do not know that it is a great reduction. There is a great reduction in this way, that we do not get the export cargoes we used to do. We used to have ships fully laden in my younger days, but now the boats are so big and so many trades have been crushed out by the tariffs of foreign countries, that sometimes the steamers will go away nearly empty. Decrease in freights.

89763. Do you find that the speed with which you work now necessitates an enormous number of hands?—I do not think there is much difference in that respect. I think they have kept very much the same.

89764. You would not allow the argument that machinery had thrown people out of work?—I do not think so; I think it is the contrary. Effect of introduction of machinery on unemployment.

89765. That is not the experience in your work?—No.

89766. (Dr. Downes.) You make an interesting suggestion in your last sentence, that you believe a sound physique is a safeguard against a man becoming a habitual drunkard?—Yes.

89767. Is that based on your experience?—Yes, I think I have a certain amount of experience which shows that. I think a man often takes to drink to a certain extent from weariness arising out of physical weakness. Sound physique a safeguard against habitual alcoholism.

89768. It is easier for a man in good health to resist the temptation of drink?—Yes, I do not think he feels the same necessity for taking it to excess that a weaker man does.

89769. (Miss Hill.) Have you any knowledge of cadet corps. You spoke about the influence of military training?—Unfortunately I have no cadet corps attached to my corps, and I have no experience of them, except I know of them by repute. I know all those officers who have them very highly value them.

89770. You speak of the physical development caused by the physical exercises and the drill as bearing very greatly on the physique of the lads composing them?—I have not heard it discussed in detail, but both the officers and the schoolmasters are in favour of the cadet system. If its effects on them can be judged, as I think they certainly can, from the cadet corps boys I have seen going about the streets in Glasgow, they are a very smart well set up lot of lads. Value of military and physical training in cadet corps.

89771. You would anticipate not only that the habits of obedience but the respect for obedience would make them more valuable men as workmen?—I have no doubt of it whatever. I know from what I have heard from Germans that they are quite satisfied that their physical training improves their countrymen as workmen.

Mr. W. H. RAEBURN, called ; and Examined.

Mr. W. H. Raeburn. 8972. (Chairman.) You have been good enough to prepare a Statement, which, if you will kindly hand it in, we will treat as your Evidence-in-chief?—Certainly.
14 Jan. 1908. *The Witness handed in the following Statement.*

1. With regard to the questions upon which you have asked my opinion in connection with the very difficult problem of unemployment, I shall endeavour in this statement to answer these questions to the best of my knowledge and experience. I may say, however, that the subject is one surrounded with difficulty on every side, and one for which there is no single panacea. I shall now take the questions in the order you state them.

(1) THE EXTENT OF UNEMPLOYMENT, INCLUDING (a) NUMBERS AND CLASS OF MEN OUT OF WORK ; (b) EXTENT OF OVERTIME, e.g. WHETHER CHRONIC OR PERIODIC.

2. I cannot of course give statistics, but there is always a very large number of unemployed in every community. The number varies, to some extent, according as trade is good or bad, and of course there is seasonal employment, and in Scotland especially, frost and rain are accountable for a great deal of idle time in the out-of-door class of work. Through bad weather, masons, joiners, builders, men engaged in ship-building yards, gardeners, and other very respectable classes of men, are often compelled to be idle, especially in winter. That of course is inevitable, but the vast majority of the men out of work at all seasons is composed of idlers, loafers, unsteady men, and, to some extent, of persons of weak intellect and delicate physical condition. In my own experience of dealing with the unemployed, I have not come across many respectable, steady working men who are out of work for any length of time. If they lose one job, I have noticed they generally manage to get something else, sometimes by going from a district where work is slack to another where trade is busier. In Glasgow and in Helensburgh, where I do some social work, I have no hesitation whatever in saying that the ranks of the unemployed chiefly consist of men who do not, and evidently cannot, behave themselves. When I find situations for this class of men, I find that in a few days they have got their discharge through absenting themselves from work, or turning up the worse of drink. I do not believe that there is much unemployment—in this district at any rate—in the case of steady, well-behaved men, especially of men who have been brought up to a trade.

3. As an employer of labour, I unhesitatingly assert that it does not pay to work systematic overtime. It is only done when there is a push, and very often is necessitated by workmen having fallen behind in their work. Sometimes it is caused by bad weather having thrown the operations in arrears, but I cannot conceive any employer resorting to overtime unless in case of necessity. In repair work of ships, for instance, overtime is often absolutely necessary, as the vessel has dates to keep, engagements to fulfil, and it is sometimes cheaper to pay overtime than to incur penalties. I have compared notes with some of the best authorities here whose work is connected with the poor and unemployed, and they are in substantial agreement with the opinion I am now expressing.

(2) CAUSES OF UNEMPLOYMENT.

4. First and foremost, I would put down drink ; second, laziness ; third, physical incapacity, and no doubt at times severity of weather and dulness of trade. I should like to say that I find some of the actions of trade unions contribute to unemployment. According to their rules, every man must receive the standard rate of wages. If an employer desires, out of kindness and consideration, to retain workmen who are passed their prime, and are not able to do a day's work equal to what a strong man could do, at a lower rate of wage rather than dismiss them, the union, of which the men are members, insist that they shall either be paid the full standard wage or the other men in the workshop will be called out. The consequence is that the master, having fierce competition to contend against, is not going to continue an inefficient or weak workman at full wages if he can get a better man in his place, therefore the old and somewhat infirm have

prematurely to be turned adrift. I know numberless cases of this character.

5. Then the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1906 is tending towards swelling the ranks of the unemployed. Many employers, like my own firm, now subject their men to a medical examination. In a recent case the rejections amounted to about 4 per cent. These men of course may find some other employment through time, but meantime they are idle. It is natural that the master, having such responsibilities as this Act imposes upon him, should be careful to select men who have no physical weakness about them, which, in the event of an accident, might aggravate the damages. This same Act is having another hurtful effect on the question of employment. Many small tradesmen and employers of labour have been dispensing with some of their employees because of the risks they run of having to pay compensation beyond their means, and against which they find it difficult to insure at a moderate premium. Further, the more restrictions some of these trade unions put upon trade, and the more the present socialistic crusade is preached, the greater will be the tendency towards unemployment. A great many of the trades of this country are only paying their way, and if the burdens that are laid upon them increase, it simply means that employers have either to curtail or give up. The more encouragement that can be given to capital to enter upon new enterprises, and to expand the trade of the country, the greater the benefit to the working classes.

(3) THE EFFECTS OF UNEMPLOYMENT.

6. These are far-reaching, and it would be difficult to name them all. The effect, especially upon women and children, is distressing beyond words. The want of employment seems to lead to more drunkenness, though it is difficult to know often where the money to get the drink comes from. It is noticeable that after men have been unemployed for any length of time, they seem to fall into the ranks of the professional loafer, and then no power seems capable of effecting any permanent reform.

(4) REMEDIES.

7. I am a strong advocate for the German system of dealing with men who will not work, but prefer to beg or to loaf, men who desert their families and leave them to be provided for by the parish. I think if the mentally weak were segregated in colonies under proper supervision throughout the country, and the professional loafer were dealt with by law as in Germany, we would see a very great diminution in the ranks of the permanently unemployed, or, I should rather call it, the permanent unemployable. A great deal is being done by philanthropic effort to find employment for deserving cases. I myself have been the means of sending a great many men to sea in the capacity of firemen, men who have been drifting towards the loafer class. Some of these have turned out, under the discipline on board of ship, very well, but I am sorry to say the great bulk of them, as soon as they receive their wages at the end of a voyage, prefer to come ashore, spend the money in drink and debauchery, and fall into their old state. Distress committees have been at work, but the published statistics which I have seen all go to prove that the class of men that generally apply to these committees is not the decent, respectable workman out of employment, but the class that least deserves consideration. You have no doubt the statistics of the Glasgow Distress Committee before you, but if I am not mistaken, the result of one year's working was that for twenty shillings' worth of work given out, the average return was 6s. 8d., which goes to prove that in commercial employment these men were worse than useless.

8. I do not think that farm or labour colonies in Scotland are likely to be of much effect in reducing unemployment. The climate is unpropitious, and the class labour of men that are chronically out of employment will not stick to hard work, and without hard work the soil can never yield an adequate return—a return sufficient to yield a living. Of course, something no doubt can be done on these lines which might be the means of making some little reduction in the number of the unemployed, played.

but the scheme would have to be well managed, and in thoroughly good hands, and it would need financial assistance either from the county or borough or the State. Something might also be done by the reclamation of waste lands, and some authorities are working in this direction, as, for instance, Helensburgh, the burgh in which I reside—they are taking in a considerable portion of the foreshore, which will give employment to a large squad of labourers throughout the coming winter.

9. Emigration is also a remedy which I think might be made very effective if it is conducted on proper lines. I thoroughly approve of the work of the Salvation Army in this respect. I think many of the better class of loafers might be made into new men by being removed from their old haunts and associates, and getting a fresh start in a new country; at the same time, the greatest possible care would have to be used in the selection of the men to be sent, and I think they should be subjected to some sort of training, if it were possible, before being despatched. For instance, I would take the best of the men out of farm or labour colonies and send them off, and there would be less chance of their returning to their old habits, I think, if they were got away from their past surroundings.

10. Some authorities advocate afforestation by the State. Something might profitably be done in that way, but I come back to this, that, as far as my experience goes, a very large proportion of the unemployed will never work unless they are absolutely compelled, and a very large number cannot work because they are infirm both mentally and physically. My earnest hope is, that before long the Government will give powers to local authorities to deal with the vagrant and loafer as they do in Germany.

11. I might just add that I understand the army authorities have taken up the question of teaching men a trade while they are in the service, so that when they come to leave it, they will not be thrown on the streets to swell the ranks of the unemployed.

89773. (Chairman.) May I ask what is the particular industry with which you are connected as an employer of labour?—I am a shipowner.

89774. Have you been on the distress committee at all?—I have not.

89775. In Glasgow, I gather from your statement, you would say there is always a certain number of people who are not employed, or what I will call under-employed?—There is always a large number.

89776. Do you think that number is increasing?—I think it is.

89777. And do you agree with what the previous witness said with regard to the boys, that there is a tendency for boys to go into casual occupations and not qualify themselves?—Yes, I agree with that.

89778. They do not qualify themselves for any particular industry, and very often get turned off when they are about twenty or twenty-one?—Yes, in some of the country places, for instance, in the town I reside in, Helensburgh, a place of about 9,000 or 10,000 inhabitants, the boys have a great difficulty, there being no trade in the town, in getting employment of any kind. These boys are apt to become corner boys and then become criminals and swell the ranks of the unemployed. I have tried to get these boys away to sea. I have sent away a great many of them. Some of them turned out well, but I am sorry to say the experiment has not been on the whole very successful.

89779. Is there not any iron or coal trade at Helensburgh?—No, there is really no industry in the place at all. It is only twenty miles from Glasgow, but then, of course, a poor parent cannot let his child go to Glasgow because it costs so much money to board in the town. I do not see any help for these boys unless employers such as myself can get them away to sea or can do something for them to help them while they are not earning much of a wage.

89780. It is an agricultural neighbourhood there; could they get employment in that?—It is an agricultural neighbourhood, but the agricultural part only gives employment to a very comparative few. My experience of boys when I have given many of them jobs in my own garden (I have a good bit of ground to attend to) is that I find the boys did not like the work, there is not enough excitement about it. They would rather be in the city.

They always ask if I cannot either send them to sea or give them something to do in Glasgow.

Mr. W. H. Raeburn.

89781. I suppose it is the variety of employment and the distractions of the town?—Yes, there is a great cry about this back to the land, but I am no believer at all in the attraction of the land for the persons who are migrating to towns at present.

89782. It is the other way, is it not?—It is the other way there is no doubt.

89783. About overtime, you say it is a necessity but it is not remunerative?—I know of no master or employer who finds overtime remunerative, but he finds very often it is absolutely necessary.

89784. We have had a great deal of evidence as to available casual employment and overtime. I suppose you have often considered as to whether or not it is possible to reduce the casual mode of work in connection with loading and unloading ships?—I have, and I must say it is a problem that does not seem to me possible of solution. I cannot see any way out of it. It will always be so; there may be more or less, according as times are busy or slack, but it will always exist.

89785. Do you engage your own labour for loading and unloading?—We employ a stevedore, a man who really is the middle man. We pay him a certain rate per ton, and he employs the men. It is quite different from the system of the Allan Line and the regular lines, for the simple reason that no one tramp owner could give sufficient continuous work to have men of his own.

89986. The stevedore brings his own men. Is he bound to unload at any time of the day or night?—The conditions vary according to the contract, that is to say according to the charter; sometimes it is so many hundred tons a day, sometimes it is as fast as they can put the steamer out. I may say the general principle at the bottom of it all is to get the steamer discharged or loaded as quickly as you possibly can. Sometimes it is to keep her cancelling date; you know what a cancelling date is; that is, unless the ship is ready for her next cargo by a certain date the charterer may throw her up. In order to save that occurring you may have to work continuously right on from the ship's arrival until she finishes.

89787. What sort of number of men would the stevedore bring if he was working under great pressure?—It depends on the size of the steamer or the number of the squad. It may be a smallish boat and then it would be twenty or thirty men, or it might go up to, with a large steamer, 100 men.

89788. He would bring a hundred, would he?—He might have a hundred to put on. Sometimes it is a double operation, taking the goods from the vessel and stacking or putting back in the shed.

89789. Loading is more scientific than unloading?—Yes. There are two different kinds of loading. One of the most lucrative, I understand, in the dockers trade is, for instance, that which we have on the Clyde, or at Cardiff, namely, loading coal, where it is not a question of really loading but trimming, simply shovelling the coal into corners. They make good wages at that. With regard to overtime, my general experience is that most of the workmen require some overtime to give them a higher wage, that is to say they make more money, and as night work is paid at a much higher rate than day work, a good many of them are very fond of night work.

89790. Take the stevedore who employs the men; would he bring much the same men?—No, there are different kinds of stevedores. If I am going to discharge iron ore and load coals, I employ a stevedore who works with that class of men, and has that class of men. If I am going to deal with a general cargo of flour, grain, esparto grass, fruit or anything of that sort, and I am going to load a general cargo, I would employ a stevedore who had a different class of men altogether; more the men that Mr. Smith Park referred to as his first or second class men.

89791. You make your contract with the stevedore who is connected with that particular business?—Yes. The trouble about casual labour is this, sometimes a lot of iron ore steamers may have come in at the same time. For instance, a great deal of iron ore comes from Bilbao in Spain, which has to some extent a bar harbour. If there is a gale of wind in the Bay of Biscay the whole

14 Jan. 1908.

Overtime inevitable but unremunerative.

Impossibility of changing casual nature of dock labour.

Owners of "tramp" boats employ stevedores.

Contracts with stevedores.

Different kinds of loading.

Overtime necessary for workmen. Attitude of workmen as to night work.

Various kinds of stevedores.

Reason for casual nature of dock labour in Glasgow.

Mr. W. H.
Raeburn.

14 Jan. 1908.

Casual
labour in
relation to
unemploy-
ment.

of the tonnage of that port may be prevented from getting out. The first fine day they rush it out and there may arrive at Glasgow, perhaps six or seven steamers on the same tide. Then there is a great rush of labour, stevedores scouring every place to get men. When the six or seven steamers are discharged, then there may be a total blank. Thus you see what happens with regard to some of the casual labour is that there is a great number of men suddenly out of employment, and they have to drift back to other things or be idle. No doubt that is one of the greatest difficulties and troubles in this question of unemployment.

89792. Taking that case, I suppose there is a loss every day the ship remains unloaded?—Yes, or to put it the other way, your profits, if there are any, are likely to be higher or your losses less if you despatch the vessel quickly. Turning a vessel round quickly is certainly a more economical way than the other, therefore as a rule speed in loading and discharging is a desideratum, but there are charters, many of them, where the discharge is limited by contract between the shipowner and the merchant to so many hundred tons a day, therefore, in those cases fewer labourers would be wanted.

89793. It depends a bit on the charter?—In our trade we are not regular liners. We are what are called tramps.

89994. In the case of certain charters there would not be so much haste?—Not for us. That is the difficulty with my class of steamer rather than the regular liners. They can regulate better than we can—I will not use the word regulate—their employment of itself is not so intermittent and irregular as ours.

89795. In the case which you described of a certain number of vessels laden with ore from Spain coming in, would the area from which those men were drawn be a large area?—All over the harbour.

89796. What is your harbour?—We have several.

89797. Is it Govan?—There is Clydebank now, which is several miles down from Glasgow, that is the new mineral port. Some of it goes out in the Princes Dock on the South side, Queen's Dock on the north side and the general terminus of the railway company on the south side. These are some on one side of the river and some on the other, but the men who work this sort of business, the dockers, congregate at particular spots, or if they are not to be found there, the foreman goes up and has a look through the model lodging-houses where, during the day, I am sorry to say, a good many of these men rest themselves.

89798. I was thinking rather that these vessels might put in somewhere, say at Greenock, and remain there and the local labour would not be enough, and they would have to get it.—No, I do not think there is much come and go between Glasgow and Greenock. Greenock is a comparatively small port, and I think its dock labour pretty much keeps to itself. I was going to say with regard to this main question of unemployment I speak for both Glasgow and Helenburgh, and my belief is much the same as that of one of the witnesses here to-day, that the skilled or the better class of workman is a man who is not often found coming to distress committees or parochial boards, or anything of that kind. The set that are always in evidence and to whom these subscriptions that we get up from time to time, very often go, I am sorry to say, is the large floating population of unemployable people who do not want consecutive work, and the only cure and remedy for that, as far as I can see, is the German remedy, the remedy that if a man will not work, immediately let him be sent to a labour colony, do not let him be a loafer on the rates or on private charity.

89799. The ideas that I believe underlie the Unemployment Act, and certain circulars which were issued a good many years ago by the Local Government Board of England, were that there were a certain number of persons in permanent employ who were accidentally out of employment. To your idea that class does not avail itself of these Acts or come forward to be registered?—My experience is that very little of that comes forward. As a member of the Christian Social Union working amongst these particular classes, I find that where there are cases of absolute honest necessity, men from no fault of their own out of work (there is no lack of funds for these); the difficulty is to find the honest decent deserving cases, You can find plenty of the others.

89800. Do you think there is a lack of employment?—There is at the present moment. I am bound to say shipbuilding and engineering and the iron and steel trades and housebuilding trades in the whole of Scotland are all in a very depressed condition.

89801. Though those industries have a certain proportion of skilled men, they have more unskilled men attached to them?—A great number of unskilled men who are always, I think, the sufferers.

89802. The skilled men are more or less taken care of by their unions?—I hear that stated, but I have had applications from a great many men who are in unions. They tell me they do not get any help from their union. I do not know the truth of it, but it seems a doubtful point. In Glasgow we have had now two years of great prosperity. No sooner has the slackness come on than we are told there is an appalling amount of poverty amongst the working classes. One wonders whether there has been any thrift or not. The moment a strike takes place, or a lock-out or a depression takes place, these working classes are immediately in the condition to require help.

89803. During these two years of exceptional prosperity there were distress committees in Glasgow?—Yes, the distress committee is two years old.

89804. It came into existence during this time of prosperity?—Yes.

89805. Have you considered the question of labour exchanges as to which we have had a great deal of evidence?—Yes, I have.

89806. The theory was that they would tend to give mobility to this particular form of unskilled labour which is apt to congest so?—I think a good deal could be done by these labour exchanges in showing what parts were really requiring more labour and what were already congested, but it would have to be worked with a great deal of loyalty, and a great deal of helpfulness on the part of all concerned, both the employers and trade unions. It really could not possibly be a success, unless all these different bodies went into it with a determination that it was going to be a real helpful institution.

89807. The employees on the one hand would want it dissociated from this class who register themselves?—Yes.

89808. And you would have a certain difficulty with trade unions who might be afraid it would be utilised against them in the case of labour disputes?—I think you would find that there are jealousies that it would be difficult to get over.

89809. You do not think they are insuperable?—I think a good deal could be done with it.

89810. Assume it is adopted, it must be a system that is more or less universal in the big towns?—I do not see how it could work otherwise. We have in the Shipowners' Federation in London a labour bureau. It has been used more as a defensive association than anything else. We have found by proper working it has been very helpful. For instance, trouble arises in Glasgow, Belfast or anywhere else, a body of men have gone out, because they have disagreed with their employers; this bureau has a large number of men on its books from all parts of Great Britain, and in twenty-four hours we have been able to put into Antwerp, for instance, lately, about 2,000 men in three days, so that it shows what even one organisation can do with regard to that. That has only one bureau in London.

89811. That is providing the men, the other thing is providing the work?—Yes, which is much more difficult.

89812. As regards remedies, so far as Scotland is concerned, you do not believe in back to the land?—No, I do not think with our climate in Scotland the land is likely to support any more than it is doing now.

89813. The tendency in Scotland is all the other way?—Yes.

89814. You would like to have something adopted on the German lines as regards dealing with people who will not work, but you would have to alter the existing law in Scotland by which you cannot give relief to able-bodied men?—I think that is a very great hardship. I have had so many cases under my personal observation, that I speak feelingly. A man may be in the direst

Trade depression in Scotland causes unemployment.

Unskilled men most affected by trade depression. Alleged absence of assistance from trade unions to unemployed members.

Apparent absence of thrift in Glasgow.

Co-operation of employers and trade unions with labour exchanges necessary to enable latter to afford reliable data as to state of employment in different localities. Dissociation of labour exchanges from Distress Committees essential. Jealousy probable between labour exchanges and trade unions. Shipowners' Federation labour bureau, value of in distributing labour.

Success of farm colonies in Scotland improbable. Desirability of introducing German system of dealing with habitual loafers. Hardship of absence of able-bodied relief in Scotland.

Irregularity of employment in connection with tramp steamers inevitable.

Area from which dock labour is drawn in Glasgow.

Port for Glasgow mineral trade.

Mode of collecting dock labourers

Skilled workmen rarely applicants to Distress Committees or parish councils. "Unemployable" to be treated on German system of labour colonies.

Class for whom Unemployed Act was framed, are the last to take advantage of its provisions.

necessity, quite willing to work, no one able to get him work, yet because he is an able-bodied man, our Poor Law will give him nothing, unless he goes into the house.

89815. You have come across hard cases of that kind yourself?—Yes, I have come across very hard cases indeed. I know that the Poor Law in Glasgow, and also in Helensburgh, is very humanely administered; but both Mr. Motion of Glasgow and Mr. Ballingall of Helensburgh have told me that it works very harshly and puts them sometimes in a most unenviable position not to be able to give.

89816. In fact, to put it mildly, the law has sometimes been dodged?—Yes, sometimes it has. Another thing I would like to say on the Poor Law is that I rather admire the German system there, too. I have two or three cases before me now where the Poor Law are giving an allowance to a widow in one case, and in another to children. The allowance is such, this widow being an outdoor relief case, that she is simply able to keep body and soul together, and nothing else. In the case of the children it is the same thing. In Germany where a deserving case arises they do not help to starve their paupers, or those that are dependent, but they keep up the stamina of the race; they do the thing properly. Here a puny infant is brought up on a mere pittance of milk. There they give about twice what we allow.

89817. (*Mrs. Bosanquet.*) In what part of Germany is that?—In Berlin, Elberfeld and Dusseldorf.

89818. (*Mr. Patten-MacDougall.*) Were those two cases in Scotland, that you speak of, appealed?—The appeal consisted in one case in my wife speaking to the inspector, and he saying: "I have brought the case up, I cannot do better; it is not much of an allowance, but, I am debarred from doing more."

89819. (*Chairman.*) Whilst dealing drastically with the loafer you would be disposed to help the man who is really in need of work, although he was able-bodied?—Yes, I would help him over the stile.

89820. With regard to afforestation schemes, I see you put them in the same category as the others?—I do not think they are going to make any great appreciable difference. I think if you get, as I say at the beginning of my paper, all the epileptics and the mentally weak taken away from that constant body of poor who are always wanting relief, and also remove the professional loafer and make him work, you will have taken away, I think, about 70 per cent. of all your unemployed, if not more.

89821. With regard to boys you are not very sanguine?—My difficulty is with country districts. In city districts where the boys' parents are living, I think a great deal more could be done.

89822. Do you think you could keep them longer at school?—Parents in a poor way of life tell me they cannot afford to let their children be longer at school than their present age of fourteen. The great trouble is to get them apprenticed. My experience is that there is no sort of discipline either at home or anywhere else for the boys; and they grow up to be what we are very much troubled with in Glasgow, a set of young hooligans. I agree with Mr. Smith Park, if there were some compulsory military training it would make a great improvement in these boys.

89823. The period at school has interfered with the authority of the parent, and has substituted nothing in its place?—No.

89824. That is your general observation about the boys; that there is a lack of discipline?—Yes; and there has been also a trouble, I know, in getting boys apprenticed because of the restrictions of so many of the unions not allowing for more than a certain number of apprentices in the trades they control. The parents of the unions have told me: "We might put our boy to be a rivet boy; but the union will not let any more in just now."

89825. It has always struck me in Scotland that the average Scottish parent is ambitious for his child, and wants him to rise perhaps even to a higher position than the parent has attained. Do you think that ambition is dying out?—I am afraid the parental control is dying out, and very possibly the other with it. But on the opposite side I will give you the last instance I have had.

This is about the boy being brought up to the land. His mother said to the clergyman in a school in the north of Scotland: "To think that Johnnie is growing up to be a farm labourer!" She did not envy an agricultural life for her boy. No doubt her intention was the city.

89826. (*Mr. Patten-MacDougall.*) About those able-bodied cases to which you referred, where you say that Mr. Motion sympathised with your views. Were those cases where, the applicant himself being able-bodied, there was illness in the family?—This particular case I have in my mind was where there were several children in a delicate state of health, and the mother was a delicate woman unfit to go out charing, so there was a whole family in the most helpless position.

89827. And the father was not able to pay?—He was not able to pay for anything.

89 28. Was he in work himself?—Not in work; he could not get it. There was no work in that particular place that a man could get. I have given these men a day or two's casual work helping my gardener or cutting trees, almost making work for them, otherwise I do not know what they would have done at all.

89829. Were the wife and family having medical attendance at the time; were they in the hands of the doctor at the time?—I do not think the parish doctor. A friend of mine, a doctor, was visiting them. The entire help these people were getting was from a few charitably disposed families. But we thought it was a very great hardship indeed when we saw in other cases a dissolute wretch of a fellow deserting his wife, and the wife being on the parish. A woman is better off very often to have no husband at all than to have one who simply prevents her getting help.

89830. How many cases of hardship of the able-bodied of that kind have you come across?—In Helensburgh a great many more than one would believe in a place that is supposed to be a flourishing suburb, a sort of garden city, as it is called; and in Glasgow the cases are very many.

89831. Are these not cases where the husband being able-bodied, the wife or other members of the family are in bad health, suffering, say, from consumption?—No; in most of the cases I have known, apart from the ones I have given you, the family is kept going by a little boy before school in the morning going and carrying milk, and delivering papers after the school is done, or else the woman going out charing.

89832. The husband and father not being able to get work?—Yes.

89833. Being able-bodied?—Yes.

89834. Are these skilled labourers or casual labourers?—Nearly all just what we would call labourers (a great many of them are Irish), the worst class of all to get work for.

89835. (*Mrs. Bosanquet.*) You would not wish to see these men become permanently maintained by the parish?—I would not.

89836. It would be rather difficult if they once got into the way of getting relief?—That is one of the difficulties we know and foresee.

89837. Would not the remedy lie rather in the way of emigration?—That has been tried, too; but then, of course, there are so many of these men know nothing. They do not know any particular work. If they were more skilled, or knew a little more, it would be better, but I am afraid, with the laws of other countries to which we send them, the shipowners would have to bring them back; they would not be allowed to land.

89838. There is still a flow of unskilled labour to Canada?—Yes; but we are told by the Labour Party that it is the pith and marrow of Scotland. It is not any use sending unskilled labourers, unless they are first sent to a labour colony and taught something.

89839. That would be preferable to allowing them to become pensioners of the Poor Law?—That is so. That is why I am so much against a number of these *pro re nata* commissions and committees, because I think our efforts should be to make these men rely more on themselves than on Distress Committees.

Mr. W. H. Raeburn.
14 Jan. 1908.

Mr. W. H.
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14 Jan. 1908.

Impossibility
of decasualising dock
labour.
Identification papers
for workmen
tramps.

Decrease in
vagrancy in
Germany due
to system of
dealing with
tramps.

Trade
depression in
Glasgow.

Much
general un-
employment
in Glasgow.
Strike in
Glasgow.

Thrift in
Glasgow.

Object and
result of
clerical
register in
Bridgetown

89840. Should you welcome any system of registration that would help to decasualise the labour? Do you think that is a possible solution?—I do not think on that subject we have been speaking of to-day, the dock labour, you are going to do anything different to what you do now. The men when they find one employer does not want them try another, because there are so many different lines of ships that if they do not get it at one they may at another. So long as it is a trade so unequal, coming in in fits and starts, there is bound to be in that fluctuating state of labour that takes place now. As to registration, I agree with one witness here to-day who is greatly in favour of having a card or register in the hands of the tramps, because in Scotland we have a great deal of that, people tramping from one part of the country to another; they are ins-and-outs of a poor-house, or they come to a farm and get charity; and they find it more profitable to move about the country living on the people than to work. I think, as in Germany if a tramp cannot show a card accounting for his movements and shewing where he has been for the last few nights, he should be immediately passed on to a labour colony. In Germany they hustle them on so that I understand in two years they have come down from 120,000 to 20,000.

89841. Have you been in Germany?—No; but I have studied the question directly from those who have been there and seen the operation of it. I have also friends in Germany, correspondents.

89842. (Mr. Gardiner.) Have you made any detailed examination of the work of the Salvation Army with regard to the work of emigration?—Yes, I have heard a good deal of the work of the Church Army.

89843. You have had no opportunity of going into it personally first hand?—No.

89844. Neither their training colonies nor their work in Canada?—No, I have not seen it; but the Captain of the Church Army in Glasgow and I have often gone into this subject. I know, of course, what they are doing.

89845. You have not seen it with your own eyes?—No.

89846. (Dr. Downes.) You tell us that there is depression in the building trade and shipbuilding trade now in Glasgow?—Yes.

89847. You also tell us you do not think there is much unemployment in this district, at any rate, in the case of steady, well-behaved men?—I may just explain in a word that when this *précis* was written several months ago this acute depression that is now in the shipbuilding trade had not developed. It has come very suddenly.

89848. Does that modify your statement?—Yes, it does. I say there is a good deal of unemployment now.

89849. Even amongst the steady men?—Yes; but in the midst of all this distress, which is getting very acute, 1,000 men have come out on strike because the masters propose to reduce their wages 5 per cent. My impression is that they should be very thankful to be kept on at any wage at all.

89850. How is that being tided over?—The register taken in several streets in the very depressed neighbourhood was very creditable. A great many of the families there, although out of work, had saved up so much that they said they thought they could tide over. But you might find next door, where the bread-winner was doing the same work and earning the same wage, they were absolutely in poverty a week after they were dismissed; so you see there is thrift and the opposite alongside each other.

89851. What register was this?—It was a clerical investigation in Bridgetown, one of the poor working-class districts of Glasgow, where most of the workers from a firm called Beardmores, a large armour forge works, live.

89852. Was this investigation connected with the kirk?—Congregationally.

89853. Do these men receive any support from their church?—The object of this investigation was to prevent overlapping chiefly. It was conducted by this church in conjunction with the Charity Organisation Society.

89854. When was it made?—Quite recently, about a fortnight ago.

89855. A little further on you tell us that many employers now subject the men to medical examination?—Yes.

89856. I take it before the Compensation Act became Medical effective such examination was not usual?—I am speaking of what I know personally about shipping. I do not know of any shipowner who formerly had his crew medically examined; but nearly all of us have our crews medically examined now. That, I think, I say accounts for 4 per cent. of the rejects; and those men find it very difficult to get employment.

89857. Do you know on what number that 4 per cent. was?—It was over a great many thousands. I could not give you the exact figures.

89858. From what classes of employment?—Seamen and firemen.

89859. (Professor Smart.) Has there been any depression yet in shipping?—Yes, it is very bad just now. There is quite a number of laid-up vessels, not on the trade. Clyde so much as in Newcastle and Bristol Channel ports.

89860. When it extends to shipping, of course where you have such a large proportion of casual labour, I am afraid the distress will become very acute?—I fear it will. I fear we are on the eve of some very acute distress from want of work.

89861. Can you give any explanation of this sudden change from high prosperity?—I think it is fair to say that shipbuilding was very much overdone. There was a very unjustifiable boom; and you will find when these booms take place they always have a depression following. But at the same time I think there has been a contributory cause this time, which has not been so much in evidence, at any rate, in past times, I think, from interferences of the State, and the alarm that exists, and I think rightly exists, in the capitalists' and employers' heads over the present Government. It has a great deal to do with it. I do not think people care to launch out when they fear that there may be measures brought into Parliament which may very much cripple their business.

89862. Is it not only the other day that shipyards were full of ships being built?—It seems to be comparatively only the other day, certainly, about the middle of summer they were all well employed; but they build at such a terrific pace now that when orders cease it does not take long to empty a yard.

89863. Is it not comparatively a few weeks ago that the price of steel came down?—Yes.

89864. And up to that time we congratulated ourselves we were in the best possible state?—I think those who saw a little deeper than the mere surface expected we were going to have a time of depression, but not so rapid and acute, I must say, as it has turned out.

89865. The possibility of £6 a week wages coming into one family was not unusual at all?—It was not at all in relation to the higher wages the less the time the men work and the more they drink; therefore when depression does come there is very little provision made for it.

89866. Do you share Mr. Smith Park's views about the impossibility of decasualisation?—I think it is impossible.

89867. You are very much against the loafer, I see?—Yes, I am very much down on a loafer. I think he accounts for more than we think.

89868. In Mr. Smith Park's third class of docker have you not got some who are half the week loafers?—There are different classes of loafer. The loafer I am most down on is the man who almost never does work, and if you give him a job goes to it for an hour or two and then throws it up. These poor chaps that Mr. Smith Park speaks of really do a fair amount of work. They are not the class of loafer I am down on.

89869. Still they do seem to be content with two days of work a week?—The loafer is content with less.

89870. If you are going to send all your loafers to a colony you will have a good many dockers to support?—If these loafers that I refer to, the cornermen, were sent away the casual jobs they get might go to a better man who would appreciate them.

89371. Is that not the whole argument for discasualisation, to give the jobs to a person who wishes for them?—I agree with those who say it would be a great benefit to make labour regular; but you might as well think you could control the action of the planets. You never could do it.

89372. It was done in one case in London, in the London and East India Docks?—They control it—in what way?

89373. There is that celebrated system of theirs?—I go to the London docks and I see plenty of casual labour there.

89374. This is the London and India Docks, where they have a complete system of organisation. There is no such thing as casual labour there, practically. I grant it has not extended to other docks at all?—I am interested to hear you say that, I will try and find out personally how that could work.

89375. It has lasted a good many years now?—I cannot conceive how at a dock, where at one time it may be busy and at another comparatively empty, you can keep your labour on an equal footing.

89376. It is only to be done by extending your unit of organisation, as I suggested to Mr. Smith Park,—that two or three firms should combine with regard to labour to get it regularised. The London and East India Dock Company have a very large business; and the men are sent from one ship to another as soon as the ships come in?—I will make myself acquainted with their system. I must say I am rather inclined to think, if they have come to this state of perfection, some place else is getting their casuals.

89377. Do you agree with Mr. Smith Park that the state of labour as regards the labour employed by the liners is more satisfactory than that employed by the stevedores?—I think it is certain to be more regular.

89378. Can you give me any idea how the labour is divided between the two classes, the liners and those which are not liners?—It depends on the ports. There are ports such as Glasgow, London and Live pool, which are very large liner ports. Then Cardiff, Newcastle, and other ports are what you might call the tramp ports, where there is no possibility of gauging what the amount required may be one week or another. It depends very much, as I have said, upon weather, for one thing.

89379. I am speaking of Glasgow just now?—Glasgow is a very cosmopolitan sort of place. I think there are more different kinds of trade, and more different lines of ships, and more different classes of vessels discharging and loading there than at any port I know of anywhere.

89380. The liners play a very large part there?—Yes, I should say distinctly the larger part.

89381. (Mr. Bentham.) If I understood you rightly, in answer to a previous question you suggested some alteration in the Poor Law of Scotland?—Yes.

89382. By extending its provisions to able-bodied persons?—Yes.

89383. Had you in mind then the institution of distress committees for the able-bodied persons?—I would not like to pronounce what might be in me a rash opinion about distress committees, but from what I have seen and heard of them I must say that I am not much of an approver of them. I do not approve of them very much.

89384. Not of any distress committee?—No, I think we would accomplish all we want without them.

89385. You think you would achieve your object by extending your provisions for dealing with the able-bodied by the Poor Law?—I think with that and charity organisation we would overtake all such cases.

89386. Was it not possible to deal with the hard case you mentioned just now by charity?—It was dealt with by charity; that was the only way it could have been dealt with.

89387. It might be no hardship then?—We all complain of the very high poor rate we pay; yet when we come to a case like that we find that the rates can do nothing for it.

89388. Does that not involve rather another serious question: that those who know that such cases as those

ought to be dealt with by charity, and it might be the lesser of two evils, ought to be quite willing to organise charity in order to meet cases of that kind, the poor rate would be still higher if it embraced cases of that character?—I cannot see why the Poor Law in England is allowed to give an able-bodied man help, and not in Scotland. Why do you do it in England?

89389. We think we might get up to Scotland in course of time. Scotland is ahead of England in that respect. The Scottish people thought that an able-bodied person could make his way in the world?—I have always thought this: That if you could give relief to the persons I am referring to the money would be easily found if there was a different organisation of the Poor Law altogether; these ins-and-outs ought not to be there at all; they are costing a lot of money, and it is the very worst form of help.

89390. You think that the loafer class might be dealt with in a less costly way, which would release the funds for dealing with other cases?—Yes. These men do no work. Why do they not? They should be made to work.

89391. There is another point with regard to that. Have you considered the effect it would have upon the working-classes of Scotland if they found at all times when they might be in need that they could fall back upon the Poor Law, or some other organisation, to provide them with work or money?—That might be an argument for doing nothing at all; because I quite grant you that there seems to be an innate want of independence in a great many of our people; as long as they can get somebody to help them they will not help themselves. I do not think because people have that feeling you ought not to do anything for them. You ought to try and organise your help.

89392. You admit the few hard cases of that kind could be met by charity; if they could, there is no necessity for the law to be extended in order to meet those cases?—What I mean about that is this: The chief trouble is you may help a man by giving him money but it is the very worst possible form of help. What can private charity do to provide a man with work? Very little comparatively.

89393. You think that the provision of work would be good for the men and less costly than it is to-day?—I think if work was the test, and the problem was carried out properly, you would find there was a great deal less of this unemployment and a great deal less of the loafer.

89394. That happens to be the system in England; that work is the test of the Poor Law. An able-bodied man can get relief; but he must come under the Poor Law and do a task of work; and there is the test as to the amount of willingness to work. He gets the relief if he works, and not unless; yet we have the same difficulty with regard to the unemployed in England that you have in Scotland, and the same outcry for dealing with the person which you say you find somewhere, the respectable person who is out of work. You rarely come across him?—It is a very beautiful ideal to suppose a state in which every man who wants to work could get employment found for him. In this age in which we live it is an absolute impossibility to prevent times of unemployment and depression, and there must be a certain amount of misery and unemployment throughout certain periods. The problem you have to deal with is a very difficult problem. There is no single panacea for it that I see, least of all that which is advocated so much: That the Government is to find employment for every man that is born into the world.

89395. Do you suggest that?—No; I say it is the greatest evil that could be introduced.

89396. Is it not the tendency of the times that work should be found for the able-bodied?—I do not go further than this. If you give help to a woman and her children when in difficulty, if a man is as helplessly in difficulty I do not see why the family should be let literally to starve because of the principle that because the man is able-bodied and ought to work the family is not to get help.

89397. We can understand a relaxation of the restriction as to able-bodied applicants in Scotland on the lines you suggest, namely, where there are destitute

Mr. W. H. Raeburn.

14 Jan. 1908.

Able-bodied relief in England.

Compulsory work for loafer class.

Possibility of increase in Poor Law relief injuriously affecting independence and self-reliance.

Charitable does the worst form of relief.

Probable effect of strict labour test for loafers.

Periods of unemployment and depression inevitable.

Imperial provision of work for unemployed a great evil.

Mr. W. H. Raeburn.

14 Jan. 1908.

Discretionary power for Poor Law officer in Scotland as to giving or withholding able-bodied relief proposed. Objection to rate for relief works. Reluctance of respectable Scottish poor to apply for parish relief or to Distress Committee.

dependants?—I think it might be left to the good sense and the good administration of the Poor Law officer to see that the cases he did help were deserving cases; and that as soon as work could be got the man was no longer given any allowance. If he turned out to be a mere loafing person then it would be withdrawn. Of course it has to be administered with common-sense and reasonableness.

89898. If I understand you aright, you have no sympathy with the idea of having a rate for the provision of work in times of emergency, when they cannot get it from private employers?—I do not think it is possible. With regard to that question you put to me: "Did I approve of distress committees?" what I said with regard to distress is what I felt with regard to the Poor Law. Any man or woman (I am speaking of Scotland now) who has very much self-respect left has very great diffidence and dislike to applying for parish relief. They look upon the distress committee as being very much akin. In other words there is a certain amount of shamefacedness in well-conducted men coming to distress committees; therefore, you find they are approached by that class of men which approaches

every institution, charitable or otherwise, which they think they can get something out of.

89899. Do you think that is a very healthy trait?—I do, certainly; I am glad it exists.

89900. And one that ought to be fostered?—Certainly.

89901. With regard to medical inspection, is it resented at all by the workmen?—It was not resented by the seamen at all till their leaders put them up to resenting it.

89902. Does it apply in your firm to others than seamen?—I am not very sure whether it includes the officers, I rather think it does.

89903. Does it apply to those on the dock?—No, not those on the dock, except this, that I gave you this instance: I referred to sending men to Antwerp when the strike was on there. Every man was medically examined, and the men had no objection whatever. In fact, I think it was a great benefit to some of them; because if they were found suffering from anything that could be cured they were told where they might get help and get cured.

Class of person applying to distress committees. Independence of poor to be fostered. Attitude of seamen towards medical examination. Medical examination of men sent to Antwerp by Ship-owners' Federation.

ONE HUNDRED AND FORTY-FIRST DAY.

Monday, 20th January, 1908.

AT SCOTLAND HOUSE, WESTMINSTER, S.W.

PRESENT.

The Right Hon. Lord GEORGE HAMILTON, G.C.S.I.
etc., etc., etc. (Chairman).
Sir SAMUEL B. PROVIS, K.C.B.
Mr. F. H. BENTHAM.
Dr. A. H. DOWNES.
The Rev. T. GAGE GARDINER.
Mr. GEORGE LANSBURY.
Mr. J. PATTEN-MACDOUGALL, C.B.

Mr. T. HANCOCK NUNN.
The Rev. L. R. PHELPS.
Professor WILLIAM SMART.
Mrs. SIDNEY WEBB
Miss OCTAVIA HILL.
Mr. FRANCIS CHANDLER.
Mr. R. H. A. G. DUFF (Secretary).
Mr. J. JEFFREY (Assistant Secretary).

Mr. William Fleming Anderson.

20 Jan. 1908.

Qualifications of witness.

Anomaly of Unemployed Workmen Act, which permits rates to be charged with expen-

Mr. WILLIAM FLEMING ANDERSON, called; and Examined.

89904. (Chairman.) You are a member of the Corporation of the City of Glasgow, and Deputy-Chairman of the Distress Committee in Glasgow, I believe?—Yes.

89905. You have been good enough to prepare for us a Statement which, if you will hand it in, we will take as your evidence-in-chief?—Yes. (The Witness handed in the following Statement.)

1. I have been a member of the Corporation of the City of Glasgow for fifteen years. I am also one of the town council's representatives on the distress committee, of which I have been deputy-chairman for eight months, prior thereto being Convener of the Sub-Committee on Applications for Relief and Employment. I have also had considerable experience of various relief schemes undertaken by the corporation prior to the constitution of distress committees, in the autumn of 1905, having for many years served as a member of the corporation Special Committee on Relief Employment.

THE UNEMPLOYED WORKMEN ACT, 1905.

2. I should like, at the outset, to make reference to a striking anomaly in the Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905, which is made most manifest in endeavouring to carry out the provisions of the Act. I refer to the fact that, while distress committees are empowered, in aiding emigration, to charge their expenditure in that matter to the rate account, there is no similar provision in regard to the

payment of wages to men afforded relief work. The committee may, or may not, in its discretion, aid emigration. There is, on the other hand, a statutory obligation on it to provide work of actual and substantial utility for eligible, suitable, and deserving persons who are temporarily unemployed; but when it comes to the question of paying wages, the distress committee is asked to hopefully rely on the beneficence of public-spirited citizens, very many of whom, being large employers of labour, do not respond to appeals for subscriptions for this purpose, although they usually lead in contributing to funds for other objects. Moreover, the restricted rating power of distress committees is but little understood, and the imperfect knowledge of its existence has a tendency to dry up the spring of voluntary contributions. If it is thought necessary or desirable that there should be any restriction of the rating power, then I think the circumstances of the case would be adequately met by a simple reversal of incidence—in other words, the removal of the restriction in the payment of wages, and its application on emigration.

Effect of imperfect comprehension of restricted rating power of Distress Committees on voluntary contributions.

CAUSES OF UNEMPLOYMENT.

3. A long experience of interviewing applicants for relief employment has convinced me that many of these are out of work mainly on account of physical weakness. A good proportion of the applicants obviously are those cause of un-who, while scarcely qualifying for parochial relief, being employment.

Physical weakness a cause of unemployment.

in a sense able-bodied, are quite unfit for continuous and arduous labour. That condition too, is, I think, in many cases traceable to treatment from birth—want of attention, and inadequate or improper nourishment in the tender years of infancy, having had the scarcely surprising result of stunting the physical and mental growth. Such men, in periods of depression, are of course the first to be thrown out of employment.

4. Then I think it will be generally conceded that men are being continually forced to give up skilled work solely for the reason that, having reached a certain age, they are not so proficient at their trade as younger men. If unable to get employment as labourers at light work, they are compelled to apply for such work as distress committees have at their disposal.

5. Other causes of unemployment will be found connected with the Employers' Liability and Workmen's Compensation Acts, and the steady advance of the introduction of machinery and consequent displacement of labour; but perhaps the most prolific source of all is the abuse of alcohol and its attendant effect on time-keeping.

SUGGESTED REMEDIES.

6. I have referred to the case of skilled men thrown idle at a certain age on account of their inability to keep up with younger men. I am strongly of opinion that tradesmen on reaching that age should be allowed to take less than the recognised standard rate of wages, and so remain at their trade.

7. I understand that some very interesting and valuable data on the subject of boy employment is to be submitted to the Commission, with the object of showing that a great deal of unemployment can be associated with the fact that boys are not apprenticed to a trade very soon after leaving school. With the main principles to be suggested on this aspect I am thoroughly in agreement, as it seems to me that it offers one of the very best permanent remedies for the continued growth of unemployment.

89906. (*Chairman.*) I see you have been impressed by the fact that the larger proportion of applicants to the distress committee under the Unemployed Workmen Act were physically defective, or scarcely fully able-bodied?—That is so.

89907. You have lived a great many years in Glasgow, have not you?—Yes, all my life.

89908. Do you think this physical deterioration is a growth of recent years, or has it been going on steadily for some long time?—I would not exactly like to say what has been the speed at which it has occurred, but I am satisfied that the stature of our men to-day is much smaller than it was about twenty-five years ago.

89909. If you had had an Unemployed Workmen Act of the nature of the present one some twenty-five years back, do you think the physique of the people who would have come for relief under that Act would have been better than the physique of the people who apply to-day?—I think so. I can speak from practical knowledge in a sense, because in the course of my business I find that people's heads are a great deal smaller to-day than they were twenty-five years ago.

89910. How do you know that?—Because it is my business to take the size of people's heads.

89911. I presume that this class of whom you are speaking, on account of their physical defects, would naturally be the first to go if there were any cessation of employment?—That is so.

89912. That is a very serious evil, because if they reproduce the same class, we shall always have this defective class with us?—That is so; they reproduce a class even a shade worse than themselves.

89913. Would you say that the deterioration was only physical, or would you say that morally they were not as enterprising and had not as much grit in them as the generation before?—A good number of those who have come before us are what we may call "thowless" people. I do not know whether you understand that expression, but I mean they want grit and push and gumption; they are a kind of people who are not overstrong, mentally as well as physically.

89914. To use an expression, they would like to loaf through life with as little trouble to themselves as possible?—A good number of them are that way. There

is a lack of push about them altogether. I should say that if a man has been unemployed for a considerable time it does knock the soul out of him altogether. That is to say, when he has been snubbed—and they very often are when they apply for work—time and again, actually when he goes to a place where there is a chance of getting work he is almost afraid to put his case as he should put it. The tendency of unemployment is to knock the heart out of a man.

89915. And I suppose you would say the same of intermittent casual employment?—Yes; but I do not think it affects the man who has a good deal of variety of occupation the same as it does the *bona fide* working man who gets thrown out and tries for two or three months to get employment but is met by refusal. That man gets his heart broken.

89916. You name various things as the causes of this unemployment; and I see you think that the Employers' Liability and Workmen's Compensation Acts have rather curtailed the age at which people can get employment?—I think they have knocked ten years off the life of the working man.

89917. Do you go so far as that?—Yes, I do.

89918. You think also that the rules which are supposed to emanate from the trade unions, by which men are not allowed to work at a lower rate than the standard rate, also prevent men at a certain period of life from getting employment?—Yes. I notice that more especially through being a town councillor. The respectable citizens of perhaps fifty to fifty-six years of age, who have lost their employment, come to me and ask if there is no opening in the corporation for an occupation such as caretaker or keeper of the children's playground or of a lavatory—men who would be quite good enough at their own occupation, but who, because they cannot work up to the young man's standard, are out of it altogether. My notion is that if the trade unions would be good enough to say that when a man reaches a particular age there may be some alteration made in the pay of those who are not quite so physically fit as the younger men, I think that would relieve these old industrial soldiers very materially.

89919. You would suggest some sort of sliding scale, I suppose?—Yes. I think if a man is not able to earn his 38s. he might be able to earn his 30s. or 28s. a week, and that man should not be thrown out of employment in his trade altogether to get any occupation elsewhere that he can.

89920. Amongst other causes that are alleged to lead to unemployment at a certain time of life, evidence has been strongly put before the Commission that many boys on leaving school go into some casual trade?—I thoroughly agree with that. The temptation of the big wage, of earning 8s. or 9s. a week when they leave school, is too much temptation, and so instead of learning a trade when they would be getting only from 4s. to 5s. per week, they grow up practically labourers.

89921. Is there much demand for boy and girl labour in Glasgow?—I think there is a big demand for boy and girl labour.

89922. So there is not much difficulty on leaving school in their getting the wage which you alluded to?—No. I think that apprentices are not plentiful; I know that shopgirls and shopboys are not plentiful.

89923. Therefore, I take it you would like some system of training to be introduced similar to the old system of apprenticeship and having much the same object?—If the last year or so of the school period was devoted to teaching lads things that were useful in the way of trade, or girls things that were useful in the way of domestic science, instead of telling them about rivers in India and those other things that are never going to be of any service to them, I think a great deal of good would be done.

89924. Have you ever considered whether any rules or regulations could be made by which parents should be asked to indicate, while a boy is at school, the occupation to which he is eventually to be put, so that his education might then in some degree be shaped accordingly?—I think that the disposition of the boy himself should be consulted by the parents.

89925. Of course, I meant that; but what I am putting to you is whether his education should, if possible, be

Mr. William Fleming Anderson.

20 Jan. 1908.

Disheartening effect of unemployment.

Working life curtailed by operation of Workmen's Compensation Act.

Effect of trade union "minimum wage" rule on employment of elderly men.

Elderly workmen should be allowed to accept reduced scale of wages.

Unemployment affected by tendency of boys to go into casual employment in lieu of learning technical trade.

Demand for boy and girl labour in Glasgow.

Technical training for boys and girls during last year of school life proposed.

Mr. William Fleming Anderson.
20 Jan. 1908.

varied according to what is to be the future occupation of the boy?—I think so, during his last year at school; and I would say the same very strongly about the last year of the girl at school.

Supply of girl typists in Glasgow.

89926. Is there a large supply of boys or young men who can typewrite and do that class of work in Glasgow?—I do not know so much about the boys, but there is a large number of young ladies who go in for that work. I do not know that the boys take to it quite so readily.

Reduced scale of pay for typists.

89927. Should you say that the market was much over-supplied in that respect with typewriters or those that do clerical work?—I do not know that it is over-supplied, but I know that they do not command the same wage now that they did five years ago, as lady typists. The good wage attracted a great number then, and now the supply, I think, is fully equal to the demand.

Reluctance of respectable poor to apply to Distress Committees.

89928. Mr. Ferguson, I think, will give us a number of details in the statement which he has prepared for us, but I should like to ask you this general question about the Unemployed Workmen Act: This Act was passed in the belief that it would be of assistance to persons of respectable character who were usually in permanent employ but who, through temporary causes, have slipped out of employ; did many of that class come up before you at the distress committee?—No, I am sorry to say they have not. The class that our committee would like specially to help are not ready to make application to us. The right class of people did make application to us in connection with emigration, but not for home work.

Applications transferred by Distress Committee to parish board.

89929. Then really you have had to deal with a class of persons casually or intermittently employed who were rather above the level of those who applied to the Poor Law or who belonged to the same class?—A great many of them were the same, and a great many of them we had to discard and say: "Go over to the parochial board."

89930. Then the Unemployed Workmen Act has not attained its purpose of assisting the respectable persons ordinarily in permanent employ, except in the way of aiding them to emigrate?—That, I think, is the most I can say about it. Of course, I do not say that the Act is of no use, because I think it has done a good enough work so far.

Reluctance of artisans to apply to Distress Committee.

89931. But the great majority of those who are registered are not of the class I have indicated?—They are a class that must be helped; they belong to the class of the thrifty, careful artisan who has been thrown out of employment and who wants to get a little help. He will not apply to us.

Glasgow Municipal Labour Exchange unsuccessful now under charge of Distress Committee.

89932. Have you any labour exchange in Glasgow?—Yes. We have had a labour exchange for some years under the corporation, but it has not been a success, and now the distress committee has charge of it, the corporation having handed it over. We are just appointing a superintendent for the labour exchange to be worked under the distress committee, and in fact we are interviewing candidates to-day.

Value of Labour exchanges.

89933. Do you think that those labour exchanges, if established generally in centres of population, would be of much use?—I think so.

Register of unemployed desirable.

89934. Do you think they would help that class of labour which is the most ignorant and the least mobile?—Whatever might be the outcome of it, I certainly think that every municipality ought to register and have a careful record of their people who are not employed. We register everything else in Glasgow—births, deaths, marriages, lost dogs, lost property—and I certainly think we ought to have a register of the people who are unemployed.

89935. It would be useful, would it not, for helping the deserving and detecting cases of fraud and imposture?—Yes; besides, I think the municipality ought to know what is the state of the labour market amongst their own people.

Dissociation of Glasgow Labour Exchange from Distress Committee.

89936. It has been suggested to us that the labour exchanges might extend their operations beyond that class who come under the cognisance of the distress committee; has that ever occurred to you?—We are proposing to run our labour exchange apart altogether from the distress committee, while it is practically under the distress committee; that is to say, we do not want the same

classes to come together, because we are afraid that the artisan class will not go to a labour exchange if this very poor class go to it.

89937. And, in the same way, I assume an employer of labour would not care to come to the exchange for men if he knew they were entirely recruited from the lower class?—Our suggestion is that we should have a consultative committee composed of seven members of the trades council and an equal number of the biggest employers, so that we might bring the two classes together as an advisory committee.

Constitution of consultative committee for labour exchange.

89938. Has that suggestion been well received?—The trades council have appointed their seven, and we are waiting now upon the employers to give us their help.

89939. Of course, if you could get an advisory committee of that kind to work in harmony, you might be able usefully to extend the functions of the exchange?—Yes. It is no good for our work unless we have got the sympathy of the big employers of labour—it is more important that we should have that than anything else.

Co-operation of employers with labour exchange essential.

89940. As regards the working of the Act itself, you think it has been useful, but you think there ought to be power given to raise money on the rates for the payment of wages?—Yes, I do.

Rating for wages desirable.

89941. That would subject you to heavy pressure locally, would it not?—It might, and it might not; one penny per £ in Glasgow raises £20,000.

Value of 1d. rate in Glasgow.

89942. You would be prepared to stand that, I suppose?—I would rather be prepared to stand that than to be put in the anomalous position that we are in now of appearing to assist unemployed labour and then, when the men come to us to put them on works of utility, of having no money to pay them. Because of the very fact that there is a rate for the purpose of the distress committee, you cannot ask the philanthropic to pay rates and at the same time to give a voluntary contribution towards payment of wages.

Anomalous position of Distress Committee.

89943. Business is bad just now in Glasgow, I think?—It is very bad.

Trade depression in Glasgow.

89944. There has been a sudden collapse, has there not?—It has been pretty gradual the last two years, but it is very bad just now, especially in the building trade, and also in the ship-building.

89945. Should you say the same of the textile manufactures?—I cannot speak so well of those, but in Parkhead, where we have the big forges, Beardmore's and the rest, there is very acute distress.

89946. Would you say the distress is on the increase?—Just now it is very bad.

89947. Is there anything else you would like to say?—There is another point which I am very keen upon. In dealing with the unemployed of course you are dealing with the effect. I hold, from a very close study of the question, that our infant mortality has got a great deal to do with it. The death rate amongst the infants is very great, and there are many wiped out every year out of every thousand; but over and above that, many of those who survive simply grow up stunted, and they become practically a very considerable proportion of our unemployed.

Defective infant rearing in relation to unemployment.

89948. That would be the class, would it not, about which I have already examined you, the people who are physically defective?—Yes; these people have not got a chance from the time they are infants, practically.

89949. To what do you attribute that? It is, I suppose, due a good deal to the carelessness of the mothers?—There are two causes—ignorance and vice. It is deplorable that in Great Britain, in spite of all our sanitary laws, babies are dying as quick, especially in England, to-day as they did fifty years ago in some of your Lancashire towns that is particularly the case.

89950. What remedy would you suggest?—Parliament last year gave us a very good Act, the Notification of Births Act, which enables us to get at the babies when they are born and to assist in giving every advice and help that is required to mothers when they are having babies.

Advantage of Notification of Births Act.

89951. Does it enable you to do more than give advice?—In Glasgow we have also established a municipal milk depot only for babies. I am satisfied that the feeding forms a great portion of the cause of trouble.

Municipal milk depot for babies in Glasgow.

89952. Then the milk is given to the babies and the mothers?—Yes. We modify the milk, and give it to them in nine feeds covering the twenty-four hours, charging 2d., 2½d., and 3d. On another point, and as showing that the Unemployed Workmen Act is really not doing all that it was intended to do in Glasgow, I had to head a deputation to the corporation to ask them to appoint a relief committee of the corporation, apart from the distress committee. So at the present moment we have two committees—one a relief committee to deal with those that we cannot deal with, and the other the distress committee.

89953. One, the relief committee, being entirely nominated by the city council, and the other, the distress committee, being a joint body under the Act?—Yes.

89954. Did the corporation, previous to the Act of 1905, provide works or give relief to the unemployed?—No. We had relief committee work, but it was taken up so suddenly that we really had not had any time to organise. The people said, "We are starving," and the consequence of that was that a great deal of the help given was misplaced altogether. But by having this committee in operation constantly, we are able to prevent the imposter getting the same grip that he did at the time of the spasmodic efforts of the relief committee.

89955. Which committee are you speaking of as a constant committee?—The distress committee is a constant committee.

89956. How does the distress committee work with this other committee; do they work together?—We are working absolutely together, that is to say, we pass the cases that are suitable for work, but if we have no work to give them, then the relief committee take up these people and give them food.

89957. Is the object of appointing a relief committee to enable them to spend money out of the rates?—No; the monies entirely come by voluntary gift.

89958. What is the object of having two relief committees, practically?—Because the distress committee cannot feed people, and the relief committee can.

89959. The relief committee has nothing to do with the guardians, I take it, because it is a committee of the council?—It has absolutely nothing to do with the guardians. It is a committee entirely representative of the corporation, but at a public meeting of the citizens we co-opted so many public men to assist. Their work practically consists in giving tickets for food to the people who are starving and to the people that we have passed for work, but have no work for. They take our passing as being sufficient to enable them to give these people temporary help.

89960. Then it is rather a charity organisation working with the distress committee; is that it?—Yes, it is really charity.

89961. And it is not able to draw upon the rates, I suppose, except for administrative purposes?—Not even for administrative purposes. They are not probably so strict as we are; we will help nobody unless we think he is a worthy man, but if they find that a blackguard father has a wife and children who are starving, they will help the mother and the children.

89962. Has this committee been long in existence?—No, it has just started. It is about a fortnight since its appointment, and it started last Friday. We have already raised about £6,000 or £7,000.

89963. There have been various committees started in England, called City Guild of Health Committees; have you ever heard of those?—I suppose it is a different name for the same thing.

89964. It seems to me to be not quite the same; those committees work in connection with the guardians, but I think the idea is the same?—Apparently.

89965. (*Mr. Benthams*.) It is an organisation which spreads its helpers all over the locality, and its object is more to help people morally, and to give them advice, to find them a friend and helper, to direct them to suitable charities and to prevent overlapping than to give them pecuniary assistance. Your committee is a committee of the city council, is it not?—Yes.

89966. (*Chairman*.) But supplemented by others?—By seven or ten gentlemen appointed at the public meeting where the subscriptions were raised.

89967. (*Mr. Gardiner*.) This relief committee gives financial assistance first?—Yes. We have a great many institutions for the moral relief of the people. But a lot of us believe that if you fill a man's empty stomach first, then you can teach him morality and anything else. The first is the pressing thing just now.

89968. (*Sir Samuel Provis*.) Do you give money to these people?—No.

89969. Do you never give them money?—No. We give them a ticket, and they do not even know the value of the ticket. We select particular provision places, and we do not allow them to select the stuff they have got to buy. It represents plain diet. We have found from previous experience that if you let a woman have a ticket for half-a-crown, she would probably buy a quarter of a pound of seed-cake, or a pound of ham or something of that kind among her purchases. Therefore, now it is not stipulated on the ticket what they are to get, but the ticket indicates to the grocer the amount. When the value of the ticket was upon its face, we found they actually sold the ticket for less money to other people. Now, when they get the ticket, all they know is where to go with it, and they do not know what they are going to get or the value.

89970. (*Chairman*.) Is there anything else that you would like to supplement?—Of course, the point is that the Unemployed Workmen Act is to be continued, it ought to be amended so that we can have power to rate for the payment of wages.

89971. Would you put a limit on the rate?—Yes, I think you should put a limit. Then, again, with all due respect to our friends, I would not object if it was entirely a representative body, that is to say, composed of parish councillors and town councillors only; but make us responsible to some body—the ratepayers in some capacity—and then I think we might have a little more liberty than we have.

89972. You would not co-opt from outside then?—I am not strong upon that. I think I am responsible to the electors of my ward, and I do not think another man sitting at the same board should have as much authority as myself when he is responsible to nobody. The co-opted members have not the same responsibility as those that are elected by public bodies. That, at least, is a point for consideration. Then, I think, in a great community, bodies like the town council of Glasgow and the parish council of Glasgow should not be required to go and ask permission to do every little thing. I do not want to reflect upon the Local Government Board at all, because they have been very kind and very helpful; but there has been a good deal of time spent upon getting permission to do some things. I am a very busy man, and it is sometimes very provoking to have, over comparatively small things, to consult with the Local Government Board. For instance, I wanted some photographs of our parish colony, and the clerk said he could not get them as we should be surcharged. That to me, as a business man, is foolishness altogether. I did not want the pictures for my own edification, but with the view of educating the public. I had been up at Palacerigg, and I wanted these photographs to show what we were doing, and I could not get them.

89973. You have established a labour farm, I think?—Yes, at Palacerigg.

89974. Is that a success?—It is only newly started, and we are only erecting the shelters for the men. We are taking 230 men every morning just now and bringing them back. We have 600 acres there, 300 acres of which is moorland. I am perfectly convinced that one of the solutions of the unemployed problem is to make your land conditions such that people will remain upon the land and not flock into our big cities, and then you have to ask them to find their way back again. In Scotland we have any amount of unemployed land, and surely it is the most natural thing that unemployed men should be put upon unemployed land, but there are so many difficulties to be encountered before we can get it.

89975. The labour colony that you have established, I assume, is for the purpose of testing whether the applicant is *bona fide* desirous of employment?—No; colony, we are satisfied that he is a *bona fide* applicant before we send him there. After he has been there some time,

Mr. William Fleming Anderson.

20 Jan. 1908.

Allotments in Isle of Shuna proposed for satisfactory members of farm colony.

Mode of admission to farm colony.

Objection to limitation of period of residence on farm colony.

Palacerigg farm colony run by officials of corporation without extra salaries.

Qualifications of witness.

Average age of applicants to Distress Committee.

Provision needed for able-bodied unemployed.

and if he has taken to the land and proved that he likes the thing, we have the Isle of Shuna in the West Islands, and it is the opinion of some of us that we might grant allotments there to those who are willing to take them up after they have proved themselves capable at Palacerigg.

89976. You say that you are satisfied before you send them that the people you send to Palacerigg are *bona fide* applicants, but I assume that if they did not comply with the test of work imposed upon them they would not be retained there?—No, certainly not.

89977. But the men who go there are selected men who, you think, are qualified?—Yes. They have, first of all, to make their application; they are then visited by an inspector, their last employers are communicated with, and after all that is done they come before the committee who, upon being satisfied, send them to Palacerigg, and they are only there as long as they satisfy the superintendent of the colony. But I do not think there should be any limit, as I believe there is under this Act, whereby a man is only to be there for a matter of two months. When they come to us they have no boots—we bought ever so many hundred pairs of clogs the other day—and they are physically weak; and after being refreshed with good food it is about six weeks before they are really fit to do a day's work; and it is a pity, after having got them into this condition, that they are to be practically taken off at the end of two months. I plead that a community that is able to run Glasgow and to take care of the 800,000 good people that are there, running their own lines of trams by electricity, and everything else, ought surely to have a little discretion in dealing with this other portion of the community. I certainly think there ought to be some control, but I do not think we should be compelled to be afraid of always having ourselves brought into court. Might I say by way of illustration that we have been so economical that we have not appointed any officials, and that, instead, we have been getting our own officials to do the work, giving them merely an honorarium? To our treasurer, who had all the work to do, we gave ten guineas—the auditor's fee for auditing, and the treasurer's work was £28. That, of course, is not an overcharge. When we are so economical as that, I think we might quite well be left with a little freedom.

89978. (Mr. Bentham.) Have you ever been a member of the parish council of Glasgow?—No, I have not.

89979. Have you been a member of the committee which selected the cases to be dealt with under the Unemployed Workmen Act?—Every person who desires a schedule gets a schedule.

89980. I rather want to know whether you have been a member of the sub-committee which selects the cases for work after the investigation has been made?—Yes, I was. I have not been able to attend so much this year, but I think at first I was the convener of the committee.

89981. In answer to a question put by the Chairman you said, I think, that there were very few applicants who were suitable, and you gave as a reason that many of them were past the working age or else had infirmity. You also give, in Paragraph 4, as another reason, that men having reached a certain age are not so proficient at their trade as younger men. You are there describing the class of people who come to the distress committee; but is that quite correct? Have you noticed at all the average age of the men who have made application to the distress committee?—The class that I refer to are a very decent class, probably over fifty-five, some of them over sixty-five, but who are able-bodied.

89982. More than half of the applicants in 1906–7 were under the age of forty, which points to rather a large class of young able-bodied men amongst the unemployed, does it not?—Yes, that is so.

89983. Do you believe in either the Poor Law or some other system being established in Scotland for the purpose of finding work for the able-bodied unemployed?—I think that some provision ought to be made for the able-bodied unemployed.

89984. Until recently, of course, the right of the able-bodied person to any kind of relief had not been conceded at all?—That is so.

89985. On the ground, I suppose, that an able-bodied man ought to be able to make his way in the world without any assistance from public funds, and that charity ought to be sufficient to meet the hard cases?—Yes.

89986. You do not believe in that now, do you?—In the present circumstances I do not believe in it. There are lots of men who are wanting work and cannot get it; they get no help, and it is the case that their wives and children are starving.

89987. Was that not always so in Scotland?—I suppose so, but the competition now is so much keener for everything.

89988. You mean that the lot of the workman is harder to-day than ever it was?—I think so.

89989. And the change in the conditions warrants a change in the methods of treatment; is that your position?—I think so. I do not think that a law which was passed forty years ago is suitable for to-day, and I know that in every business competition is much keener, and it has now got the length of the workman.

89990. Should you think an able-bodied person has less chance of maintaining himself to-day by work than he had forty years ago?—I have no doubt about it. I do not suppose there is any week that I have not had half-a-dozen respectable people come to me privately to see if there is no possibility of getting work. I had one on Saturday who came to me crying because he had got a situation at a builder's. He was a respectable man with seven of a family, his wife having died recently, and he had been idle for seven weeks. He is a teetotaler and in every way an exemplary man, and for seven weeks he had been knocking about until his heart was crushed. Fortunately I was able to give him a card to a big firm of builders, and the man came back crying, to my place of business, he was so grateful. There is any number of these; my heart is broken every day. And it is not only confined to these men, for there are the men between forty and fifty years of age who have been knocked out of business—clerks and people of that class who are not recognised at all. I do not know why it is that there is no provision made for them.

89991. Have you considered at all what effect the recognition of the right of able-bodied people to relief would have upon the habits of the people of Scotland? Would it induce them to provide for unemployment, or, having given them the idea that they could be supported in this way, would it lead to their not seeking work?—I think there ought to be some safeguard. If a man is earning £4 a week and immediately upon losing his situation he demands help, I do not think that man should be considered in the very least. Where a man has been thrifty and is out of work entirely from no fault of his own, that man ought to get help in my opinion.

89992. Would you discriminate as to the way in which they had spent their money previous to making the application?—I certainly would.

89993. You would not admit a drunkard, then?—Certainly a man who gets drunk I would not help at all; I would let him go for help to the publican who had got his money.

89994. Has the line been drawn very strictly in the Glasgow Distress Committee?—We are tied down. The Act stipulates that they shall have been in employment and have been well-conducted and so on—I forget the exact words of the Act. We have tried to go upon that plan, but where we have found a man that was not very good but who had a respectable wife and children, out of respect for them we have given him sometimes stone-breaking in order to see whether he wanted work.

89995. Even a man of bad character has been recognised for the sake of his wife and children then?—Yes, we have done that; we have given such a man work.

89996. Then really your system of discrimination on those lines would break down in operation, would it not?—I do not know; it might break down. If the man is prepared to work for 2s. a day breaking stones and continues at that for a little while, I think that is a pretty good indication that he is wanting work. Of course we require to exercise a good deal of discretion on this problem, and I am not prepared to lay down any hard and fast rule.

Reason for absence of able-bodied relief in Scotland.

Hardship of absence of able-bodied relief.

Changed conditions demand change in treatment of poor.

Difficulty to day in obtaining work as compared with 40 years ago.

Effect of granting relief to able-bodied in Scotland.

Safeguards needed against imposture.

Refusal of relief to drunkards.

Methods of Glasgow Distress Committee.

89997. Does that not mean that you, as a city council, are really making yourselves into a relief organisation? Is that not work more for a parish council than for a city council?—It might be, if the general opinion of Scotland with regard to the present state of the law were followed, and if you were to alter the parish law. Then I daresay it would be more their duty than ours. But at the present moment I know that I have had people at me who would rather starve, and I am not sure that they would not rather steal, than apply to the parish. Why it should be I do not know.

89998. Whatever system you set up, an objection of that kind might be raised if the conditions were not what they wanted. If you allow the people to settle their own conditions, that would mean the abolition of all conditions, would it not?—I am afraid we are getting into an argument. My principle is that if a person has been a respectable citizen, and through no fault of his own has lost his employment, it is not the duty of the municipality simply to make roads and make rates, but it is their duty also to help that man to get something to do without losing his independence.

89999. That is rather a difficult thing to do; it is an extension of the idea of public duty towards the able-bodied in Scotland, is it not, which is of recent growth?—I do not know; it was always my opinion.

90000. (*Professor Smart.*) It is a committee of three, I think, that reviews the applicants after the cases have been investigated?—It should be three, but sometimes there are not quite so many as that turn up.

90001. And that committee meets as often as there are cases to be reviewed?—Yes, that is so.

90002. The *personnel* of that committee of three will vary from meeting to meeting, I think?—Every meeting it is changed.

90003. I think the clerk makes inquiry as to what members he can get to attend and makes up the quorum in that way?—That is so.

90004. How is the chairman of the day of this small committee settled?—If I am there they always ask me to take the chair, but if I am not there it is usually the senior person who is there.

90005. Then you have a committee and you have a chairman who vary from meeting to meeting?—Yes, that is so.

90006. I want to know how in these circumstances you arrange for a continuity of policy?—I think the clerk and Mr. Ferguson are generally there, and the committee are to a certain extent guided by them.

90007. Do you think the committee always obey the clerk and Mr. Ferguson?—Not always.

90008. Is it not the fact that you have some chairmen and some committees who would pass everybody, while others are very strict?—Nearly everybody. I quite admit that there is sometimes a case that I would have refused probably myself that might be passed by some other body.

90009. You have known your policy, for instance, very often completely contradicted by another chairman?—I have known them pass cases I would not have passed.

90010. Glasgow has a very good name for the strictness of the administration of its distress committee, has it not?—I think so.

90011. You have a lower proportion, I think, than most other distress committees?—I know if a person passes the inspection we put them through, he deserves to be helped to some extent.

90012. (*Chairman.*) Glasgow is much lower than the average. I think it is 38 per cent., while Edinburgh is about 97 or 98 per cent.?—But Edinburgh, you see, does differently. I think they give a fortnight's work at paper-sorting, and thing of that kind, to everybody who goes to them, but we give nobody work at all until we have inquired into them.

90013. (*Professor Smart.*) I suppose it is safe to say that the vast majority of applicants who come before you, are men such as no private employer would willingly employ?—No, I would not say that. There are a good number of them who are quite worthy of help, and a good number of them have done so well that we have taken

them into the service of the corporation in other ways. Several men have got into the parks, or they have got on to the tram permanent way staff for laying rails, and things of that kind.

90014. I said the vast majority?—There is a very big proportion of them that are not physically strong. I do not know whether it is due to the fact that they have been buffeted about and the heart has been knocked out of them or whether it is really a natural sort of desire to do as little work as they can, but there is no doubt there is a good proportion that are people that the average employer would not readily take on.

90015. That is to say, the men are not worth their wage—they may be worthy of help, but they are not worth their wage?—That is evidently what some employers of labour think. We have thought that they were worthy of help, but unfortunately they have sometimes not proved in the time when they were in a situation that they were worthy in the opinion of their governors.

90016. I think you will agree with me that the defect from which they suffer is as much want of intelligence as want of physique?—I would not like to say that.

90017. You spoke of their being "thowless" and of their want of gumption, and so on; does that not mean want of intelligence rather than want of physique?—Yes; but I have a good deal of sympathy with a man who has been buffeted about. I know from personal experience of the effect. I have a brother, the cleverest in our family, who happened to get thrown out, and I know that in two months' time he was entirely changed, and that experience has always made me very charitable with other people who have been knocked about. He is earning £1,000 a year now, but I know for those two months he would hardly come into the house for his food, he was so crushed.

90018. Do you consider something could be done with some of these men by means of education?—Not with the men, but you might prevent it if you got at them early enough.

90019. You do not think anything could be done with the men themselves?—I am afraid not. Their habits are formed, and I do not think you can do anything with them.

90020. What do you think of a proposal for shutting up these men, not in a penal institution or anything of that kind, but in some institutions where the treatment would be practically educative?—I think these men, if they cannot get work, ought to be allowed to go to a voluntary colony. I am quite in favour of that. The colonies for others who will not work, and who are a bane to our unemployed existence, I would shut up in a penal colony. I think it is necessary to have the two distinct classes. If you could eliminate the loafer who does not want to work at all, but is always pretending that he is wanting work, that would, I think, do a great deal towards letting us see daylight in this problem.

90021. Has the distress committee been able to get very many of these men situations in private employment?—As a distress committee we have not, but we intend to do that through the labour exchange.

90022. Have you tried at all to get private employment for these men?—Not many of them, but a few taken on by have been taken into the cleansing department of the Corporation of Glasgow.

90023. That is municipal employment?—Yes. I do not know that many of them have gone into private employment.

90024. I think you yourself have given some of them a job?—Yes, but it was not a success.

90025. Would you mind stating the result?—I was impressed with a man who said he was an old soldier, private employed and I took him to my house to do some gardening work. He started on the Tuesday, although he should have started on the Monday, and he worked away for four or five days, and I never saw him afterwards.

90026. A good many of the councillors have done that sort of thing, have they not?—I suppose some of them have.

90027. Did you ever hear of success?—Yes. I got another man who was a splendid fellow. He clad his children, and he did so well with me that I gave him a

Mr. William Fleming Anderson.

20 Jan. 1908.

Character of applicants to Distress Committee.

Education in relation to unemployment.

Labour colonies for unemployed willing to work. Penal colonies for loafers.

Unemployed taken on by Corporation of Glasgow.

Result of employment of unemployed

Mr. William Fleming Anderson.

note to the tram permanent-way, and he was with them one or two years, I think, after that.

20 Jan. 1908.

Results of private employment of unemployed.

90028. (*Chairman.*) Then he did not come up before the distress committee, did he?—Yes, he came before the distress committee. His story so impressed me that I said, "Well, instead of sending you out amongst these people, if you come to my house I will give you a week or two, and see how you do it, at gardening and painting." He did so well that I gave him my card to the tram permanent-way, and he was given a job there for eighteen months, or something like that.

90029. What made me ask the question was that you said "one or two years," and the Act only came into operation two years ago?—It may be eighteen months, then.

Much unemployment in Glasgow.

90030. (*Professor Smart.*) You say that Glasgow is very hard hit with unemployment just now?—Yes, it is very hard hit.

Discharges by Singer Machine Company.

90031. Do you know the circumstances of the Singer Machine Company?—No, but I have heard through the Press that they have just dismissed about three thousand people.

90032. Out of about six or ten thousand?—About ten thousand.

90033. Is this not the first time they ever did such a thing?—I think so.

90034. Did you ever hear of Singer's being on short time even before?—Of course I cannot say.

90035. I think your impression is the same as mine, that they usually have steady employment year after year?—Yes, that is so.

90036. Is that not more significant than anything else could be of the general decline in employment all over the kingdom, because sewing machines are of course an international kind of commodity?—Yes, I know that it is very bad in Glasgow.

90037. Then as regards the farm colony at Palacerigg; what was exactly your idea in going in for a farm colony?—Our idea was that we should find a desert and make it blossom as the rose.

Financial aspect of Palacerigg Farm Colony.

90038. What do you say to it financially?—Financially, I thought it was a good enough purchase. We intend to put a railway upon it, and we have arranged to get the refuse of the City of Glasgow.

Nature of land, minerals, etc.

90039. (*Mr. Patten-MacDougall.*) But the refuse has not gone out yet, has it?—No, because we have not the railway yet. There is fire-clay on it, and there is ordinary clay, and altogether I think it is possible there may be minerals on it. Then there are 300 acres of land that practically have never grown a blade of grass, and we are turning that over now. We bought it at about £10 per acre. Then we mean to do a little afforestation also; there is a great lump we can apply to afforestation.

90040. There is a lot of it sheep pasture ground, is there not?—Yes, there is a very high sheep run on it. I am not a judge of it, but we bought over the sheep, and I think we can utilise it for wintering hogs from the Argyll estates.

90041. (*Professor Smart.*) Do I understand that you expect the unemployed will cost you less by this mode of treatment than by any other?—Yes, I think so, very much.

90042. Is that your fundamental idea?—We first of all had to find work. I thought this was a most desirable thing, and I have an idea that in the future we may take and turn it into a garden city perhaps for anything we know. It is only 15 miles from the centre of Glasgow, and Glasgow would provide a very splendid market for vegetables and fruit if you can get them to grow there.

90043. Have you seen Hollesley Bay?—I have.

Hollesley Bay Farm Colony as compared with Palacerigg.

90044. How does that colony compare with it?—Of course, Hollesley Bay has a very much milder climate and they have got very fine buildings. It is an ideal place altogether. Ours is 500 feet above sea-level, and a little bit colder, but we expect to turn it into a Hollesley Bay by-and-by.

90045. I should like to ask you what you have done as regards wages in this new colony?—We had to get specifications drawn for the dormitories and the kitchen

and things of that kind; then we asked our manager, Arrangement who is a practical man, to see what he could do, including for buildings the builder's profit, and it so happened that he sent in a sealed offer in each case, and he came out cheaper than the ordinary man; so that he is building just now with the unemployed labour in Glasgow, but being skilled labour we are paying them the standard rate.

90046. The standard rate of Glasgow?—Yes, less the railway fare, of course; we are not paying the railway fare.

90047. (*Chairman.*) Do you deduct that?—They have got to take themselves there and back.

90048. (*Professor Smart.*) Will that bring your standard rate under the standard rate of the locality?—No, the rate of wages standard rate of the locality is 8d. and Glasgow is 9½d. in Glasgow.

90049. You are paying 9½d. per hour less 5s. per week?—Yes, it is about 5s. per week.

90050. And is all that done under contract?—What is done under contract—the building, or the railway journey, or what?

90051. No, the labour that is being employed on this colony?—The superintendent of the labour colony, Mr. of unem. Nichol, has given us a specification, or an undertaking ployed on to erect those buildings at a particular price, and we leave him an absolutely free hand, except that the labour Palacerigg. which he has to employ is to be the unemployed labour of Glasgow.

90052. Meaning by that the people who have passed you?—No. He is permitted to have an absolutely free hand to get his labour where he likes, so long as it is Glasgow labour.

90053. But that is not unemployed labour, is it?—Extent of un- These men are all unemployed. There are, I am told, employment in 1,800 joiners idle in Glasgow just now.

90054. But they have never come before you?—No, they have not, and by giving them this job we hope to keep them from coming before us.

90055. (*Mr. Bentham.*) Of course he has got the choice of the men of Glasgow?—Well, he has the choice of the unemployed; that is to say, he is not permitted to engage anybody who is in another situation.

90056. So that if a man who says he is out of work makes application your superintendent is at liberty to set him on?—Provided he is satisfied with the man. —Of course, if the man is not suitable, as one or two have proved themselves, he is sent off at once.

90057. (*Professor Smart.*) What is the salary you offer for the superintendent of the labour exchange?—I really forget, but it can easily enough be got. I think it is £150. We originally had a man fixed for the job and this Mr. Nichol was second, but the moment he was fixed with us his present governors raised his screw to £300. So we have some discrimination.

90058. Then you think you can get a man for £150 who is capable of filling that very responsible situation?—For a beginning. It will enable us to see what the man is worth, and if he is a good man we will increase it; and that is encouragement to him.

90059. What is the superintendent of your farm colony to get?—I beg your pardon, I thought you were referring to the farm colony, Superintendent of Palacerigg farm colony.

90060. No, to the labour exchange?—It is practically the same.

90061. Then you say the trades council have practically approved of the labour exchange?—Yes.

90062. Practically approved?—Yes.

90063. Did they make any stipulation?—No, not that I am aware of. I think this is rather important—they have agreed, I understand, with regard to the unemployed labour that we may take out to Palacerigg, that those colonists may be put to the work which they are best adapted for, and may be paid the same wages as any other body. Last year when we tried that they said: "No; you may put a joiner to painting, or a painter to joinery, but we will not allow a joiner to do joinery work, or a painter to do painting work, unless they get the standard rate." Now they have waived that, and have said that every person who goes out there the super-

Salary of superintendent of labour exchange.

Attitude of trades council towards labour exchange.

fect of life
Palace-
Farm
colony on
physique of
nemployed.

intendent shall be at liberty to put him to the business that he is best fitted for, because any profit that may come from that man's labours goes to a public purpose and not to private employers.

90064. (*Dr. Downes.*) You have spoken of the physical weakness of the applicants; is that past remedy, or have you any idea what can be done to improve the condition of these men's physique?—Some of them could be very much improved physically. As a matter of fact, if they are going out to this Palacerigg estate, I am sure they will be improved by getting the food and the fresh air there.

90065. Do they get soft through not using their muscles?—Yes, a man's heart has a great deal to do with his physical fitness, and when a man's heart is broken you cannot get a very good day's work out of him.

90066. Have you found them improve under your treatment?—Yes, they are able to work from daylight to dusk and in awful weather sometimes.

lderly skil-
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f wages.

90067. A little further on you expressed the opinion that skilled men who have been thrown out of work owing to their age should be allowed to take work at less than a standard rate of wages, and so remain at their trade?—Yes, I think so.

90068. Have you any idea how that could be brought about?—I think if I were a trade union leader I could easily enough evolve a scheme by which it could be done.

90069. What is the difficulty at the present time?—If a man is a joiner he has to get the joiner's standard rate, and when he is old the man he goes to is not going to employ him because he cannot do as much as a man at thirty years of age can. The older man may perfectly well earn 30s. a week at his business, but because he is not able to earn 38s. he has to go away and take any other job he possibly can get.

90070. Is that an affair that rests with the trade union?—I think it entirely rests with them. I think it would be economically a good thing for themselves if they were to allow it, because that man must be chargeable on their funds for a period anyway.

90071. That is to say, he is a loss to the trade union?—I think so.

Nature of
oil, result of
harvest, and
crops on
Palacerigg
arm colony.

90072. (*Mr. Gardiner.*) As regards the farm colony which you have started, is the soil suitable, in your opinion, for the growth of vegetables, fruit, and so on?—I think so.

90073. It is not too cold, is it? I thought you spoke about its being on a clay soil?—Yes, there is clay there. We have had a very bad harvest this year, in fact I do not know that some of the crops are in yet; but last year, I think, the oats were 44 lbs. to the bushel. I believe that they can grow potatoes very well there, and I am quite sure they can grow rhubarb, cabbages, and things of that kind, for which there is a ready market.

90074. Then you are hopeful on that side as well as on the other?—Yes. I think that it is quite a hopeful thing.

90075. (*Mr. Chandler.*) On that question of the wages, do you find employers less willing to take on aged men now than in former years?—I have no experience at all of how the employers do. All I can speak of is that most respectable men in various branches come to me. I have had compositors; on Friday I had a plumber, and on Saturday a mason—men that really want helping—and they have simply got shoved out because, they said, they were considered to be too old.

Difficulty
experienced
by elderly or
lightly de-
fective men
in obtaining
employment.
Employers'
Liability Act
cause of
unemploy-
ment.

90076. You have given a number of causes which, in your opinion, contribute to that; amongst them you mentioned the Employers' Liability Act, and the steady advance of the introduction of machinery: does that displace men, do you think?—Yes; a man with slight defects is displaced nowadays. For instance, I do not suppose I would get a situation at all, because of being bald-headed and wearing glasses.

90077. Does that arise from competition?—Yes. Then I notice also that a man if he has had a little accident—if one has had an accident to his finger, say, or if another is perhaps a very little lame, or if a man has anything wrong with his eyesight, one eye perhaps being deficient—these men all get shunted.

90078. Do you think any sliding scale or reduced wage would get over that objection?—I think that probably a sliding scale would enable these men to get employment; but, over and above that, there should be some remedy made whereby these men could be protected against the Employers' Liability Act. Insurance agents come in and say, "If you are going to have that man we will not out of Em-take the risk." It would be far better if that man could be contracted out of the Employers' Liability Act. An insurance company, for instance, will not insure my plate-glass if there is a crack in it, and so if there is a slight crack in a man they say, "We will not accept that man."

Mr. William
Fleming
Anderson.

20 Jan. 1908.

Contracting
employers'
Liability
Act by elder-
ly or defect-
ive men
proposed.

90079. In regard to your answer to Dr. Downes as to the action of trade unions, are there not many men in Glasgow outside the trade unions altogether?—I suppose so.

90080. There is nothing to prevent those men accepting the lower wages if the employers are willing to engage them, is there?—In some trades they will not allow the non-union men to work alongside the union men, and consequently governors are not going to run the risk of a strike by employing these men.

90081. (*Mr. Patten-MacDougall.*) With regard to the operation of the Workmen's Compensation Act, it has risks among been represented to us from some quarters that where machinery is used it frequently happens that the younger men who are just learning their job are more apt to meet with accidents than the older men; but I rather gather that that is not your experience?—I am inclined to believe in the old adage, that familiarity breeds contempt. I think the man who has become familiar with a machine is more apt to meet with an accident than a new man, who is usually pretty careful; but I have no experience. I know that it is always swimmers that are drowned, and a man when he becomes a slater does not meet with accidents for a while—it is after he thinks he can go over a roof like a cat that he meets with an accident.

Machinery
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not meet with accidents for a while—it is after he thinks
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accident.

90082. When he gets a little careless?—Yes.

90083. It has also been brought before us that there are many fewer seafaring men coming both to distress committees, to the Poor Law, and to other funds of the community for relief, than other classes; is that your experience?—Yes, that is my experience.

Absence of
seamen
among appli-
cants to Dis-
tress Com-
mittees.

90084. Of course you have considerable experience in that direction in Glasgow?—Yes.

90085. To what do you attribute that?—I do not know why it is, but now you ask the question I must say I do not remember ever seeing a man that said he was a seaman. We have had firemen from some of those ships, but I do not think any of the ordinary seamen; at least I do not think I ever heard of one.

90086. It has been suggested to the Commission, I think by more than one witness, that that may be due to the fact that they are more able to put their hand to other things?—That may be so.

90087. Would you agree with that?—It is a fact that we have had no seamen before us as far as I remember.

90088. Regarding Palacerigg, I think you were asked by Mr. Gardiner as to the coldness of the soil there; I believe you mean to do something to improve the soil and to make it less cold by importing from Glasgow the city refuse, do you not?—Yes. Then we mean to put a belt of trees around the border to keep it warm that way.

Improve-
ments pro-
posed at
Palacerigg
Farm Colony.

90089. That arrangement with the corporation involves this, does it not, that they pay you for relieving them of the refuse?—No, not yet.

90090. Is there not an arrangement of that kind?—No. The arrangement is that the corporation are going to give us the stuff for nothing. They agreed that we should only pay the difference between the twelve miles, which they have got to pay for, and the fifteen miles where our colony is. We were able to make a good arrangement, so that we are practically getting our road mud scrapings and so on for nothing, and they wanted to go back upon it when they found I had made that arrangement, but we compromised it by paying so much for wagon hire, or something like that.

Arrangement
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Mr. William Fleming Anderson.

20 Jan. 1908.

Nature of food obtainable by tickets of Distress Committee.

Refreshment and kind of food given to men at Palacerigg Farm.

Complaints as to refreshments at Palacerigg Farm.

Objection to grants to Distress Committee being made dependent on raising voluntary contributions.

Transactions of Distress Committee with Scottish Local Government Board.

Abolition of condition as to voluntary contributions proposed.

Difficulty in obtaining voluntary contributions since passing of Unemployed Act.

90091. In regard to these food tickets which you distribute, what kind of food do they get from the places to which your tickets enable them to go?—I absolutely declined to go on to that relief committee, but Mr. Ferguson will be able to tell you exactly about that. I had to do with the last one, and I know that the people did not get necessities, but that there was a good part of the ticket went for luxuries, so we are preventing that this time.

90092. There has been some discussion, has there not, lately, as to the refreshment that is given and the kind of food that is given to those who are going up to Palacerigg?—Yes. We took 200 men from Westerhill, where they were working for 12s. a week and getting nothing, and we undertook to give them a basin of hot soup, and a piece of bread for dinner. The soup is good soup 70 lbs. of meat being put into it. They started at seven from Buchanan Street Station, and we said, "We will give them a cup of coffee and a slice of bread"—a loaf being cut into five. Immediately we had complaints that it was too bad to ask them to eat dry bread.

90093. Whom had you the complaints from?—The letter came from what is known as the Unemployed Workers' Committee. Against my will they agreed to give them jelly on their bread.

90094. Has that satisfied them?—Probably they will have some other request. One of the men suggested that next it would be ham and eggs—I don't know what. They have such a difficulty to satisfy them, especially when they are in a company of 200.

90095. In regard to the provisions of the Unemployed Workmen Act, I think you have found in Glasgow that it is rather hard upon you to be obliged to give voluntary contributions in order to qualify for the grant?—Yes; I think that was a very great hardship. I went to the Common Good and I asked them for a loan of £1,000 and then for the loan of another £1,000, and as I could not pay them back the Government accepted them as contributions and gave us, I think, £3,800. Then after that I found that in London they got £58,000 without contributing so much as £10. We immediately applied to the Scottish Local Government Board to refund this £2,000, which we thought they had got from us by false pretences. But we learnt that Mr. John Burns had handed the money back to the Treasury, and so we could not get it. We feel that we have been done; and as we are Scotsmen, to be done out of £2,000 is rather provoking.

90096. (Mr. Gardiner.) And by England, too?—Yes.

90097. (Mr. Patten-MacDougall.) I gather that that leads you to think that the condition of voluntary contributions is one that should not be repeated if the Act is re-enacted?—I do not think you should ask us to provide a voluntary contribution which must pay wages, and have a rate contribution which can pay permanent officials, emigration, and services of that kind. The big employers of labour, who were generous contributors to our unemployed relief fund, say, "We are really being rated twice over; why should we both pay rates and at the same time be expected to give voluntarily?" I think it ought to be either the one thing or the other.

90098. (Sir Samuel Provis.) Did you get a certain amount of voluntary contributions before the Act passed?—Yes.

90099. Would you think it desirable that those should cease?—Of course I am speaking of a good few years ago. We once applied for contributions during a period of distress, and we had almost to restrain the people. We got over £10,000, and we did not use it all. But about eighteen months ago the Lord Provost was good enough to call a preliminary meeting in the library of those gentlemen who usually head the subscription list, because we thought at that time that to comply with the requirements of the Local Government Board for voluntary contributions they would require to do something; but they absolutely refused to give us anything, so we did not call a public meeting.

90100. Was that because there was a Government grant?—No; it was, I think, thought at the time that there was no need.

90101. Was there any special distress that year?—They thought there was no special distress, and we thought there was. The consequence was that we, not getting any money from them, had to go to the Common Good and they gave us £2,000 and the Government gave us £3,800.

90102. The Act rather contemplates special distress, does it not, or would you read it so as to apply to chronic distress?—I do not think it should be made easy for us to have a rate for distress, because our experience is that a great many of the men that are with us this year were with us last year and were with us the year before.

90103. You find, do you, that some of the men turn up each year?—Quite so. My difficulty is to get some of our men that call themselves the advanced portion of the committee to agree that these are not our people at all.

90104. In England there is a provision that assistance shall not be given to a man who has had assistance within two years previously; but you have not got that provision in Glasgow, have you?—No, we have not.

90105. Would you think it desirable to have it?—I would not like to have a hard and fast line put down.

90106. You think there must be some elasticity?—Yes, I think so.

90107. Would you like to have that restriction as a general rule, with some power to deal with exceptional cases?—Yes, I think that a body of men, such as the parish council and the town council elect as the distress committee, ought to have some discretion, and that what might be good enough for London, or for Leicester, or for Sheffield, might not be suitable for Glasgow; and what might be good for Glasgow might not be suitable for those other places. I really think we ought to have discretion.

90108. (Chairman.) I gather from your evidence that you think the supply of labour in Scotland now is in excess of the demand?—Yes, I think so.

90109. Do you think that the proportions have changed of recent years, or was it always so?—I think it is more acute now, both as to the number of people wanting work and as to the difficulty of getting it.

90110. Independently of this immediate distress?—Yes. The very fact that the number of people employed on the land has gone down so enormously, I think is a pretty good indication that they must be coming somewhere.

90111. I suppose you would say that the condition of the skilled workman has improved in the last twenty years?—Yes, I think so, very much. I think that the conditions that they require now are very much better.

90112. Then as to the unskilled labour, I suppose you would say that the upper stratum of unskilled labour has improved in the last twenty years?—Yes. People now get food and comforts that they did not have and would never have thought of having. I am sorry to say that there is a feeling amongst a lot of these workers that porridge and scups and broth—plain fare—although it is both cheap and nourishing, is not good enough for them. I am also sorry to say that I think there is a very big proportion of these people who spend their money foolishly on the Saturday, not only in drink but on sport. They do not care how much money they spend in going to a football match, and in taking a cab there, and in paying for a grand stand, and having a fish tea after it is all over. We could do better if we could inculcate a little thrift in them.

90113. Then it is the condition only of the lowest stratum of employment that you think has deteriorated in the last twenty years?—There is no doubt that that is a very big problem, but from my observation I think that the respectable artisan of over fifty years of age has a harder struggle now than he ever had, and that is the class that I think ought to be helped first and foremost.

Result of failure of voluntary contributions to Distress Committee.

Recurrent applications to Distress Committee.

Provision in England preventing recurrent assistance by Distress Committee.

Need for discretionary powers for Distress Committees.

Surplus supply of labour in Scotland.

Improved condition of skilled workmen compared with 20 years ago.

Improved condition of upper stratum of unskilled labour.

Workers' objection to plain fare. Extravagant expenditure on pleasure.

Position of elderly artisans.

Mr. JAMES FERGUSON, called; and Examined.

Mr. James
Ferguson.

20 Jan. 1908.

90114. (*Chairman.*) You are Indoor Assistant Inspector of Poor under the Glasgow Parish Council, and Chief Investigator under the Glasgow Distress Committee?—I am.

90115. You have been good enough to prepare a Statement giving us a good deal of information, which we will treat as your evidence-in-chief if you will kindly hand it in?—Certainly. (*The Witness handed in the following Statement.*)

1. I have been in the service of the Barony Parish, now the Glasgow Parish Council, since July, 1880. In 1882 I was appointed Assistant Inspector of Poor. The duties of an assistant inspector are to visit the houses of applicants and report once a week to a relief committee all the cases visited by him during the preceding week. His reports must contain such information as will enable the committee to dispose of the applications. In 1892 I was appointed to my present position, viz., Indoor Assistant Inspector of Poor. I am responsible for the general supervision of the Relief Department, of which there are eighteen assistant inspectors, two application clerks, two criminal officers, two relations liable officers, three removal officers, and a staff of clerks. The most important part of my duties is in connection with the relief committees and the revising of time-expired cases in hospitals and poorhouse. On each committee I represent the inspector of poor.

The Distress Committee for the City of Glasgow requested me to undertake the investigation of schedules of applications under the Unemployed Workmen Act, and they appointed me chief investigator.

POOR LAW.

2. *Improvident.*—Views as to the respective merits of indoor and outdoor relief. From experience I consider that outdoor relief is too easily obtained by a certain class, principally the improvident. That class is composed of men who, while in work and earning good wages, say from 30s. to 40s. per week, live in cheap-rented houses and make no provision for sickness. That class is on the increase—no doubt due to the splendid accommodation provided in our hospitals and the large aliment allowed their dependants after admission. In some cases aliment to the extent of 16s. per week is given, and such liberal treatment is bound to lead to improvidence. No use paying into friendly or sick benefit societies when better terms can be obtained through the parish council. It costs them nothing, they do not even pay their share of the poor-rate. On the other hand, it has a most damaging effect on friendly societies. The trend nowadays is to try and get as much as possible for nothing, and, what was some years ago considered the last resort, is now the first, viz., the parish council. I would suggest that in all cases of improvidence, or where it can be proved that a man had sufficient wages to enable him to make provision for sickness, that no outdoor relief be granted. I am certain, if this form of relief was stringently adhered to, men would waken up to their responsibility rather than have the poorhouse staring them in the face.

3. *Model Lodgers.*—The model lodger is also on the increase, but in every instance indoor relief is offered. They live from hand to mouth, but hundreds have the means to enable them to reside in private lodgings and provide themselves with the necessary medical attendance, but no matter what they earn, one day's sickness sends them to our institutions.

4. *Husbands in Prison, and Desertion.*—The wives and dependants of men in desertion or in prison cause a considerable amount of discussion as to what relief should be allowed. The Local Government Board strongly recommend that no outdoor relief should be given in such cases. Still there is a strong feeling amongst parish councillors that wives of such men should not be punished by sending them to the poorhouse simply because

their husbands misconduct themselves. I am of opinion that no outdoor relief should be given in such cases in respect that it is hardly fair to the unemployed tradesman who tramps the boots off his feet but sticks to his family; he cannot claim indoor or outdoor relief for his children, while the man who deserts or misconducts himself is considered deserving by granting his dependants outdoor relief.

5. *Widows and Expensive Funerals.*—Considerable difficulty is often experienced in disposing of widows burdened with young children, who apply immediately after the husband's death. In many cases the sum received from insurance societies is from £20 to £30, and in a few days nothing is left, the funeral expenses ranging from £6 to £8; and, in a case which came before me recently, the coffin cost six guineas. The difficulty arises as to whether such cases should not be offered indoor relief. I do not in all cases blame the widow—she generally hands the arrangements over to a male friend, who believes he is doing the right thing by making a grand show. Walking funerals should be encouraged; if coaches are required, then let the mourners provide them (just as persons provide their own coach when attending marriages); the mourners may be fewer, but the widow and orphan would benefit.

6. *Aliment.*—In 1882 the aliment allowed per child was 1s. to 1s. 6d. per week, with perhaps the same allowance to the mother if nursing a young child, but in recent years the alimENTS have been increased. In June, 1902, the Local Government Board issued a circular recommending parish councils to place widows with young children on the same scale as private guardians of boarded-out children, with the result that alimENTS from 6s. to 18s. per week, according to dependants, are now being paid, with clothing for the children, free medical attendance, and school books, while the only responsibility placed upon them is that they remain at home and devote all their time to the supervision of their homes and children. I have some doubt as to whether this will have the desired results; the indolence of the mother very often leads to the indolence of the child. No doubt the amended Education Act, prohibiting children under fourteen years of age from being employed before or after school hours, may prevent many anxious mothers from sending their children to earn a little. This I very much regret; from experience a mother who toils herself and teaches her children to do likewise, I find, turns out the most solid and provident. It may be without the scope of this Poor Law Commission, but I consider it is not right that children ranging from twelve to fourteen years of age should be debarred from earning a little to supplement the meagre income of a household, rather than have them confined in a close atmosphere till nine o'clock a.m. I am in favour of the education system in some parts of Germany, where in summer the schools open at 7 o'clock, and 8 eight a.m. in winter; and if the feeding of the children is necessary a glass of milk and a bun at a certain hour should be quite sufficient for their needs. The school is over at 1 p.m., and after that hour the children are free to work and have plenty of time to play and do their home lessons if necessary.

7. *Classes applying for Relief.*—The classes of person applying for relief are—

- (a) Widows with young children.
- (b) Widows with family partially able to support.
- (c) Persons neglected by their families.
- (d) Dependants of persons in hospitals and infirmaries.
- (e) Dependants of persons in prison.
- (f) Deserted wives and children.
- (g) All persons certified unfit for work—except dependants of able-bodied men.
- (h) Illegitimacy.
- (i) Insanity.
- (j) Orphan children.

Extravagant funeral expenses.
Provision of mourning coaches by mourners instead of widow proposed.

Scale of relief in Glasgow to widows with children.

Hardship of provisions of Amended Education Act, preventing earning by children under 14.

German school hours advantageous

Classes applying for relief to Parish Officer in Glasgow.

Mr. James Ferguson. 8. *Causes of Pauperism.*—The total number of persons who applied for the first time during the year ended November 15th, 1906, was 5,739—and the causes were as follows :—

Causes of Pauperism. Statistical Analysis of applications for relief.	From accident - - - - -	105
	„ criminality - - - - -	114
	„ desertion by parents and husbands - - - - -	491
	„ drink - - - - -	547
	„ illegitimacy - - - - -	101
	„ illness - - - - -	1,923
	„ immorality - - - - -	337
	„ improvidence - - - - -	833
	„ indolence and slovenliness - - - - -	66
	„ insanity - - - - -	450
	„ old age with relatives able to assist - - - - -	166
	„ old age without relatives able to assist - - - - -	248
	„ widows - - - - -	326
	„ orphan children - - - - -	32
	Total - - - - -	5,739

Inexpediency of relief to whole class of able-bodied indisciplinately. 9. As to the expediency and probable cause of giving all able-bodied persons a claim to parochial relief, there are so many classes of the able-bodied poor, viz., the men who allow their wives to work while they loaf about, men and women who hang about street corners and never look for work, men and women who squander every penny they earn in drink, men who wander all over the country neglecting their families. To give these classes a right to parochial relief would mean a more extreme test than what is available at present. It would mean a large addition to our poorhouses—in other words, parish councils would take the place of the present unemployed distress committees. Parish councils would then be in position to provide labour colonies, where the chronic unemployed or the able-bodied indolent could be sent, while part of what they earn would be available for their dependants.

Suitability of existing Poor Law areas. 10. *Existing Areas.*—I consider the present areas quite suitable for administering relief.

Abolition of Law of Settlement desirable. 11. *Poor Law Reform.*—My own feeling is that the Law of Settlement should be abolished and a National Poor Rate for Scotland be enacted.

National poor rate for Scotland proposed. Attractive-ness of institutions in Glasgow. 12. In a large city like Glasgow, with so many public institutions, such as lock hospital, maternity hospital, infirmaries, and parish hospitals, also the large number of model lodging-houses, the poor and a large class of very doubtful persons from all over the country are inclined to come to Glasgow to derive benefits from our palatial institutions, and in not a few cases become permanently chargeable to the rates, which means that in a city like Glasgow the burden of the upkeep of these people reverts upon the respectable and industrious ratepayer.

UNEMPLOYMENT.

Its Extent.

Numbers and class of unemployed. 13. For number and class of men out of work, see return of applications to burgh distress committee for year ending March 26th, 1907, copy of which is enclosed (Appendix No. II. (A)).

Extent of unemployment; chronic and periodic. 14. With regard to its extent over time, e.g. whether chronic or periodic, it is partially both. No doubt we have a chronic class of unemployed; still, from circulars received from employers, a large class are casual workers, only taken on during busy periods, and discharged immediately after.

Its Causes.

Causes of unemployment. Introduction of machinery. Immigration of aliens. Absence of applications for relief from Russian Poles in Glasgow. 15. It is rather difficult to say what is the actual cause of unemployment. Tradesmen and handy labourers say that one man with improved machinery can do the work of several men. In trades such as tailoring, slipper-making, and cabinetmaking a large number of Jews are now employed, and in the mines and ironworks throughout Lanarkshire, Renfrewshire, and Ayrshire a very large number of Russian Poles are now employed—to what extent no one has any idea. Some time ago it was suggested that the Local Government Board should cause a return to be made of all foreigners employed in the three shires mentioned, but it was thought impossible, owing to foreigners adopting Scotch surnames; it, however, seems strange that since 1903 no application for work has been received from a Russian Pole, and only two Jews have applied.

16. The introduction of electric lighting in our large retail warehouses and offices has been a serious blow to our painting trade; prior to that large gas jets blackened the roof and walls, with the result that they had to be cleaned and painted once or twice a year, but now it is only necessary to do so every other year, or perhaps longer.

17. At our harbour and docks modern machinery for the loading and discharging of cargo has been the means of displacing a large number of men. Work which formerly took several days to do can now be done in one; for instance, some years ago I have seen half a dozen men employed turning a loaded wagon on a turntable; this can now be done by one man, with the aid of an hydraulic windlass.

Its Effects.

18. The use of machinery, as stated in the preceding paragraph, is bound to cause a certain amount of unemployment. Still, I cannot understand why so many foreigners can always find work while the Scotchmen cannot. I have often remarked this to applicants for work, and the general reply is, that the foreigner can live cheaper, and therefore accepts less wages. I tested this, by making inquiry of labourers employed in a large foundry where a number of Poles are engaged, and was informed that they were all paid alike; the only difference was that the Pole worked harder, and was more steady at his work.

Its Remedies.

19. Labour exchanges or colonies for the respectable out-of-work tradesmen and labourers, where they could be employed at their own trade, or something better than stone-breaking, might be instituted. Employers of labour in want of men could be supplied through this channel. Some difficulty may be experienced in employing men at their own trade, as their trade union may object to their working at less than the standard rate. A few years ago it was suggested to employ a number of unemployed painters to paint the railings at our public parks and pay them a little more than the other unemployed men, but they could not accept unless they were paid the standard rate of pay for painters, with the result that they had to work as labourers at 12s. to 15s. per week. The same difficulty may arise here.

20. The chronic unemployed, and the men who have lost their work through carelessness or misconduct, should be sent to a colony and kept there, and what they earn should be handed over to their wives and families. Sometimes, however, the wife is worse than the man. In that case the children should be taken charge of, and what the man earns should be handed over to whatever institution the child or children may become chargeable to. In the event of the man leaving the colony or refusing to work, he should be criminally dealt with and sent to prison. The distress committee has had several cases of this class before them, and have granted them work through sympathy for the young children, but it is doubtful whether the children got the benefit. In other cases work was granted only on condition that the wives uplifted the pay.

21. Applicants for work under the distress committee make personal application at the Corporation District Baths, district police offices, the Charity Organisation branches, and Corporation Labour Bureau. The application forms were then forwarded to me and handed to the assistant inspectors of Govan and Glasgow Parish Councils, who visited the houses and filled in the necessary particulars in the statutory record paper. Circulars were then sent to the last employer requesting particulars as to the cause of discharge, the average rate of pay earned, and how long in their employment. On receipt of the reply, the applicants were summoned to a committee of three members, who either granted or refused work. Those granted were advised by postcard when and where to commence work. The men were all started at 12s. per week, which was afterwards increased to 2s. 3d. and 2s. 6d. per day, or 13s. 6d. and 15s. per week, according to the ability and willingness to work, while the average hours worked are forty-four per week, so that the men earning 15s. per week are higher paid than the foundry labourer with 16s. 10d. per week, and who has to work fifty-four hours per week. The men are employed at digging, draining, and stone-breaking, and all this is provided by the Glasgow Corporation.

Painting trade affected by introduction of electric light.

Dock labour displaced by the introduction of machinery.

Reason for infrequency of unemployment among Russian Poles.

Difficulty of employing "unemployed" at their own trades.

Detention of chronic unemployed on labour colonies, earnings being handed over to wives.

Procedure of Distress Committee.

Wages and working hours of men on Glasgow Corporation relief works.

number of men on relief works. 22. Last year the men were all discharged on April 1st, and no applications were received till November 13th. This year the work is still going on, and at 30th ultimo we had 391 men working, and I am afraid they will remain with us throughout the year, or as long as the work lasts.

number of migrants per week from Clyde ports. 23. My own opinion is that the Unemployed Act has brought to the surface a certain class who manage somehow to live either through their wives working or by casual labour of a few hours per week. During the last five or six weeks over 3,000 people per week have alone left the Clyde for foreign parts. Allowing for foreigners, say, 500 or 600 per week, who are they that are leaving this country? Are they English, Irish, or Scotch, tradesmen or labourers; and what surprises me most, who are filling their places? I would suggest that the Government should be asked to prepare a return giving the nationality and occupations of the persons who have sailed from the various ports this season.

Government return as to nationality and occupations of migrants proposed. 24. The following is a brief account of what was done by the Town Council of Glasgow towards relieving distress prior to the passing of the Unemployed Workmen's Act. Prior to the passing of that Act the corporation provided work through their own departments, viz., the Parks Department, where the men were sent to work at road-making and levelling the ground; under the Cleansing Department, in draining bog land; and the Statute Labour Department, in stone-breaking and the making of new streets. In 1903, I was asked to undertake the investigation of schedules, and have been engaged in that work each year since.

Vages of men on relief works. 25. A man was then paid 1s. for himself, 9d. for his wife, and 3d. per child, with tea and bread before starting at 8 o'clock a.m., with soup and bread for dinner. This rate of pay placed a considerable number of the men with large families in a better position than what they earned at their usual occupation. It was also unfair to the man with a wife only, who was paid 10s. per week, and who was more able and willing to work than the useless man with a large family. The maximum was afterwards fixed at 12s. 6d. per week. In after years the food was discontinued, and the present rate of pay fixed as is presently being paid. The expenses for each year were defrayed out of the common good fund of the corporation.

Co-operation between Distress Committee and parish council. 90116. (Chairman.) The Distress Committee of Glasgow has worked in co-operation with the Glasgow Parish Council, I understand?—Yes, very much.

Duties of witness. Date of witness's statement. 90117. You are responsible for the general supervision of the relief department of the Glasgow Parish Council?—That is so.

90118. Practically you are the head of the officials who attend that relief committee?—Yes.

90119. At what date did you prepare your statement?—About nine months ago.

90120. If the nine months which have elapsed between then and now have altered the information contained in that statement you will kindly make use of your experience during that time?—Certainly.

90121. How many years have you been connected with the inspectorate of the parish council?—For twenty-seven years past.

90122. Do you see much change in the class of people who come up for relief to what they were twenty-six years ago?—Yes.

90123. Should you say the change is for the worse or the better?—For the worse.

90124. In the sense that there is less disposition to help themselves?—That is the case.

90125. Should you say that in physique they have deteriorated?—Yes.

90126. You have no doubt in your mind as to that?—Not the least doubt.

90127. So there is, in the class that comes to the Poor Law, a moral and physical deterioration?—There really is from my experience for a time past.

90128. Should you say that is confined to certain portions of Glasgow, or is it general?—To the congested portions of Glasgow.

90129. They drift there, I suppose?—Yes, to the cheapest rented houses, of course.

90130. The more liberal treatment which has been the policy of the parish council to give has increased the applications, I understand?—There is not the least doubt about it. They do not require to make other provision, the alimient is so good now-a-days.

90131. That is notably the case, you think, as regards sick relief?—Yes.

90132. This evidence has been corroborated by other witnesses; but as regards alimient you have, of recent years, adopted the policy of giving a larger amount of alimient for boarded-out children. You are not quite satisfied with the results of that policy, are you?—The boarding-out of children with strange families is very satisfactory.

90133. As regards policy it is satisfactory as regards boarded-out children, but in certain cases it has not been so satisfactory as regards the children living with their mothers?—The widows on the Roll.

90134. Still, on the whole I suppose the increase of alimient has worked satisfactorily as regards these children?—Yes, in the majority of cases.

90135. Have you any industrial school in Glasgow?—We have.

90136. Has it ever occurred to you (the suggestion has been made to us) that in the case of these children of widows it might be possible to have something like a day industrial school where the children would be sent in the day and properly fed?—We have so many of them it would require to be a very large school; we have already children in the industrial school, and we pay 1s. per week for each child. That is where widows, perhaps, have been taken off the Roll through misconducting themselves or illegitimacy; they will not part with the children; they would rather we paid the board of this industrial school, which we do, because we are sure that the money is well spent there.

90137. (Mrs. Webb.) Is it a day industrial school?—Yes.

90138. The widows do not object to your sending the children there?—Not at all; they are rather pleased. The children leave their home at eight o'clock in the morning, and return home at six in the evening.

90139. (Chairman.) Has that system answered?—Yes, very well.

90140. Might not that system be extended a little in dealing with these children?—The Scottish idea is to live a family life; they do not care about institutional life at all.

90141. But sending your children to schools of the stamp of the day industrial school?—It would certainly be a great improvement on a good many of the homes.

90142. If practicable it would get over that difficulty?—Yes, it would.

90143. Of course, the characteristic difference between the English Poor Law and the Scottish Poor Law is that the able-bodied are not legally entitled to relief, or their dependents. Do you think the existence of that prohibition has increased the difficulty of the distress committee?—Certainly. I think if the parish council had the power to deal with the able-bodied poor the whole work of the able-bodied would revolve back on the parish council, and they would demand more relief as a right.

90144. Are there not all sorts of devices for getting over that prohibition just now, for instance, doctors' certificates?—Yes. Every applicant for relief is certified by a medical man.

90145. A doctor's certificate sometimes gives an able-bodied man relief who otherwise does not get it, does it not?—Yes.

90146. Are you in favour of maintaining the prohibition?—No, I am not exactly, because in my daily work with them I find cases really deserving of relief; and I consider it very hard to refuse such cases. There is a good deal of discretion left now with parish councils, such as where there is a man working at 25s. a week who has a wife suffering from consumption, they are living in a single apartment, and perhaps have a few children. We consider it very dangerous to the health of the children to allow the wife to remain in the house; and we do take her in to prevent further damage being done to the family.

Mr. James Ferguson. 20 Jan. 1908.

Improvidence encouraged by lavish relief.

Success of boarding-out of children.

Effect of increased scale of relief to widows with children.

Children of widows placed in day industrial school.

Scottish preference for family life.

Work of Distress Committee affected by absence of able-bodied relief.

Able-bodied receive relief on medical certificate.

Phthisical wives of able-bodied men received into Poor House.

Mr. William Ferguson. 90147. As regards the men themselves, would you give relief to them?—No. That is done even where they are in receipt of a wage, and not out of work or anything else; when they are earning a wage we take the wife in.

20 Jan. 1908. Hardship of absence of able-bodied relief—Discretionary power as to able-bodied relief needed. 90148. You would be disposed to modify the law as regards dependants of the able-bodied?—Certainly. There are a great many hard cases in Glasgow where we do give relief that we are entitled under the Scottish Act to refuse. I am of opinion still that we should have a little discretion in dealing with cases of that nature.

90149. Would that bring many cases upon you?—I think it would. We are sorry to say our consumptive ward in the large hospital which has been built is overcrowded already with purely consumptive cases.

90150. Notwithstanding the fact that this would bring a certain number more claims upon you, you would be in favour of that alteration of the law?—I am in favour of that.

Abolition of settlement. National poor rate for Scotland. 90151. As regards settlement, you would abolish it and have a national rate for the whole of Scotland?—I am in favour of that.

90152. Would that be for all purposes?—Yes.

90153. Outdoor and indoor?—Everything in connection with the administration of the Poor Law.

Glasgow burdened with poor from all parts, coming in the first place as patients to hospitals and remaining. 90154. That might be pleasant for Glasgow, but what would the rest of Scotland say?—It is for the sake of Glasgow I am speaking. I think it is very hard with all our hospitals, maternity hospitals and other such hospitals, that we should be taxed to keep up patients from the small country places where they have not facilities; not that these are chargeable to the rate, but once they do get inside a hospital they generally become unfit and left on the parish, and we have, perhaps, to keep them for all time coming.

90155. (*Mr. Patten-MacDougall.*) Not where they have a settlement?—Not Scottish people; but English or Irish we cannot return.

Unemployment in Glasgow, chronic and periodic. 90156. (*Chairman.*) Coming on now to unemployment, unemployment in Glasgow is for certain classes both chronic and periodical?—Yes.

90157. Has there always been a certain amount of unemployment in Glasgow?—Yes, for the last twenty years there always has been.

Relief works in 1882. 90158. Since you have been connected with the Poor Law?—The first experience I had was in 1882; we had a large number, thousands, working at stone-breaking and digging, but all and sundry were allowed to work there; all who applied for work got it at that time. We were not so particular and did not make any enquiries as to how long they had been in the city and how long they had been out of work; there was such a crowd of them they must have relief work.

90159. How long ago is that?—About twenty-five years.

90160. Giving employment outside the Poor Law has been common in Glasgow?—Yes, that is the reason the corporation had to provide it. The Scottish Boards were entirely tied; they could not give relief to able-bodied men, so the corporation had to provide work for them; as parish councils we could not give relief.

Distress Committees necessitated by absence of able-bodied relief. 90161. You trace a direct connection between the law prohibiting relief being given to able-bodied and these bodies which did relieve the unemployed?—Yes.

Immigration of Jews a cause of unemployment in Glasgow. 90162. Going on to its causes, amongst other thing you say there are a considerable number of foreigners who are employed in Glasgow or its neighbourhood?—Yes, it is a common thing at tailors' shops. In fact, most of the tailors' shops in our principal street, Argyle Street, are owned by Jews, and in most of the cases that come before our distress committee, if they are tailors and we ask them why they are unemployed, they say: "Oh, it is the Jews, we cannot get work for them."

90163. Not only the owners of the shops, but the employees, too, are Jews?—Yes.

Polish Jews in iron works and mines. 90164. In addition to that you say there is a considerable number of foreigners—Polish Jews engaged in iron works and mines?—That is the case. I was making enquiries of the superintendent of police at a place called Wishaw, the centre of Lanarkshire, and he told me only last week that he had some two or three thousand Poles employed in that shire alone.

90165. Is that a new system?—Entirely new. I was surprised to hear it myself. I did not know there were so many.

90166. These people you understand are working practically at the same wage as the Scottish men?—I have made enquiries of labourers employed in the same works who are applying for work through the distress committee, and the question was asked, "Why do the Poles always get kept on; do they get less wages?" and they have said, "No, they all get the same, the only reason is that they work harder than we and they are kept on when dullness takes place."

90167. Do these foreigners come up for relief?—No. It is very peculiar; I have not had an application from a Russian or a Pole, and we have several local iron foundries which employ them.

90168. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Is there any Jewish Board of Guardians there?—None.

90169. (*Chairman.*) They have a branch, have they?—They have a branch, but it is small. In fact it was a strange thing to get an application for parish relief even from a Jew until recently. During my experience it is only some ten or twelve years ago since we had an application from a Jew at all; they find relief themselves.

90170. Do they now apply?—Yes, there are so many of them.

90171. What do they apply for generally; medical relief?—Outdoor relief and medical relief.

90172. Do they make use of the order they get to go to their own board of guardians to get help through that?—They must do so. They do not remain long with us, I do not think there is one chargeable in the workhouse now.

90173. They make use of the board of guardians' order to get relief from their own people?—Yes, I think so.

90174. Enumerating some other causes of unemployment, you think the introduction of electric lighting has really made a serious difference in the painting trade?—That is so. That is seen on the surface. I remember not many years ago great rows of gas burners blazing in a draper's window, but now that is all done away with. In those times the walls were black in a month or two. That is my own general experience, and it is the statement made by painters.

90175. And machinery has lessened the employment at the docks?—That is what I have noticed myself. As a lad I was brought up in Glasgow and one of my favourite walks was down by the harbour, and I find a great difference in the loading and discharging of the ships now. Then it was all done by hand or most of it, but now it is machinery.

90176. You have set up a labour exchange that has done fairly well?—We do not know the effect of that yet, It is only recently the distress Committee took over that labour exchange.

90177. Do you come in contact with that at all?—No, I was only appointed chief investigator in connection with the distress committee, not the other part.

90178. What do you think; do you think a system of labour exchanges properly managed, linked up one with the other, would make any substantial difference in the amount of unemployment?—I should say that labour exchanges should, if the employers would only use them. They do not use them, because they simply say: "I can find as many men outside my gate as I want; I do not require to go to a labour exchange." But if the employers and labourers would use them it would be a splendid idea to have a record of all unemployed tradesmen.

90179. To make them efficient they must be associated with classes of labour, other than those connected with distress committees?—That is the case. The Lord Provost of Glasgow, when we first started working the distress committee under the Unemployed Workmen Act issued circulars to all the large employers of labour in Glasgow, asking them to make application to us for workmen, and we only got replies from two, I think, who said they would take notice of it; the others ignored the letter altogether.

90180. The Trades Council, on the other hand, have nominated some persons to it?—I understand so.

Reason for infrequency of unemployment among Polish Jews

Absence of applications for relief from Russian or Polish immigrants. Branch of Jewish Board of Guardians in Glasgow.

Applications for relief from Jews.

Painting trade affected by introduction of electric light

Dock labour displaced by machinery.

Transfer of labour exchange to Distress Committee

Conditions essential to success of labour exchanges.

Employers' neglect to use Labour Exchange. Attitude of Trades Council towards labour exchange.

90181. You have a labour farm?—Yes; it is not in proper working order yet, but by the end of this month they expect to be able to send out ninety men to be housed there.

90182. Do you approve of a farm of that kind?—Yes, I think I put in my statement that if we had a labour colony divided into two, one for the decent unemployed tradesmen, and the other for the men who will not work, or who work for a day or two and loose off, and then come to us, and send them there as I state, and make them work for a wage, and give it over to the families—keep them there altogether.

90183. You would have two classes of colony or farm, one for the more respectable people, and the other for the chronic class of unemployed?—Yes, the in-and-out workers.

90184. Would you, in the first instance, send them all to the same farm?—No, I would allocate them before they got that length, through enquiries.

90185. One farm would be stiffer and less comfortable than the other?—I would be in favour of sending respectable people to one farm altogether and keeping them all separate; but if they lost their work through drinking, or what not, they should be sent to a different farm altogether.

90186. What is your idea of testing a person's *bona fides*? Do you think that work is a sound and reliable test?—Yes.

90187. Do you think there is any other test?—Give them a trial of it; send them to a colony. If they do not work then I would certainly get them sent to prison.

90188. To a more penal colony?—Yes.

90189. In dealing with the class which you have mentioned before, their response to a test of work is the only reliable test?—Yes.

90190. That means that your labour must be on a very considerable scale?—Yes; for one thing there are plenty of acres in connection with it; I do not know whether it could be cut up in two.

90191. You would have a good many hundreds of thousands, would you not?—Yes, you would have to make big provision for it.

90192. What was your idea for the people you would send there, would you simply keep them till they got restored to health, or would you keep them there permanently till they got a place?—I would keep them there as long as they like to remain, so long as they were working for their living.

90193. You would have a very large number of persons for a long time on your hands?—I am not so sure; I think they would drop off from us.

90194. The object of the Unemployed Workmen Act was to give help to a special class of respectable persons who were usually permanently employed, but were temporarily out of employment. Did men of that class register themselves?—Very few of the respectable tradesmen, that is the out of work householders. Personally, I know a good many men who did not apply to us, who depended on their friends. For instance, I have had clerks call on me, four or five a day, expecting I would require some clerical work in connection with this new committee, most respectable looking men, but I had no need for such a class; and decent engineers, well dressed have asked for work, and we cannot give it to them.

90195. Would you be able to send those people to a labour farm?—If they liked to go; it is a matter of finding board out of it, if not a wage.

90196. You express very clearly your opinion that this Unemployed Workmen Act has brought to the surface a certain class who manage somehow to live either through their wives working, or by casual labour of a few hours per week. In fact, that is a class I suppose not very distinct from those who ordinarily come for relief to the parish council?—Just something similar.

90197. Just the same class only they are able-bodied and disqualified by law?—That is the case.

90198. If you altered the law you would have these persons coming I suppose periodically for relief to the parish councils?—Certainly. If you altered the law to give an able-bodied man a right to parish relief he would come to us certainly.

90199. You have had to do both with Poor Law and with the distress committee. Would you be prepared to recommend that the Poor Law should do all the work that you now are doing?—I think so. It should be all under one head in a case like this.

90200. The respectable class of tradesmen then would not apply to you?—I do not know, they might not. That is the only objection to my suggestion. They might not care about coming to the Poor Law. There is a feeling in that respect, that unless you are dividing up the class of applicants who come to the distress committee, some of them would not care about coming to us at all.

90201. A certain number of these persons would come to a distress committee who would not come to the parish?—Yes.

90202. Is charity well organised in Glasgow?—There are a great many different sources.

90203. Do they work at all with the Poor Law?—No, the only thing now is that they search our indices. We give the Charity Organisation officials full power to search our indices.

90204. It has been suggested to us that it would be advisable in future that there should be a statutory committee connected with all the charities and persons interested in them, who should work side by side with the Poor Law, as there are a certain number of cases requiring relief which the Poor Law under present restrictions cannot give. Supposing there was a committee of that kind associated with the Poor Law would that get over the difficulty of dealing with these more respectable tradesmen?—I think I am in favour of having all such things under one head. I do not know whether it would prevent the decent unemployed coming to this particular board.

90205. Would a charity committee be able to deal with them?—I should think so.

90206. Practically your evidence is really to this effect that there is not, as regards the great majority who come to the Glasgow Distress Committee, a sufficient difference between them and those who come to the Poor Law to justify this separate organisation?—As I have stated already, there are a great many; for instance, the class I referred to would not come to us. I should like to see that class applying to a distress committee to give them the opportunity of doing something for them, but while there is the class that is applying just now they hold off, and they certainly will not apply to the parish, because we cannot deal with them.

90207. Passing on to your Appendices, what strikes one in Table 5 is how very large a proportion of those applying were under forty. It is not the old people who apply so much as the young?—That is so, but my experience this year and last year is that a great many of these applicants when they make an application understate their age. There are many who state they are fifty-four years of age and I am sure they are sixty-four. They think if they say they are so old they will not get work with us. They even admit at the committee that their age is more than what they state. The ages from twenty to thirty you can distinguish more; you can see for yourself they are no more than that.

90208. But from thirty to forty?—They say they are forty, but they look fifty, but they say it is the hardship that makes them look older than they really are.

90209. That feature of so many young persons applying and registering is common to almost all the distress committees. Is that a modern phenomenon, or were there always this number of young persons out of employ in Glasgow?—During the last two years, both as regards the distress and the unemployment. There is an awful amount of carelessness by parents with children when reaching the age of fourteen or fifteen years. When applicants come before the distress committee you will often find a boy or girl of fourteen and a half years

Mr. James
Ferguson.
20 Jan. 1908.

Probable
effect in
instituting
able-bodied
relief.
Suggested
transfer of
Distress
Committee
to parish
council.
Objection to
administration
of
Distress
Committee
by parish
council.

Relations
between
Charities and
Poor Law.

Statutory
Charities
Committee
proposed, co-
operating
with parish
council.

Reluctance of
respectable
unemployed
to apply to
Distress
Committee.

Large pro-
portion of
young
applicants to
Distress
Committee.
False state-
ments of age
by applicants.

Neglect of
parents to
try to find
work for
children.

Mr. James
Ferguson.

20 Jan. 1908.

Demand for
boy and girl
labour in
Glasgow.

of age idle. When the parents are asked why they are idle, you are told they have been looking for work. "Do you ever take the boy out to look for work?" "No." "Does the mother never do it?" "No." "You allow the boy to run the streets day after day looking for work?" "Oh, but they come home and say they cannot get it." The parents do not take them out to put them in situations. It is grievous to see the number of young girls and boys on the streets of Glasgow, the boys round the railway stations at that age smoking cigarettes, asking people to let them carry their luggage, playing pitch and toss, and selling papers. They seem to have no guardians whatever. They drift into corner men.

90210. There is a considerable demand for boy labour in Glasgow, is there not?—There is not the least doubt of that. At the beginning of January for curiosity sake in one of the principal evening newspapers in Glasgow I counted forty-one boys and sixty-one girls wanted for messengers for shops: all sorts of shops.

90211. Those boys and girls, if they were wanted as messengers, would probably be got rid of when they became adults?—Perhaps, but I think there is no harm in their being messengers for the first year and then let them go and learn a trade afterwards. There are very few boys in engineers' works at fourteen or fourteen and-a-half years, they are generally fifteen when they take them on in Glasgow.

Casual work
among boys
leads to
future un-
employment.

90212. There is a considerable proportion of boys who have no fixed occupation, or take this casual work of selling these papers and so on, who swell the list of unemployed when they become adult?—No doubt about it; they run about the streets. Mr. Motion and I (he is the inspector) have taken a turn at half-past one in the morning or two o'clock in the morning in the main thoroughfares, and it is surprising to see how many children, even from ten years upwards, are running about the streets at that time.

90213. What do they do?—I do not know what they do at all. It is sad to see them, from West to East, running in and out of the closes and cross-streets. It is getting very common to see a lad coming before the committee, apparently of seventeen years of age, married, with perhaps two in the family. Upon making inquiries into those cases you sometimes find they have no homes at all; they either go and stay with her people or his people, or get their furniture on the hire system, and the furniture is taken away if they cannot pay the instalments. They simply get broken-hearted before they are twenty-five years of age.

Frequent
applications
to Distress
Committee
by boys of 17,
married,
with two
children.

Large num-
ber of young
applicants.

90214. Having regard to the children?—Yes, and the early age of the marriage. A considerable number of the applicants are from twenty to thirty.

Increasing
number of
unemployed
lads running
in Glasgow
streets.

90215. Are these evils you have mentioned on the increase, do you think?—Certainly they are. I never saw so many young lads running the streets of Glasgow through the day, even when trade is good.

90216. Educating them has not given them an aptitude or a qualification for an organised skilled trade?—Evidently not.

Proposed
administra-
tion of
Distress
Committee
by parish
council and
objections as
to.

90217. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) Your proposal, if I rightly understand it, would be this, that the powers which are now exercised by the distress committee should be exercised by the parish council. Is that your view?—Yes.

90218. Would you not have this objection made, that that would mean that the people who are now assisted by the distress committee would be brought into contact with the Poor Law and get the taint of pauperism?—That is the argument against it all along, that they do not want anything to do with the parish. In fact, some of our people object to the officials connected with the parish council, making the inquiries on behalf of the distress committee.

Investiga-
tion for
Distress
Committee
by assistant
inspector of
poor.

90219. How do they get over that difficulty?—They have not got the machinery. The distress committee asked for the assistance of the inspector of the Glasgow parish to give them some help, with the result that I was appointed to do it.

90220. Supposing the law was altered, and the whole thing was put under the parish council, that difficulty would arise, would it not?—Certainly it would.

90221. What would be your answer to the objection; the objection that the people would be brought into contact with the Poor Law and that, therefore, you ought to have a separate organisation?—I could hardly say. There is always the objection to the Poor Law. I think these things should be all under one head. We have parties in the workhouse who have applied to the distress committee and through our inquiries in connection with that we have found out that this man has simply left the workhouse to get the work. Then there is the decent unemployed who would not care to come on to the parish; I see the objection perfectly well, and it has been made in Glasgow against the parish council having anything to do with it.

Objection
administra-
tion of
Distress
Committee
by parish
council.

90222. If I rightly understand you, you think the objection must be admitted, but you ignore it on other grounds?—Yes.

90223. Before the Unemployed Workmen's Act was passed, the town council of Glasgow gave a good deal of work, did they not?—They did it all with the assistance of the same machinery. They provided the work.

Relief work
for unem-
ployed
provided by
Glasgow
corporation
prior to
passing of
the Unem-
ployed Act

90224. Would there not be a likelihood that they would be asked to do it again, if the only body that could deal with the matter was the Poor Law authority?—I do not think so, if I understand your question rightly.

90225. I will put it in another way. One reason why a man might like to go to the town council would be that he was not brought into contact with the Poor Law; if the Poor Law authority was the only authority which under direct Statutory provision dealt with the unemployed, would there not be a tendency to put pressure on the town council to revive their old procedure and provide work themselves?—I think if the law was altered and that the parish was really content to provide work of relief for the able-bodied men, and it was the duty of the parish council to do so, that would relieve the town council entirely of responsibility, but if the Scottish Poor Law Act had been so that it was compulsory to give relief to the able-bodied, then the town council would have simply thrown it aside altogether and had nothing to do with it. They would have said: "the parish council have power to deal with it, therefore we will have nothing to do with it."

Effect of
instituting
able-bodied
relief.

90226. Take the analogy of England where an able-bodied man may be relieved out of the workhouse in populous places, still there was the desire that work should be provided by some authority other than the Poor Law authority?—I was not aware of it. I know that the English law gives them power to relieve the dependants of able-bodied men.

Distress
Committee
in England

90227. You would have the same in Scotland, would you not?—Parishes could not deal with that.

90228. But you would have the same feeling in Scotland?—Yes.

90229. (*Mr. Patten-MacDougall.*) I understood you to say that the better class of workmen who are out of employ do not apply even to the distress committee?—They do not.

Infrequent
of applica-
tions to
Distress
Committee
by better
class
workmen

90230. In your analysis, on page 4, of the occupations of the tradespeople who apply, I see you have: Engine-fitters, 12; iron-drillers, 13; joiners, 23; and certain others whom one would ordinarily put into the class of the skilled workmen. Are these not skilled workmen?—They are skilled workmen, but in proportion to the number idle they were small in each trade. For instance, take bricklayers, there are hundreds of bricklayers idle.

90231. Take the engine-fitters and the iron-drillers, there are unions connected with both those employments, are there not?—Yes.

90232. Do many trade unionists apply to the distress committee?—Very few. In fact, the question of application is asked on the paper if they are members of any trade society or friendly society, and the answer is generally: No.

Infrequent
of applica-
tions to
Distress
Committee
by trade
unionists

90233. You have very few of them?—Yes, I am sorry to say.

90234. You are sorry to say?—Yes.

Advanta-
of membe-
ship of
friendly
society or
trade uni

90235. Why?—Because I think they should be members of some society. They would have someone to help them in difficulties if they were members of a society of some description.

90236. I thought you were expressing regret that those people who are trade unionists and out of employment do not come to the distress committee?—No.

90237. You say also that these Poles, of whom there are a great many employed in Lanarkshire, as we know, in the steel and ironworks, do not apply for relief. You have had no instance of such applications either in the Poor Law or the distress committee?—In the distress committee and Poor Law, we have had a couple of lunatics, but they have been landed from other places, perhaps from a steamer in transit.

90238. Is that due to any extent to this, that the Pole is more thrifty when he comes over?—I do not know; it might be.

90239. It has been represented, I forget whether here or elsewhere, that the Pole comes over here by himself and, when he has saved enough, he sends for his wife and children?—Yes.

90240. Is that in accordance with your information?—That is the report I got. I should also state that my information from the same source, that is the superintendent of police at Wishaw, tells me that a great many of these men are about to be taken away to Canada this year, because the Canadian Government wanted some Poles out there acquainted with the Scottish coal-mining, but he says there will be as many come over to fill their places. I thought that would be an outlet for some of our unemployed, but it appears from his experience that as two leave three come over. I saw in the public prints that such a thing was being done.

90241. Have you ever considered whether when boys and girls leave school it might be as well that there should be a labour exchange to provide them with work?—I am entirely in favour of that. I think even the school-master should take a note of all boys and girls who reach the age of fourteen and endeavour to get them a situation, outside of the parents altogether.

90242. I suppose the labour exchange you would suggest would be one confined to them; it would not be the usual labour exchange, but you would have one specially to themselves, for the purpose of promoting apprenticeship or work for the boys and girls?—Undoubtedly I would.

90243. In connection with the school board?—Yes, I am certainly in favour of that.

90244. In answer to the Chairman, I think you stated that the deterioration, both in physique and in morals, of the lower classes of the community in Glasgow, was to be found where the cheaply-rented houses are, is that so?—Yes.

90245. Of course, one knows that about twenty-five or thirty years ago the corporation erected model lodging-houses in Glasgow, did they not, in order to meet the congestion which then prevailed?—Yes.

90246. What effect have those model houses had?—They have had a very bad effect in Glasgow, a demoralising effect; in every main street they are springing up now; I do not know where they get the lodgers from.

90247. They are increasing?—Yes, there are three even in our main street, Argyle Street, opened in the last eighteen months, and you will find in those models at night, boys from fifteen to sixteen years of age, and some less than that.

90248. Are those boys employed?—We do not know what they do.

90249. Are those the boys you told us you find in the streets of Glasgow at two o'clock in the morning?—Very likely, if they have not made enough off their papers.

90250. Can they get out of the models at that time?—No; they can get in late enough, but they cannot get out.

90251. There are not only corporation models, but models in the hands of private owners, are there not?—The corporation models are well conducted, but the other ones are very badly conducted.

90252. Are they not superintended at all?—They are all licensed under the sanitary authority.

90253. Are there bye-laws in operation?—There are bye-laws.

90254. In regard to both?—In the larger ones they have rules laid down for them, and are under sanitary inspection.

90255. I thought you said those that were in the hands of private owners were badly managed?—They are on a smaller scale, and they are not so stringent with them as the corporation models. A better class go to the corporation models than the others. The Salvation Army have a large model that is well conducted; there seems to be a better class go there.

90256. In your opinion these models have a very detrimental effect?—They have so. It is quite a common thing for a man to quarrel with his wife and get away to the models; most of our deserters are apprehended in models.

90257. Is it not the practice also that they change their names in the models, so that they cannot be identified?—Very often. You can hardly find half-a-dozen men with their own names in the models. In fact, many of them forget the name they have given you the last time.

90258. Have the wives and children come on the Poor Law?—Yes.

90259. You have a difficulty in getting hold of the husbands?—We have. Our officers have to take the wives out at night, to see if they can recognise their husbands at the models, when they have particulars that he is lodging at a certain model.

90260. You also told us that the law of Scotland applicable to the able-bodied man, that the able-bodied man shall not be relieved, has been to some extent relaxed?—Yes, greatly.

90261. In a case such as this, where the wife or family are suffering from consumption or tuberculosis?—Yes.

90262. Where the husband, in spite of a wage of, say, under 30s., is not able to provide the medical attendance necessary for the sick wife; in those cases the law has been relaxed, within your knowledge and experience?—That is so; during my experience it has.

90263. Do you think by following out the circular which was issued by the Local Government Board some eighteen months ago, that phthisis should be treated as an infectious disease, and provided for by the local authority, that that would relieve you of that class of case?—Certainly it would.

90264. Do you think it would be a good thing to take it out of the Poor Law altogether?—I really think I should. A man with an income of over £1 a week you cannot call a pauper, and you could not deal with the dependants of that man.

90265. At the same time it is very hard on him that he should be pauperised in that way?—If it is taken up by the sanitary department of the local authority, then he will be quite clear of it.

90266. And he would not be pauperised?—He would not be pauperised then.

90267. Has the local authority in Glasgow taken any steps in that direction yet?—They have not. I have heard that there will be some action take place.

90268. You are aware that some action has been taken by other local authorities?—I understand so.

90269. You are of opinion that any action taking such cases as phthisis out of the Poor Law altogether, would be a very remedial and sound measure?—Yes.

90270. In Paragraph 10 you say you consider the suitability of present area quite suitable for administering relief. Are you speaking there of the burghal area of Glasgow, or the rural areas as well?—I am talking about the present parish of Glasgow.

90271. You confine that to the present parish of Glasgow?—Yes.

90272. With regard to the fact that the present parish of Glasgow consists of the two parishes that were within the boundaries of Glasgow and were amalgamated within the last twelve years, you are of opinion that that arrangement has worked well?—Yes.

90273. And is working well?—I have had experience of the burghal parish since the amalgamation.

90274. You do not think it too large?—I do not think so; I was rather afraid of it, but we increased our staff.

Mr. James Ferguson.

20 Jan. 1908.

Private lodging houses badly conducted. Corporation and Salvation Army lodging houses well conducted. Demoralising effect of model lodging houses. Deserters under aliases in model lodging houses, families being chargeable. Difficulty in finding deserters.

Relaxation of law prohibiting relief to able-bodied.

Provision for phthisical cases by Sanitary Authority desirable.

Mr. James
Ferguson.

20 Jan. 1908.

Amalgama-
tion of small
parishes for
poor law
purposes.

Inspector of
the poor
should
devote
whole time
to duties.

Amalgama-
tion of small
parishes
desirable.

Boarding-out
of children of
respectable
parents
undesirable.

Boarding-out
of children
with stran-
gers prefer-
able to
relatives.
Model
lodging-
houses for
females in
Glasgow.

Model
workmen's
dwellings in
Glasgow.

Reluctance
of better-
class work-
men to apply
to Distress
Committee if
administered
by parish
council.

Relief of all
kinds should
be under one
authority.

90275. You do not extend this statement to cover the case of small rural parishes where the pauperism is extremely small; but you would not be against the union of two or three of those small parishes, would you?—No; it works in Glasgow, I do not see what is to hinder it working in other parishes in Scotland. Some of the parishes, although they have very small pauperism, cover a big area.

90276. Would you favour a provision which would give compulsory powers to unify several of these rural parishes?—I should have no objection.

90277. Would that assist administration?—I think so. You are aware that in Scotland some of our parishes are seven miles in length, and if you were to unify two of that description, it would take a good deal of travelling about to get over the ground.

90278. If such union were to bring about this result, that one inspector of poor were able to manage the three or four or five parishes, or whatever it may be, whatever area the amalgamated parishes might cover, and give his whole time, do you think that would be an improvement upon the present administration? At present, as you are aware, in small areas where the pauperism is slight the inspector of poor does not give his whole time to the work. Do you think it would be a good thing that the inspector of poor should give his whole time, if the area were large enough to justify his being asked to do so?—I think the inspector of poor should have nothing else to do; and I suggest to amalgamate two or three parishes of that description would be quite worth while.

90279. You say also in your statement about boarding out children that you are of opinion that the aliment which has been given for boarding out is well spent when the boarding out is with strangers rather than with relations. Has your experience led you to think that it is the better course to board out children with strangers?—When the parents are respectable I never think of recommending it. I consider the mother is the best guardian. I should never think of suggesting boarding out children in the country where the mother is respectable and able to manage for a family.

90280. I am not talking so much of the mother as of other relatives, uncles and aunts?—From experience we find it is far better to board out with strangers than with relatives.

90281. (Miss Hill.) When speaking of the models just now did you refer to houses for men only, or improved dwellings for families?—Only models. I think we have only two models in Glasgow for females. All the rest are for men.

90282. Those you are speaking of are for men only?—Yes; of the females one is under the corporation and one is under a private body.

90283. Have you any particulars of the houses built for families in Glasgow; they are built for families by the corporation, are they not, or have been?—Yes; under the City Improvement Trust we have cleared out the slums and built more model houses.

90284. What you said in no way applied to them, it was simply a question of the men's houses?—It was simply the night lodgers that pay 3d. or 4d. a night that I referred to.

90285. When you were speaking of having only one body to which these people in distress should apply and that the parish council, you said that you thought there would be some hesitation on the part of the better-class workmen to apply there?—I am afraid so. That is the only objection I have to the scheme.

90286. Do you think that might have its advantages as well as its disadvantages; that perhaps the application for relief, whether in the form of work or otherwise, is rather too easy now?—My reason for suggesting that is to have the thing under one head, and bury the word pauperism altogether, or bury relief, and have it all under one head, so that you should not have so many different associations, one feeding, another clothing, another sending children to fresh air, and so on, but to have the whole of that under one head.

90287. One can see a great advantage in having only one body; but I did not gather whether you thought one advantage of it also would be that the people would not apply to it unless they were in real distress; and

perhaps they might go pretty easily to the distress committee, because they think it rather a grander thing than the parish council?—There might be that; but if I said bury the word pauperism and have it all under one head I think there would be no hesitation in coming abolished, to the Poor Law.

90288. (Mr. Chandler.) Are the answers in Table 9 the answers supplied by the employers in reference to the applicants to the distress committee for work?—These are all certified by the employers.

90289. In response to your enquiries in respect of the applicants?—Yes. There is a circular sent out. Every applicant on his application schedule states the name of his employer and foreman; and this is the reply from the employer.

90290. There were 1,885 sent out?—Yes.

90291. The replies there, I think, are exceedingly creditable, showing they were at least a very respectable class of men?—Yes.

90292. The proportion is very small who were discharged for any failings of their own in any way whatever?—Yes, that was brought out last year more than the year before.

90293. (Mr. Gardiner.) We were told that the Glasgow corporation had established a relief committee lately. Are you associated with that at all?—Yes; the distress committees had some difficulty in finding work for the unemployed, and the corporation has instituted a relief fund; and they have also asked me to undertake the enquiries into that, not but what I have already plenty of work, but they prefer to have it all under one head: Poor Law, Unemployed Workmen Act, and this distress committee. I am making the enquiries. They only started on Friday morning giving tickets for provisions on the local provision merchants.

90294. What is the relation of that new committee with the parish council?—None whatever. It is entirely private. The Lord Provost had a public meeting of the citizens; and from that they appointed a committee.

90295. Are the enquiries carried out under your supervision?—Yes, something similar to the enquiries made under the Unemployed Workmen Act.

90296. Then you have excess to the information which the parish council hold as regards the individuals?—Yes; they are the same officials.

90297. So this is really an entirely charitable relief society?—It is a charity; there is not the least doubt about it. We have collected some £6,000 for it.

90298. That has been started in consequence of the trade depression?—Exactly so.

90299. (Mr. Patten-MacDougall.) What do they get with these tickets, do you know?—We have issued cards to the local grocers; we want to spread it over as much as possible; and we have instructed the grocers to give so much for 1s., so much for 1s. 6d., so much for 2s., and so much for 2s. 6d. The tickets are all different colours, and the amount of provisions is on the back of each one. One of our committee-men who is a grocer priced the articles that they were to get for 1s., 1s. 6d., and so on. That is all printed on the back of the ticket which the grocer gets, but not on the ticket which is issued to the applicant. They do not know what they are going to get, it is principally bread and flour, barley and peas, I think; with a special request not to give tobacco or fancy breads, nothing but good solid provisions.

90300. (Dr. Downes.) In Paragraph 8 you give the causes of pauperism in the case of persons who apply for the first time. Do you know what the duration of relief was in those cases?—It is hardly possible. We have a case which goes under this head and enters the poorhouse for a week, and others go for a month; but our principle in dealing with cases like this that are urgent is to send them to the workhouse or hospital for a month; at the end of that time they are revised by a committee and renewed for another month, if necessary, but the great majority are out before that.

90301. The point is this, that some of these cases would lead to relief of long duration, such, for instance, as old age or insanity, whereas, taking the cases of illness, some of those cases may be for quite a short period?—It might be so.

Term
"pauperism"
to be
abolished.
Replies from
employers of
applicants to
Distress
Committees

Relief
Committee:
investigation
for, by
assistant
inspector of
poor.

Amount of
collections
for Relief
Committee.

Procedure as
to food
tickets of
Relief
Committee.

Procedure in
dealing with
urgent
applications
for relief.

90302. You have no figures which would check that?—No; we have our report, which gives the number of times each one applies. I think under the new card system which the Local Government Board has asked for we have given that.

90303. In your report do you give any further sub-classification of these classes? In the case of illness do you give the different classes of diseases which lead to pauperism?—No, we do not.

90304. Under the head of immorality what do you include—venereal diseases?—Venereal diseases principally.

90305. In Paragraph 10, as to areas, you consider the present area is quite suitable for the administration of relief. Are you in favour of combining parishes for institutional relief?—It depends on the size of the parishes. We have a large parish in Glasgow, Govan, for instance; I should think the combination of the two parishes would be too large to work.

90306. Are there many parishes in Scotland that are of such a size that the parish could provide its own institutional relief?—A great many parishes might be combined and be no larger than Glasgow.

90307. (Mr. Patten-MacDougall.) A good many are at present combined?—Yes.

90308. (Dr. Downes.) I am asking your view as to the working of these combinations?—It was thought that Glasgow and the other parish would be too large, but they find it works well from experience.

90309. How do the small parishes act with regard to special cases? Supposing they have a child with a special form of ophthalmia, how would they get that child treated?—They very often pay the fee and get it into the Glasgow Eye Hospital, or in some other large city.

90310. And with regard to special operations?—They would pay a fee to one of the infirmaries; in a great many of our poorest hospitals if it is a serious operation they would pay a fee to one of the infirmaries.

90311. You said that the foreigners can live cheaper. Have you any details of that?—I am told that they can live on almost black bread, or a form of cheap bread, and dripping.

90312. In answer to one of the Commissioners you said you would bury the word "pauperism," what do you mean exactly by that?—There is a feeling existing even in connection with using the word "paupers," and I am not greatly in favour of it. I would introduce the words "poor persons," or something of that.

90313. You think by burying the word you would get rid of the stigma?—You would get rid of a good deal of the feeling against parish relief.

90314. Would you consider that no person who receives relief should be disfranchised?—That is what I want to prevent as much as possible. I am certainly not in favour of it, because it is a pity that a man whose wife is ill, as in the case I referred to, should be pauperised because his dependants are chargeable on the rates.

90315. Should you consider it probable that in the course of time a similar stigma would attach itself to, say, a distress committee's relief?—I do not think so.

90316. Is there any restriction of the kind of man who may apply to the distress committee?—No.

90317. Then the deserving and undeserving can apply alike?—Yes.

90318. Would there not be a tendency that in course of time it would become stigmatised by reason of the undeserving who apply?—It would depend greatly on if we dealt with a decent application in a different way, and the undeserving in the proper way that they should be dealt with.

90319. Have you observed anything in your experience bearing on that point?—Outside the distress committee altogether I have advised some persons to apply to the distress committee, but they said they would not. They

have seen our men working at the outside labour work, and, from the appearance of the men working there, they said they would not work alongside of them—decent men I would have liked to help, but I have had to say, "I have nothing else but digging and stone-breaking." If it were a sheltered place, like a labour colony, where you could set them to basket-making or tailoring, or something of that sort, I would be very pleased to find them employment.

90320. (Chairman.) Do I understand a certain class of men refuse to work in public places if they are seen with the people who are already working there?—That is quite a common complaint with the respectable men in Glasgow.

90321. (Mr. Phelps.) With regard to the want of employment in Glasgow at the present time, do you think it is more than usual?—Yes, at the present time.

90322. In what particular trade does that show itself?—In the iron trade principally, and then in the building trade.

90323. With regard to the building trade, the witnesses who sent in statements rather differ in their opinion. Is there any particular reason why the building trade should be depressed now?—In Glasgow the only reason I can give is that they have over-built it.

90324. Do you think the railway facilities make a difference in that way?—They have. Our tramway in Glasgow system has taken a good many people away, but still a great many houses are unoccupied on the outskirts.

90325. There is a general slackness in the building trade?—Yes.

90326. Is it becoming the tendency for people to live more and more in flats and less in houses in Glasgow?—It is. We have some 20,000 or 30,000 empty houses in the city of Glasgow just now.

90327. The separate house system is becoming unpopular, is it?—Yes.

90328. With regard to the chemical business, that seems to be in a flourishing state, does it not?—I am not so much acquainted with that, but there are only really two chemical works in Glasgow, that is Lord Overton's and Tennants'. I think the two of them are fair just now.

90329. With regard to the collieries, does the state of business in collieries affect Glasgow much?—Yes.

90330. I gather the amount of employment in collieries, or the number of people employed, is pretty constant?—Just now it is pretty fair.

90331. You notice that a number of foreigners have come in, and been employed lately?—Yes.

90332. Have they been taken on in addition to the Scottish people who have been employed, or in substitution of them?—They have displaced them.

90333. What becomes of the Scottish people who have been displaced?—They have gone to increase the unemployed.

90334. Have any large number of them emigrated, do you think?—According to the figures last year of the number that left the Clyde, they were leaving the Clyde 3,000 a week, but whether they were really from the shires referred to, I have no idea. Really at present they are sturdy young men and women who are leaving Scotland to go to foreign parts; they are the best of the race.

90335. You would not be prepared to say there is a steady influx of foreigners, who pushed out an equal number of Scottish people to America, say?—It must have an effect.

90336. What amount of effect, you could not say?—No.

90337. With regard to the baking trade, do you have many bakers apply to you for relief?—We have a good many. I do not understand the baking trade properly, it is a principle there only to get half a day in the early

Mr. James Ferguson.

20 Jan. 1908.

Extent of unemployment in Glasgow.

Number of uninhabited houses in Glasgow. Preference for flats.

State of chemical business in Glasgow.

State of coal trade.

Scottish miners displaced by aliens.

Weekly number of emigrants from Clyde ports in 1907. Character of emigrants.

Applications by bakers to Distress Committee. System in baking trade.

Mr. James morning. They make as much perhaps in two or three
Ferguson. mornings as keeps them. I do not know whether it is
the machinery which has caused that state of affairs or
not.

20 Jan. 1908.

Inspection of 90338. Are the bakehouses in Glasgow inspected?—
bakehouses They are under inspection.
in Glasgow.

90339. You think that the irregularity of employment has
a detrimental effect?—It must have. In fact, as to some
of the bakers appearing before the distress committee,
no baker would take them in those clothes; they are
so dirty; in fact, you would not take them for bakers
at all.

Bakers' 90340. What do these people, who get an occasional
"call-house" half-day, live on the rest of the week?—They have a
call house, they sit there most of the week. When an
employer wants an extra hand, he sends along to the
call house.

90341. Would that be a public house?—No, it is a
sort of private hall they have; they call it a call house.

90342. A labour bureau?—Yes, of their own.

90343. A voluntary one?—Yes.

90344. There they sit and wait for employment?—
Yes, if they want to find employment. There is always
the demand there if there are any men wanted.

Barbers' 90345. Does that sort of institution obtain in other
"call-house." industries?—The barbers have a similar place, that is
casual work. Barbers are taken on for a night or Satur-
day. They perhaps do nothing all the week, but they
sit there. I do not know what they do.

90346. There is an influx of people on Saturday who
require shaving and so forth?—Yes.

90347. You think the barbers may have some such
place?—They have such a place.

90348. Therefore there is always a large surplus of
labour in those two trades?—Yes.

Surplus 90349. Which can be called upon at any time?—Yes.
labour in That is the complaint from people applying; they have
baking and been sitting in the call house so many days, and have not
barbers' got a situation.
trades.

Alcoholism 90350. Do you think that drunkenness is particularly
common among in those trades?—Quite. Not so much in the
bakers and barbers as in the bakers.

to a less 90351. Do you think that is due to the conditions under
extent among which they work or the irregularity of their employ-
barbers. ment?—I think it is entirely their own doing; I think
that a master is as pleased to get a good baker as to get
rid of a bad one, and an employer would keep a good
man on even although he has not work for him.

90352. Most of these casual people are people who have
lost their regular work?—Yes.

Emigration 90353. There has been some emigration has there not
by Glasgow by the distress committee from Glasgow?—Yes. On
Distress February 1st, 1907, the Glasgow Distress Committee
Committee unanimously resolved to emigrate unemployed persons
in conjunc- under Sec. 1 (5) of the Act, such emigration to be carried
tion with out with the assistance of the Salvation Army. The Army
Salvation undertook to find work for them, keep in touch with them,
Army. and from time to time collect repayments of moneys
advanced, which sums after a deduction of 10 per cent.
for collecting, etc., were to be remitted to the distress
committee here. Thirty-one men with families who were
sent to Canada should have been reported, but we have
received no remittances yet from the Salvation Army.

Failure of 90354. What does the Salvation Army report? Have
emigrants to you asked their agent for any report?—We asked
repay loans. them to give a report. The arrangement was, after
landing at the end of one month, 1 dollar per month was to
be remitted, and after two months, 2 dollars, and so on,
until the money was paid. We had a report from
Colonel Lamb of the Salvation Army Emigration Depart-
ment. This is a copy of the distress committee's minute :
"Colonel Lamb, of the Salvation Army Emigration
Department, writing under date, 27th ult.

Extract from Commissioner Coombs' Letter, 15th May, 1907.

"I wish to say, however, that we are having consider-
able trouble with the Glasgow Distress Committee cases;
they (the Distress Committee and Poor Law cases) are
the most ungrateful of all the people we get. The fact
of the matter is, the individuals who struggle to pay their
fare are always glad of anything that you do for them when
they get here, and the people who have their fare paid for
them and every attention given to them are the most
ungrateful, and cause us the most trouble."

90355. That is to say, they were unable practically to
give any report of the men?—In fact they did not hear.
We have several reports. For instance, Record No. 30 :
"This family was sent to Mr. Crookshanks, farmer, of
Beamsville, and on arrival discovered that Mr. Crook-
shanks had been compelled to engage help elsewhere and
unfortunately did not notify us to this effect, although we
make every provision in this respect. It appears that
Mr. Crookshanks secured another situation for this man
at 200 dollars per year, with free house and garden. This
was refused, and — brought his family to Toronto,
where we provided him with temporary accommodation
at the 'Newcomers Inn' and introduced him to the Canada
Shipbuilding Company, who promised to give him a
suitable situation. He is a boilermaker." Then Record
22 : "Reported at Halifax and booked through to
London, Ontario, on his own responsibility. He did not
ask our assistance in regard to employment. Will get
further particulars of this family." Then Record 17 :
"Reported at Halifax and booked through to Montreal
on his own responsibility. He did not ask our assistance
to find employment."

90356. Perhaps you will put those in as part of your
evidence?—I will give you a copy of the Glasgow Distress
Committee's Report. (Document handed in.) (See Appen-
dix No. II. (B).)

90357. The point I want to get at is this, the Salvation
Army lost sight of some of the people when they landed?
—They lost sight of them when they had money in their
possession to pay their fare to somewhere else.

90358. But when you examined them they presumably
had nothing?—We had to clothe them.

90359. They professed they had nothing?—Nothing
at all. The fares alone cost £928 15s., and we gave
£99 11s. 6d. for clothing, a total of over £1,000.

90360. When they were landed they were able to take
their ticket by train to the destination wherever they
wanted to go?—Yes.

90361. What is your test of eligibility for emigration :
do you expect people to find a certain amount of their
fare, or anything of that kind?—Nothing.

90362. What sort of ground does the committee demand
to show that the case is a good one for emigration?—
They come before the committee, and the report of the
inspector who investigates the case and the master's
report is reported, and it is only a question of whether
they should be emigrated or not.

90363. Do you emigrate single men?—In only two
cases we did, and they were sent with the consent of the
mothers.

90364. Were both successful?—We have not heard
from either of them.

90365. Is the committee going on emigrating people?
—We are compelled to record applications, but they are
simply brought before the committee, and they state :
"We shall refuse you, we are not carrying out emigra-
tion at this time of the year." We have had another
experience something similar to Canada. This is Balla-
chullish. There is a large contract going on there
in connection with aluminium works employing over
2,000 men. The clerk, two members of the distress
committee and myself made a visit to Kinloch
Leven, Ballachullish, where a large contract is being
carried out under the contractor, Sir John Jack-
son. Over 2,000 men are employed there. After an
interview with the manager, it was arranged to send from
twenty to thirty men there, but before this could be
carried out the contractor cancelled the arrangement,
explaining that they could not accept our men or any

Refusal of manager at Ballachullish to receive men from Glasgow Distress Committee.

men whose fares were paid to the place at which the contract was being executed, as they had found from experience that the men who had their fares paid were the most unsatisfactory class they had to deal with. If any man turned up there for work he would certainly be engaged, but it seemed that all who have arrived by train having their fares paid had no inclination for work." That is the letter sent by the manager.

Report as to Dundee men sent to Ballachulish. 90366. How do you account for that. I find in writing to the Lord Provost of Dundee they say that the Dundee men were very satisfactory and asked for another forty or fifty to be sent?—I do not understand that at all, because the manager at our interview said he had had already distress cases from Edinburgh and Leith, and had not one working the day we were there; they had all left.

90367. I am reading from his letter: "We are glad to say up to the present your men are the best unemployed we have had and if in the course of another week or ten days we find they are still going to be satisfactory, we will ask you to send us another forty or fifty." They did not send them back.

90368. (*Mr. Patten-MacDougall.*) None of your people went?—They would not take them. We had arranged with the shipping company to take them at a reduced rate, and the day before they sailed we had this letter. If they had liked to pay their own fare they would have taken them, but having regard to their experience of the men from Leith and Edinburgh they would not otherwise.

Experience of men from Distress Committee employed at standard rate of wages. 90369. I think a good many of those who came from Dundee and Edinburgh remained there and claimed relief from neighbouring parishes?—I have heard that is so, but we found them that day to a large extent, fifty or sixty, lying under trees sleeping after tramping perhaps from all parts of the country. There is another experiment I made three weeks ago. One of our Departments took fifteen men from our labour works and paid them the standard rate of pay, 24s. a week, but he has only four left now; they have all disappeared. I ascertained afterwards that the foreman had taken them back at the place where they were earning 12s., so I have sent for them to come before the committee to explain why they left 24s. a week and went back to 12s.

90370. (*Mr. Phelps.*) How do they explain that?—They are to explain it to a committee, and that committee sits to-day. It was only the other day this occurred. I am sorry I cannot give any information as to the reason they went back. They should not have been re-engaged without coming through the application class again.*

Number of members on Glasgow Distress Committee. 90371. (*Professor Smart.*) Your distress committee is a very large body?—Forty members, I think.

90372. And contains people of very different opinions, I think?—Very great.

90373. Some of very strong opinions?—Yes.

90374. Was no objection taken to you, a Poor Law official, being appointed as investigator?—Some of them did. I was not present at that meeting. Mr. Motion, the inspector, was, but I understand there was some objection.

90375. With regard to rents in Glasgow, rents are pretty cheap, are they not, compared to other towns?—Yes, compared to London, they really are.

90376. Could you give us any idea of typical rents?—From 8s. a month, or 2s. 6d. a week, to 12s.

90377. From 8s. a month?—From 2s. to 3s., and 3s. 6d. a week.

90378. A 2s. a week house would hold how many?—A single apartment that is, very often. Under the corporation a house of that description would be ticketed perhaps for two adults.

90379. What would corporation houses owned by the corporation, corresponding to these, cost?—They are much more expensive and more modern. That was in fact, one of the difficulties of erecting the houses. The City Improvement Trust pulled down a lot of cheap houses and built houses of a better class, and really the people who had been in those could not go back into them, and they had to go to localities where the rents were much cheaper.

* As to this the Witness subsequently sent the following note:—

In connection with Q. 90370 I find nothing was minuted, the subcommittee having come to an arrangement that no man was to be re-started at unemployed work until he re-applied and case submitted and passed by committee.

90380. Am I right in saying there is rather a large class of well-paid people who consider 12s. a good rent—a great many men who could afford to pay more; is it true that the difference between a good house and a slum house is about 6d. a week in Glasgow?—6d. or 1s. a week. *Mr. James Ferguson.* 20 Jan. 1908.

90381. Your investigations are very thorough in Glasgow, I think?—Yes, all applications are first recorded at the Charity Organisation Society office, and the district police office; then the schedules are all sent on to me and enquiries are made as to the ability to assist, and also the certificate of the employer. *Method of investigating applications by Distress Committee.*

90382. The assumption is you make use of your experience to investigate these cases?—Certainly; every application is compared with the parish record, the indices.

90383. Then, with regard to these Poles, did you ever consult a coal master as to the position of Poles in the mines?—No. *Position of Poles in Scottish mines.*

90384. Did you never hear of these Poles taking jobs that a Scotsman would not willingly take?—I never have.

90385. You never have heard that they are quite glad to take the most unpleasant jobs, such as lying in water half a day, and so on?—I never heard that.

90386. Did you ever hear of any jealousy between Scottish miners and Poles in the same mine?—No, because I have never been in the locality.

90387. It is quite a possible explanation that the Poles have taken jobs that a Scotsman does not like to take?—That may be, only I have never heard it before. *Willingness of Poles to take objectionable jobs.*

90388. You would not be astonished if what I said was on the authority of one of the leading employers of Poles in Scotland?—I know the trade that refers to, a very unhealthy trade; it is a pipe foundry, and the atmosphere is very thick.

90389. That is where the Poles work?—That is one of the places.

90390. Now, with regard to labour colonies, the first description of labour colony you spoke of is one for unemployed tradesmen. With what view would you take an unemployed tradesmen out to a labour colony?—I would take him out to a labour colony to work at his own trade, if possible. *Labour colony for respectable tradesmen.*

90391. You cannot give him that?—No, that is the only drawback there is, the Trade Council object. You might arrange with the Trade Council to forego that strict rule of paying the standard rate of wages. I know that is a difficulty. I know we offered painters a larger sum than they really were getting for digging, but they could not take it unless we paid them the standard rate of wages. *Attitude of council as to employment at less than standard wages.*

90392. At present all you can say for a labour colony is that it affords a healthy method of temporary work, but it provides nothing for the future of the men?—Nothing.

90393. Have you ever thought at all that these men might come to something in agriculture after they leave you?—A man would have to put his mind down to the like of that.

90394. The training you are going to give him at Palacerigg is not a thorough training?—I do not think it is. My personal opinion is that it is a cold and bleak place. *Character of Palacerigg farm colony, number of men working.*

90395. The work there is mostly digging?—We have 200 men working out there now the pressure has come upon us, and we are taking them out there for trenching and draining purposes now.

90396. Most of them will be employed in that?—Yes, just now.

90397. Was there not some strong speaking against that colony, as being very unsuitable for a labour colony?—Yes.

90398. On what ground?—It was on account of the cold nature of the climate. It was said that they had a six months' winter there, and it was not suitable at all.

Mr. James
Ferguson.

20 Jan. 1908.

Farm
colonies at
Hollesley
Bay and
Palacerigg
compared.

Cause of
difficulty in
obtaining
land for
farm colony.

Wages and
working
hours on
relief works
compared
with stan-
dard wages
and hours.

Certified
wage in
iron works.

Refusals to
subscribe to
Relief
Committee.

Certified
wages for
week of 54
hours.

Difficulty in
inducing
firms to
employ "un-
employed."

90399. Is it not rather a common statement in Glasgow that a man who comes from Cumbernauld always has a cold in his head?—That is so.

90400. You have not been to Hollesley Bay?—No.

90401. You have heard of it, of course?—That is so.

90402. Can you think of a greater contrast in farming ground than between Hollesley Bay and Palacerigg?—I have seen a Report and some photographs of different parts of the ground, and I should think it is a different place altogether from ours.

90403. On the other hand, was there not some difficulty in getting land at all in Scotland?—Yes.

90404. Why was that?—One thing was, as soon as a public body went in search of ground of that description it went up in the market. We tried to get it done privately through a large firm, but it got out who were the parties wanting it.

90405. Was there not a great objection to the nature of the work? Whenever it was found out that the land was wanted for a distress farm, the land owners refused to let you have it?—Yes.

90406. You make a comparison in your statement between 15s. a week and forty-four hours, and 16s. 10d. and fifty-four hours. That shows a balance rather in favour of the unemployed workman, does it not?—That is what I was afraid of, that our men did not start till eight o'clock in the morning, and finished at four, and twelve o'clock on Saturday, whereas the other man was working from six in the morning till half-past five at night.

90407. Do you think that had any effect in attracting men from private work?—We had one or two cases before us, where they would rather work with the unemployed than be employed.

90408. Were there two cases of men giving up employment in the Cleansing Department, who applied to you the next day?—Yes.

90409. 16s. 10d. is a very low wage?—That really is the certified wage in some of the ironworks. It is 15s. 10d. very often.

90410. In Glasgow ironworks?—Yes.

90411. Or foundries?—Foundries or ironworks 15s. 10d. After the Meeting called by the Lord Provost, some Glasgow gentlemen told him that they refused to subscribe to this public fund, because they heard that some of the likely recipients were earning over £3 or £4 a week, and they certainly would not give a subscription to help men of that description. He asked me if I could help him in the difficulty, and I did so. I had 350 circulars returned within the last four weeks, and I averaged the statement of the wages taken from the circulars, and it did not bear out what the gentlemen said to the Lord Provost. The certified wages of forty-seven were from 10s. to 15s.; of 138, from 15s. to 20s.; of thirty-eight, from 20s. to 22s.; of forty-six, from 22s. to 25s.; of forty-seven, from 25s. to 30s.; of thirty-two, from 35s. to 40s.; and two were certified over 40s. That is 185 who had from 10s. to 20s. a week.

90412. Those wages are certified by the employers?—Yes.

90413. (Mr. Lansbury.) For a full week's work, is that?—Yes.

90414. Have you any information of the number of hours?—All fifty-four.

90415. (Professor Smart.) I gather that you never tried to get any work for these men, from private employers?—Nothing, except that the Lord Provost, the first year of the distress committee, issued a circular to the large employers of labour, the principal Railway Companies, Factories, and Shipbuilding Yards, but only two replies were received to that circular, only two even took any notice of it.

90416. You do not personally make approaches to the employers to get your men taken on?—None.

90417. Is not the reason that you could not recommend them as worth the wage?—I do not say that. I am inclined to recommend them and give them a chance of failing.

90418. What is your impression of these men as a whole?—Really there are a large number appear before the committee that you could not blame a foreman for not taking them on; they do not show any life; they have their hands in their pockets, and they seem to be down in the world somehow.

90419. As regards emigration, is it not also the fact that very few of the men who presented themselves were good enough to be emigrated?—We only emigrated those who according to the circulars were certified as really good tradesmen, and were discharged through dull trade. We did not emigrate any who were dismissed.

90420. But very few of your men were good enough to conscientiously send to Canada?—Yes, it was considered so by some of the committee, and some were voted on whether they should be sent or not.

90421. Supposing you had a friend, a thoroughly good workman out of work through no fault of his own, would you send him to the distress committee?—No, because I have no work for him; if I had work for him I certainly would.

90422. The kind of work you give from a distress committee is not such as would appeal to you?—Yes.

90423. And the association is very bad?—Yes.

90424. You know some of the men personally?—I do.

90425. Some of their habits are very bad?—Yes.

90426. Some of the men are very disreputable?—Yes.

90427. Is not Singers' almost a sort of gauge of the prosperity of Glasgow?—It is so, it is one of the largest works we have.

90428. It is not connected with the iron trade?—I do not know to what extent it is; I think they make some small boilers and tubes.

90429. It is not dependent on the iron trade?—No.

90430. Or on shipbuilding?—No.

90431. Or on building?—No.

90432. It is a great industry, making a commodity of general use?—Yes.

90433. So that if orders fall off to the extent of causing the dismissal of 2,000 workmen, it shows there is something very far wrong with the employment of the country?—Absolutely, there is not the least doubt about it.

90434. (Mr. Bentham.) With regard to your Paragraph 2, I think you give one to understand that the improvident class is on the increase, that is those who earn good wages, from 20s. to 40s. a week, and live in cheap houses, who make no provision for sickness, etc. Do you think that class is on the increase?—Certainly it is.

90435. Does your experience as a Poor Law official, and as Investigator of the distress committee, lead you to that view?—Yes, sitting on relief from day to day, it is surprising the number of men who have been earning good pay, but have never joined a friendly society. I do not say a man with 15s. or 20s. a week and a young family is able to do so, but I think when a man has 35s. to 40s. a week he might spend 5d. a week for a friendly society.

90436. To what do you attribute this falling off in the habits of the people?—I think it is the parish council being too liberal; one gets to hear of the other. Take two cases on the same stair-head: I am a member of a friendly society, I pay 5d. a week, and I keep myself. The next-door neighbour has perhaps had 5s. or 6s. a week more than I have; he joins no friendly society. Both of us become sick, I get from my society 10s. a week; the man next door goes to the parish and gets 12s. and 15s. a week. I say what is the use of my joining a friendly society when this man is getting more money from relief, than I do from a friendly society?

Character of applicants to Distress Committee.

Class of men assisted to emigrate.

Position of Singers' Machine Co. in relation of Glasgow.

Increased lack of thrift among earners of good wages.

Neglect to join friendly societies.

Effect of lavish relief on membership of friendly societies.

90437. It is really the lax administration of the Poor Law which has a great deal to do with it?—Certainly it is. I think I suggest that where it is represented that a man has been earning a good wage for several years back and where he could have been a member of such a society we should withhold relief.

90438. I thought it was the policy of the Glasgow Board not to give out-door alimnt to any people who have been improvident?—But they are changing at present.

90439. (*Chairman.*) Since when has there been a change?—Since the Parish Council Act came in. As to the number of females on the weekly roll or in receipt of interim relief whose husbands are in hospital, poorhouse, or asylum, we have had 184 receive out-relief from 3s. a week up to 16s.:—One had 16s.; five, 15s.; five, 14s.; one, 12s. 6d.; thirty, 12s.; thirty-eight, 10s.; thirteen, 9s.; twenty, 8s.; two, 7s. 6d.; ten, 7s.; thirty-one, 6s.; twenty-two, 5s.; three, 4s.; and three, 3s. a week; while their husbands are being kept inside. They receive outdoor relief to that extent.

90440. (*Mr. Bentham.*) We should know really the size of the family?—The allowance is according to the size of the family. We have had people getting 3s. a week; that is just the woman alone. I have three at 3s., and five at 15s.; it is according to the number of dependent. That family with 16s. may have four or five children, perhaps six.

90441. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) How many of those would be men who when at work would be earning 30s. or 35s. a week?—A considerable number. I have a few typical cases here. There is: "G. N., 59, carpenter, earning 38s., paid a rent of £9 10s. per year." Then here is another young man, forty-two years of age, single, a fireman. He admitted earning a wage of 5s. a day, "No society and no benefit society, admitted to the parish hospital." Here is a case which came before us the other day of providence: a man, forty-four years of age, a labourer with five children aged eleven, ten, eight, five, and three: "Says he earned 24s. a week: he was a member of the Oddfellows Society and in receipt of 9s. a week, paid a rent of £9 19s. a year." There you have a man who had 24s. a week and paid into the Oddfellows Society against a man who had 38s. a week and was in no benefit society.

90442. It is one and one we have there?—I can give you some more. There are nine cases here of typical improvidence.

90443. At 35s. a week?—One man 34s., one 30s., another one 30s., one 34s., one 30s. a week, one 38s. a week, all chargeable to us, and the wives on the outdoor roll; they could have been members of a friendly society; that is what I referred to as improvidence.

90444. (*Mr. Bentham.*) If an adequate amount of outdoor relief in cases of this kind leads people to rely on it in times of want, would the same tendency obtain with the provision of employment in times when men are out of work, whether it was under the parish council or any other body; would it not be an additional inducement to men not to provide against these contingencies?—I do not think with the decent out of work man it would have any effect at all. We have a certain class of tradesmen, very respectable tradesmen, who would empty their houses of furniture before coming to a public body.

90445. In actual practice is it possible to confine the operation of the Act to that decent deserving class you were just now describing?—I do not think you can. You must take every class on its own merits, if I understand your question aright.

90446. You do not think in practice you could possibly get a committee that would so discriminate as to whom they would give the relief?—I am afraid not.

90447. For instance, take the wording of the regulation work "that the applicant is honestly desirous of obtaining but is temporarily unable to do so from exceptional causes over which he has no control, and that his case is capable of more suitable treatment under the Act than under the Poor Law." If the Glasgow Distress

Committee could act strictly to the letter of that would there have been so many people searching for work?—That is the clause I have had some difficulty in meeting when I get up a case and say this man was discharged for drunkenness; he should not get work at all, he is not qualified under the Act, but the children are starving and they must not be allowed to starve, so the work is wages to given to all and sundry. In some cases we have been instructed to pay the money over to the wives and not to the husbands at all.

90448. That becomes not really employment for wages but relief to a family?—Yes, it is really relief, as I have stated.

90449. Your opinion is there would be very few if those were taken out entirely?—Yes, there would be very few remain.

90450. A very small proportion of those would have been employed if you had stood strictly to the letter of the law?—The word "may" was brought in there. It is left optional, "may give relief to" so-and-so, and that word, of course, gives a great deal of discretionary power to grant or refuse work. The children always come in; we must look after the children.

90451. If a body such as either a distress committee or a parish council are so loose in their election of suitable cases, what sort of body do you hope to be able to carry out the Act with proper discrimination?—I do not know where you would get it of men of all one mind. Every one has his own opinion; whether you would put it under the Local Government Board to have a more uniform principle in dealing with relief. I find from year to year in our council and from day to day we have differences. We have a new council now which has a different opinion from the last with regard to granting relief. One day you have a member granting indoor relief only to a certain class, and another day giving outdoor relief to all and sundry. I have tried to persuade them you cannot make fish of one and flesh of another; it entirely depends on the class of councillor that is sitting.

90452. Even as to your own remedy which you suggest, of selecting certain cases for a labour colony, there would be a difficulty in selecting the proper cases to send, would there not, for the same reason you have mentioned?—I do not know, if a decent respectable man comes before a committee for work and there is nothing against him, I do not think there should be any doubt about giving that man work at the colony. It is rather, perhaps, where a man has made a mistake, and is discharged from his work. It may have been a mistake; but one member will say: He is not entitled to work because he has been discharged from his work. Another member will say: He has only made one mistake, we must give him a chance. If he is out of work through no fault of his own then there should be no question in giving the man work on the labour colony.

90453. The danger is in treating other cases, which should not be treated, in the same way?—I am afraid there would be some difficulty in getting a committee to see eye to eye with each other.

90454. I see you have some little hope of a labour colony for the chronic unemployed, and you suggest they might earn sufficient to hand the earnings over to the family. Do you look forward to the Glasgow colony ever being in a position to have a surplus of earnings from the men who are there?—It is not so much return from the outlay; but I have had the wives of men employed at the relief work stating that they do not get all the money from the husband at the end of the week. They come home a shilling or two short of their pay. By sending these men to the colony we could pay the money over to the wives, either at their homes or by calling; and then they would get the full benefit of that.

90455. What money?—It was suggested just now to allow the wives and families 12s. a week whilst the husband is kept and boarded at Palacerigg. The wife is to get the maximum sum of 12s. a week. I would do that with the chronic unemployed, send them out and make them work from one week's end to the other; and let us give his family their support. We cannot take him away and leave them starving.

Mr. James
Ferguson.

20 Jan. 1908.

Payment of
relief work
wages to
wives of
unemployed.

Difficulty in
securing
uniform
administration
on
parish
council.

Difficulty in
obtaining
fair selection
of cases to be
sent to
labour colony
by Distress
Committee.

Proposal to
hand over to
wives earnings
of
chronic
unemployed
at labour
colony.

Mr. James
Ferguson.

20 Jan. 1908.

90456. I thought you were suggesting that they earned this money on the colony?—Indirectly they would be earning. In the meantime we send them out there though they may be only earning 10s. a week.

90457. It would be more correct to say that the relief given is relief to the family?—That is what I refer to. We cannot take a man away from his wife and place him on a labour colony and leave the children starving.

90458. The man is to be sent to the labour colony and the family relieved?—Yes.

Diminished
chances of
employment
in Scotland
than
formerly.

90459. Do you agree with the previous witness that men have less chance of employment to-day in Scotland than formerly, that is, taking a competent able-bodied man to-day against a competent man of thirty or forty years ago, that there is less chance of permanent employment to-day than then?—Yes, there is less chance.

Effect of
introduction
of machinery
on unemploy-
ment.

90460. That there are more men to fill the posts that are vacant?—There are more applying, they can do the work quicker and do it with less men. I think I refer in my statement to a large steamer coming into the Clyde, which used to take two or three days to empty, now that can be done in two or three hours by hydraulic lifts and two or three cranes working at each hold. When men are working unloading a ship they are only employed for some forty-eight hours now instead of a week.

90461. But you have more ships now?—Yes, but there is always a big crowd coming into Glasgow to meet it.

90462. (Mr. Lansbury.) There are more people?—Yes. No matter what time you get down to the docks you will find fifty men standing here and fifty standing there; they might get employment that night by one ship coming in. We had a man apprehended for wife desertion the other day at the quay, a man who could command £3 or £4 a week nearly, a moulder, but he had come down to that; he would do nothing for his wife and family. After some difficulty we discovered him working on the quay under an assumed name, and it was then stated that there were a great many working at the quay for the purpose of receiving their money every night. In constant work they only receive their pay once a week; here they work and are paid, and they are always in funds; they can get a drink every night. They only get it once a week in permanent employ.

Daily wage
at docks
a great
attraction to
certain class
of men.

90463. There is a temporary depression now, is there not?—This is really a very slack time,

Position of
workmen at
present time
compared
with 30 or 40
years ago.

90464. My question was not intended to apply to thirty or forty years ago compared with probably to-day in a time of depression. I mean, taken generally, is there less chance of a man being employed a sufficient number of weeks in the year to provide for all his wants in the year than there was thirty or forty years ago?—In certain classes there is less; they are handicapped in finding work.

90465. Is that taking the skilled classes?—I thought you meant the unskilled.

Position of
skilled labour
affected by
introduction
of machinery

90466. Take first of all the skilled labourer, how is he compared with thirty or forty years ago; has he as good a chance as he had then?—No, I do not think so. My reason for saying so is this: I know for a fact in a large engineer's shop where there was shafting direct from the foundry it would take a couple of men a week to finish it, but that can be dressed up now in a matter of a day. It is manufactured and brought into these large engineers' shops, Belgian and German iron, and one man can dress it up in a day or two, where formerly it took three or four men. There was no such thing as that thirty or forty years ago.

90467. That is scarcely a sufficient answer, because there would be other movements in other directions?—It is certainly displacing men in that respect; if there are a few places like that in Scotland, then the number will increase.

90468. Is that what leads you to believe that provision should now be made for the able-bodied by the public authorities in Scotland?—I would not say that. I would say when it is really required, it is not when trade is good.

Need of
provision for
dealing with
able-bodied
unemployed
in periods of
depressed
trade.

I do not see any occasion for it now, but it is well to have machinery, with experience. Since 1904, the idea has been that we have been tinkering with the unemployed. We are no further forward. I should like to see some scheme that would start at once, where there would be colonies like this in Glasgow.

90469. I want to know why in the past Scotland has not considered it necessary to make any provision whatever for able-bodied persons; it is only within recent time that that cry has gained ground, and what is the cause of the alteration? is it the conditions of employment, or is it the feelings of the people?—The change is somewhere; I can hardly explain how it has entirely changed, but during my experience we never thought of giving an able-bodied man relief, we had not the least compunction in giving a man a refusal right away, but now we consider all the circumstances of the case before we give such a refusal.

90470. Did it create any hardship? How did these people get on?—On the surface we did not experience anything; they got on. How, no one knows, but they managed until a few years ago.

90471. Is a good deal of it due to the softening of people towards people who are in want now?—No doubt the Unemployed Workmen Act has brought to the surface a good many cases that we, perhaps, never heard of. We advertise, and have posted bills in the streets saying where applications can be made.

90472. (Mr. Lansbury.) How many people are there getting relief outside? That is, wives of men who are getting treatment inside because they are sick, out of your whole number of people?—We have a total number of indoor poor and outdoor poor of 9,981, and the proportions are: on the outdoor roll 3,938, and indoor, 4,058. That is, of course, excluding lunatics.

90473. What I want to get at is the number of men who are getting relief inside, and their wives and families getting relief outside, that would be out of the bottom figure, 4,058. How many of those would be the wives and dependants of the able-bodied men who are sick and getting relief inside?—How many should have been in friendly societies?

90474. Not particularly that. I want to get the total. I want to see, if we take it for granted they are all people who ought to be in friendly societies, what number there are?—One hundred and eighty four.

90475. One hundred and eighty-four out of 4,058?—That is, receiving parish relief; that is the number of families chargeable whose husbands are in hospital out of the total of 4,058.

90476. Would it be very much trouble for you to put us in a return giving us the trades and wages of all those men?—I will certainly do so. (See Appendix No. II. (C).)

90477. (Chairman.) I suppose you could get accurate information?—Yes, we would get the wages certified from the employers.

90478. (Mr. Lansbury.) It would be as reliable one way as the other?—These are really good solid householders, and we can perfectly well get the employers to certify, that is to say, if they were in regular employment prior to the application.

90479. Will you put in the statement what was their condition when they came in?—Yes. (See Appendix No. II. (D).)

90480. There is a good deal of difficulty, I gathered from your answer to Mr. Bentham and other Commissioners, in getting the distress committee and the parish council committee to deal judiciously with all the cases—that is to say, treat them all alike. Would you be in favour of taking the whole business of the able-bodied relief, either by finding employment or in any other way giving relief to able-bodied when out of work, away from the local authorities altogether and giving it to a central authority to undertake?—I would be inclined to give it to some central authority. What it would be composed of, I do not know. It is not only the town council, it is the co-opted members of the parish and town councils

Effect of
Unemployed
Act in
bringing to
light cases
of want
previously
unheard of.

Total number
of indoor and
outdoor
paupers in
Glasgow.

Number of
families
chargeable
where hus-
band is in
a hospital.

Position of
men in
hospital
whose fami-
lies are
chargeable.

Difficulty in
securing
uniform
treatment
of all cases
by parish
council and
Distress
Committee.

as well who differ as to whether a party should get work or not. I do not know where we would get a body of men perhaps who could see eye to eye with me, but if a committee like to take a different view of my report, then it is the committee's responsibility.

90481. At present we are spending a great deal of money, we are making elaborate investigations, and at the finish of those investigations, those reports may all be upset because the committee either are not willing or are too ignorant to act as they should act. What I want to ask is, do you think under present circumstances it is possible to get a committee to do the right thing?—I do not think it.

90482. Therefore you would be in favour of not merely abolishing the distress committee for this particular class, but abolishing the parish council too, so far as the able-bodied are concerned, and handing the whole business over to a central authority to administer?—That would clear up my feeling against the word pauperism; that is, to have the parish council and the distress committee under one head.

90483. I do not mean an elected central authority, but an authority set up as the Local Government Board or the Board of Trade and have a department to administer the whole thing?—I would be in favour of that.

90484. (*Chairman.*) You have a committee of one in Glasgow on the Poor Law?—Yes, we have daily sittings composed of one member.

90485. Is there as much divergence of opinion when you have a committee of one as when you had a big committee?—We have two members summoned each morning. We have two committee rooms, but the member sitting in one committee room may be giving a decision quite opposite, on the same footing, to the other next door.

90486. That not infrequently happens?—Quite.

90487. Then I suppose there is an appeal to the appeal committee to have it settled?—We have an appeal. The applicant, the inspector or a member of the council has a right to appeal against the sitting member. That comes up once a month or once in three weeks.

Mr. JOHN MALLOCH, called; and Examined.

90498. (*Chairman.*) You are the Clerk to the Harbour Trust of Dundee?—I am.

90499. You have prepared a very interesting Statement, which, if you will kindly hand it in, we will treat as your Evidence-in-Chief. (*The Witness handed in the following Statement.*)

CONDITIONS OF DOCK LABOUR AT DUNDEE HARBOUR.

1. The conditions of dock labour at Dundee harbour are peculiar to the port, but the work is carried on without the slightest friction among the different bodies of labourers. Differing from many other ports, the busiest season at Dundee harbour is the winter season, when, generally speaking, trade is not brisk throughout the country. This, to some extent, affords relief to what may be termed casual labour, and reduces the number of unemployed men in the city.

2. As may be known to the Commission, Dundee is the chief centre of the jute spinning and manufacturing industry, which employs many thousands of workers, chiefly of the female class. The raw jute is imported from Calcutta and Chittagong by steamers direct to Dundee harbour, and arrives between September and April each year. These vessels bring cargoes ranging from 4,000 to 10,000 tons. As usually the old supplies are pretty well exhausted by the time the new crop begins to arrive, merchants and shipowners put forth very special efforts to have quick discharge and transference of the jute to warehouses. The result is to bring about suddenly an increased demand for dock labour. Very soon all casual labourers about the harbour are engaged, while, as the importations go on, many men who have been thrown out of work either by reason of bad trade, or wet weather conditions, or from other causes, come to

90488. The upshot, as I understand it, is that as a rule the inspector's opinions are upheld?—He brings the appeals. He has the right to bring any case forward.

90489. Is his opinion upheld?—Not very often.

90490. It is given against him?—Yes.

90491. (*Mr. Patten-MacDougall.*) Do you agree with the witness who told us that you very seldom have sailors or seafaring men apply for relief?—I have not had a sailor applying for work. We have had sailors come to us through, perhaps, getting the worse for drink and losing their money.

90492. Have you any explanation of that?—Yes, one is surprised that we have not a sailor; a sailor seems to be taken on at once. Since the introduction of telephones, the telephone people prefer sailors for erecting the tall poles, and the fire brigades also prefer seamen.

90493. There is not the same dearth of employment for sailors?—Not the same.

90494. They are able to suit themselves to other jobs?—Yes, I am told that a sailor who wants to leave the sea, has no difficulty in getting work either with the Fire Brigade or the Telephone Company.

90495. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) I understood you said you would abolish the parish council and distress committee from having anything to do with finding the men work?—Yes.

90496. (*Miss Hill.*) Do we gather to whom you would entrust it, if you did abolish the distress committee?—I do not know whom you would entrust it to.

90497. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) I put it, to a Department similar either to the Local Government Board, or the Board of Trade?—The difficulty we have in Glasgow is one committee feeding the children, one clothing the children, one sending them away to the country, and another giving parish relief, all overlapping each other, and the medical relief and so on, overlapping. I would rather see one head, so that it is all under one department.

the harbour and get employment. These men represent practically all classes of workmen, and amongst them are artisans, although they are chiefly composed of men belonging to the labouring classes, who, but for this special demand, would probably continue among the ranks of the unemployed. Not only in the discharge of jute cargoes are large extra staffs engaged, but the importation of jute brings about a considerable increase in the number of men engaged in other branches of work, for instance, special staffs have to be got for checking and weighing the jute as it is discharged, and for the supervision of its removal from the dock sheds. Then the carting contractors, including railway contractors, make large additions to the number of their employees, and during the busy season a great many extra horse-drawn vehicles are pressed into the service. For the post of checking and weighing the jute, men of fair intelligence are required, and generally these are recruited from the ranks of unemployed clerks and tradesmen who have fallen on unfortunate times. The additions to those engaged for carting purposes are largely made up of the young casual labouring classes. All this work, it should be borne in mind, is in addition to the regular traffic at the harbour, in the conduct of which considerable permanent staffs of men are employed.

3. For a number of years there has been no branch of the Dockers' Union in Dundee. Again and again attempts have been made to form such a union, but the success which attended the efforts was very short-lived. These attempts were invariably made when some special questions were affecting unionists at other ports, and when it was desired that men at Dundee docks should, by forming a local branch of the union, support their comrades elsewhere. As there has not been for a long time any serious question between dock labourers and their

Mr. James Ferguson.

20 Jan. 1908.

Absence of applications from sailors to Distress Committee, reason suggested.

Transfer of relief to able-bodied unemployed to a statutory central authority proposed.

Administration of all forms of relief by one authority desirable.

Mr. John Malloch.

20 Jan. 1908.

Considerable employment in connection with jute industry beyond unloading cargoes.

Class supply-ing checkers and weighers of jute.

Absence of branch dockers' union in Dundee.

Mr. John Malloch.

20 Jan. 1908.

Agitation by Dundee casual dock labourers for increased pay reduction of hours, etc.

Free labour bureau at Dundee docks. Object and success of bureau.

employers at the port of Dundee, it has apparently never seemed to the men to be necessary to continue members of the union. It may be stated, however, that between three and four years ago the casual labourers, acting it was understood with the consent of the General Union of Dockers, put forward claims for increased rates of pay, reduction of hours of labour, and other conditions, which stevedores, shipowners, merchants, and others held to be unwarranted, and declined to entertain.

4. The men, while seemingly determined to force their demands, had eventually to give way, and the state of matters continued pretty much as before. Shipowners and merchants, however, regarded this as a warning that the then condition of things was anything but satisfactory, and, after meetings and consultations, they decided to establish, in conjunction with the Shipping Federation, Limited, a Free Labour Bureau for labour at the docks. This bureau was started, and has been fairly successful. Its aim is stated to be "to promote freedom of contract between employer and employee, not to interfere in the question of wages, and with no desire to come into conflict with the men's unions, so long as the unions confine themselves to their proper sphere, and do not interfere with non-unionists and freedom of employment."

THE DIFFERENT BODIES ENGAGED IN DOCK LABOUR AT DUNDEE.

The Harbour Porters.

Harbour porters' benefit society—conditions of admission. Privileges of harbour porters.

5. This is a Registered Benefit Society composed of eighty men. Admission to the society is very difficult. Applicants are required to lodge a sum of money, and must be of good character, and physically strong and active. They are generally men who have been brought up to an outdoor country life, and capable of heavy and long-continued work. These men have special privileges over and above the ordinary or casual dock labourer. They are recognised by the Dundee Harbour Trustees, who, on the application of their society, grant each man a licence to act as a porter, and also as a weigher and measurer of goods, the latter licence being certified by a Justice of the Peace. These men are constantly engaged in dealing with many of the regular trading vessels.

Reliance of merchants on harbour porters.

6. They manage their affairs themselves, make their engagements, carry out their work, collect their charges and distribute the money. Though the Harbour Trustees retain the power to supervise and regulate their work, yet these powers have never been exercised, and the Trustees do not think it prudent that they should be put in operation. So reliable are these porters considered, that merchants prefer one or more of them to be present at the loading or discharging of every jute vessel, since from their standing and reputation their word is readily accepted in any dispute.

Casual labour engaged by harbour porters.

7. Of course, this regular staff is often not sufficient to cope with all the work they are asked to undertake, and when this is so they engage and pay casual labourers, whom, however, they carefully supervise. The porters earn very good wages, and have more extra time than any other class of dock labourers. They pay their casual labourers at the rates current at the docks for the time being.

Free Labour Bureau—Stevedores—Contractors.

Number of dock labourers who have signed the "free labour pledge." Number of labourers employed at Dundee docks.

Number of engagements in 1907 at free labour bureau.

8. In connection with the Free Labour Bureau there are between 1,000 and 1,100 dock labourers who have signed the free labour pledge, which ensures their non-interference with non-unionists and freedom of employment. The total number of dock labourers employed during the busy winter season is from 700 to 800, while during the summer months the number is reduced to between 300 and 400.

9. At the office of the bureau intimations are posted of the expected arrivals of vessels, and the men on the outlook for work attend at the dock when the vessel is berthed. Here the stevedore selects his men. Last year there were 76,848 engagements, an increase of over 13,000 on the previous year.

HOURS OF LABOUR AND RATES OF WAGES.

10. The hours of labour are, from March to October, both inclusive, 6 a.m. to 6 p.m., with two hours off for labour at meals; and from November to February, both inclusive, 8 a.m. to 4 p.m., with one hour off for dinner. On regular trading vessels the hours are 6 a.m. to 6 p.m., with two hours off for meals, all the year round, but in the case of such vessels there is a good deal of extra work caused by the desire for quick despatch and late sailings. On jute steamers the hours of labour are, during the winter months, 8 a.m. to 4 p.m., from daylight to dark; after the latter hour merchants decline to warehouse jute, because of the want of artificial light in these buildings.

11. The rates of wages paid are, on regular traders, 7d. Rates of per hour, and 10½d. per hour for overtime. On jute wages at steamers and vessels from the Baltic the rates are 8d. per hour, and 1s. per hour for overtime; while on jute steamers during the winter months the rates are 9d. per hour, and 1s. 1½d. per hour for overtime. Where special work is concerned, 1d. extra per hour is paid.

12. The men are engaged alongside the vessels, the Mode of stevedores accepting whom they consider best fitted for engagement the work.

13. They are paid at the end of each day, many of them Daily pay-being in so straitened circumstances that money has to ment of be advanced to enable them to get breakfast and dinner. wages. Unfortunately, a large proportion of the wages earned are Scurcity of mis-spent, the greater part of the earnings of many being employment spent on drink. Unless, as already stated, during the for dock labourers jute import season, work for the casual labourer is irregular outside jute season.

14. Regarding extra men employed by carting contrac- Wages of tors, it may be stated that their work is much the same as the labourers' and their rates of pay vary considerably, carting men. ranging from 10s. or 17s. to 22s.

SUPERINTENDENTS OF WEIGHING.

Jute and Flax.

15. When the busy season is at its height there are Duties and forty to fifty additional men engaged in checking and wages of weighing the delivery of cargoes. These men are em- superinten- ployed and paid by the Harbour Trustees, chiefly for the dents of purpose of shore dues accounts and for granting certificates weighing. of weights to merchants and others interested. They are paid at the rate of 7s. 6d. per working day, whether for ten hours in summer or seven hours in winter.

EXTENT OF UNEMPLOYMENT AT DUNDEE HARBOUR.

16. In view of the peculiar conditions at Dundee Har- Extent of bour it is hardly possible to give exactly the extent of unemploy- unemployment. The importation of the raw material for ment at the principal trade is a seasonal one, and no returns as to Dundee employment are available, but, generally speaking, there harbour difficult to are comparatively few unemployed men at the docks. If estimate. trade in the city is not brisk during the winter months then a larger number of men seeking employment appear at the docks; but if the trade in the city is good, the number of men who come in search of work is appreciably less, though at no time is there a want of sufficient hands to meet requirements.

17. Among what may be described *bona fide* dock Little priva- labourers there is, although work may sometimes be scarce, tion among the casual labourers include some of the *bona fide* class who really do not care whether they are fully em- labourers. ployed or not. In many cases they are married men, whose wives and children find regular employment in the mills and factories, and who really provide the household necessities. Improvidence and intemperance are unfor- Improvi- tunately very prevalent amongst the casual labourers tence and and the less constantly employed dockers. Though intemper- frequently money has to be advanced to the men to get ance preva- food while they are working, they somehow manage to run lent among up accounts for liquor which are paid either at the end of casual dock labourers. the day or at the end of the week.

18. If some drastic measures could be taken to prevent Prevention the publican giving credit, much good would result, because of credit though some men have no hesitation in allowing their giving by dependants to find for themselves, they somehow regard it publicans as dishonourable not to square their "score" with the desirable. publican.

19. Stevedores have again and again expressed the opinion that the system of daily pay is a bad one, and that instead men should be paid weekly and at fixed places at the docks. At Dundee there is a labourers' shelter provided and maintained by the Harbour Trustees, very centrally situated, and it would be no hardship for dock labourers to attend there for their weekly pay.

REMEDIES FOR UNEMPLOYMENT AT DUNDEE.

20. Among the remedies which have proved successful in dealing with dock labour in Dundee is the Free Labour Bureau. This bureau is run at a very small cost, which is contributed to by the Shipping Federation, shipowners, shipbrokers, and stevedores. Since it was opened there has been no friction or labour trouble. The wages have been maintained at a fair level, and no complaints have been made by the men of preference shown in engagements. In addition to dock labour, the bureau officials have, at the request of merchants in the country, sent out workers. Altogether the Free Labour Bureau seems to meet a want at Dundee, since it brings unemployed men to a common, and fully informed, centre in search of work. It may be urged that the same end would be attained by a branch of the Dockers' or Labourers' Union at the harbour, but, as has already been stated, dock labourers at Dundee do not seem to regard the union organisation with favour. It is difficult to explain the reason for this, but it may be found in the fact that the number of dockers is comparatively small, that they are a constantly changing body with no cohesion, and do not contain amongst themselves the elements of combination.

21. At Dundee the harbour porters have a benefit society by means of which members are assisted in times of sickness or distress. There are also several other staffs specially attached to regular shipping lines who also have provided arrangements by means of which they assist each other in times of illness; but the ordinary dock labourer has nothing to fall back upon in times of unemployment or distress, and, if married, he becomes entirely dependent on his wife and children, or has to make application to charitable societies or institutions. In this way the position of married labourers is not so bad, but the lot of the unmarried man is different.

22. It has been suggested more than once that the authorities of the Free Labour Bureau would be acting wisely, and in their own interests, as well as in the interests of the men, if they could see their way to assist the men on their books when out of work through sickness or otherwise. It is believed this could be accomplished if all those who employ labour at the docks would give a small annual subscription. For the benefit of the labourers, the Dundee Harbour Trust has provided free shelter and other accommodation for the use of the men.

23. The conditions at Dundee are in some respects similar to those which prevail at Liverpool. Here also the rate of wages paid is higher than that paid to the labourers in the city proper, because of the irregular character of the work. With regard to overtime, the rates of pay are particularly good. It is often urged that overtime should be restricted, and there is good ground for believing that it is restricted as far as possible, but to restrict it altogether would entail considerable loss by detention of vessels.

24. As to remedies for distress due to unemployment, it has already been recognised by the Dundee Harbour Trust that special work provided in times of distress has had a good effect. This is, however, more a matter for municipalities than for trust corporations to undertake, although, in times of great distress, if trust corporations of a semi-public character were approached by municipalities, the chances are that they would agree to give, by the provision of special works, what relief lay in their power.

90500. (Chairman.) At Dundee there are a number of harbour porters whose position is rather exceptional; are they heads of gangs?—No, they are a special body who have a specially organised society, and they have practically the pick of the whole of the work at the harbour. During the busy season, when they are unable to overtake all the work themselves, they engage extra men, who work under their supervision, and are paid at the usual rates of pay then prevailing.

90501. It is a close corporation, the members of which are always in permanent employ?—That is so.

Mr. John Malloch.

90502. They have a benefit society?—They have.

20 Jan. 1908.

90503. How do they keep their numbers so small? Harbour—They have, to some extent, a monopoly of the work, porters and they do not want to increase the number beyond a certain total. benefit society.

90504. Who admits to this society?—The members of the society themselves, by election.

90505. Take the Harbour Trust, supposing the Harbour Trust want to increase this particular class of employment, could they do so?—Yes, the Harbour Trust could. If they found that the necessities of the work of the Trust and harbour required it, they could say to this society: You must increase your numbers; but hitherto that has been unnecessary. Relations between Harbour Trust and porters.

90506. They are, I assume, an efficient body of men?—Quite efficient.

90507. Would they retire at any particular age?—They usually retire at about sixty-five. Retiring age for harbour porters.

90508. Your free labour bureau, I understand, is to promote freedom of contract between employers and employees, and not to interfere with the question of wages. You have no desire to come into conflict with the men's unions so long as they confine themselves to their proper sphere. It is a non-union bureau?—Yes. Object of free labour bureau.

90509. Is there a union body as well?—There is no dockers' union in Dundee. Absence of dockers' union in Dundee.

90510. Is there much surplus of dock labour in Dundee?—No.

90511. When times are bad have you not a considerable number of people coming down for employment?—When times are very bad we have, but it is usually in the winter season when times are bad in Dundee, and at that time the harbour is usually busy. We have at that season large importations of jute, and in consequence of that we are able to employ a very much larger number of dock labourers. Winter the busy time in Dundee Harbour.

90512. There being a free labour bureau, are the men engaged through the free labour bureau, or do they come on to stands at the docks?—The men come to the free labour bureau where they find out what ships are expected, when they are expected, and how many hands are likely to be employed. They then go to the dockside when the steamer comes in, and the stevedore engages them. Method of engaging dock labour.

90513. That is practically a bureau for all the shipping that comes into Dundee?—That is so.

90514. Does that give a certain organisation now to the dockers?—It does.

90515. There is no limit I suppose to the number of persons whose names are on the free labour bureau?—None whatever.

90516. The men are paid at the end of the day; I suppose they are taken on for half a day, or a whole day?—Half a day or a whole day as the work requires. Mode of paying dock labourers.

90517. You say many of them are in such straitened circumstances that money has to be advanced to get them breakfast and dinner. That seems as though there were a great many people who did not get regular employ?—They may not get regular employment, but they have probably squandered their money. These are the classes of men who have squandered their money in drink. Alcoholism and absence of thrift among dock labourers.

90518. One would assume that they had not been employed, but you meant to imply that they had wasted their money the day before?—Yes.

90519. By drinking and so on?—Yes.

90520. I suppose there is a good deal of drinking?—Yes, a good deal.

90521. Are many of these persons who come down elderly persons?—No, they are not elderly; they will not employ old men there.

- Mr. John Malloch.*
20 Jan. 1908.
- Nature of employment for old men at docks.
- Distinction between *bona fide* and casual dock labourers.
- Weekly payment of dock labourers proposed by stevedores.
- Objection to daily payment of dock labourers.
- Arrangements proposed in case of weekly payment of dock labourers.
- Sick benefit in connection with free labour bureau suggested.
- Average weekly employment of *bona fide* dock labourers.
- Wages of dock labourers.
90522. Do not the old men try to get employment?—Old men do try; and many of them are engaged as watchmen, for looking after stores and shelters, and things of that kind, but they are not employed in regular docker's work.
90523. You say: "Among what may be described as *bona fide* dock labourers there is, although work may sometimes be scarce, little privation. The casual labourers include some of the class who really do not care whether they are fully employed or not." You draw a distinction there, apparently, between the casual labourer and the *bona fide* docker?—Yes.
90524. We have been rather disposed to think they are convertible terms; but the casual labourer you allude to here is the fringe of persons outside the *bona fide* docker, who only would be taken on if there was not a *bona fide* docker there?—That is so.
90525. Have many proposals been made to your board for the purpose of giving greater permanence to the dock employ?—No; the board as a board does not employ any dock labour itself, and never has done, although under their Acts of Parliament they have power to employ dock labour if they so require.
90526. You say: "Stevedores have again and again expressed the opinion that the system of daily pay is a bad one, and that instead men should be paid weekly, and at fixed places at the docks"; that would imply, if they were paid weekly they must be engaged weekly, would it not?—Not necessarily.
90527. How could it otherwise be managed?—Dockers might have a pay-day at the end of every week, whereas now they are paid every day some of the men get drunk. The fact of the matter is that they drink most of their wages at the end of every day.
90528. What would the man do in the interval? Supposing he was engaged one day in the week he would have to wait five days for his money?—In the meantime he would get advances for his food.
90529. From whom?—From his employer. He would advance money for his food, probably.
90530. Could that be done?—Yes; it is done already.
90531. If that could be done there would be at the end of each week a correct record of the number of days each man had been employed?—Yes.
90532. Do you think there would be much difficulty in doing that?—I do not think there should be.
90533. There is a suggestion made that the free labour bureau should start some form of sick benefit?—Yes.
90534. It is suggested that those who employ labour should give a small annual subscription. Do you think that is feasible?—It is feasible. The difficulty would be in getting those interested in the free labour bureau to give such a subscription as would enable the bureau to give such a sick benefit as would be worth anything.
90535. Would not the free labour bureau be able by some system of stamps or otherwise to get something from the employees?—Yes, they might. If the free labour bureau were starting an idea of this kind to give sick benefit to men who are on their books I should think that the men themselves would very willingly subscribe.
90536. The men, I suppose, are paid independent of the bureau? The money does not go through the bureau?—No, the bureau has nothing to do with the pay of the men.
90537. What should you say, taking a *bona fide* dock labourer; have you ever made any estimate of how many days a week he would be employed in the whole year, what would be the average should you say?—Do you include the harbour porters in that?
90538. No, I meant of the men you term casual labourers, the *bona fide* dock labourer, would he get three days a week?—Yes, he gets quite three days a week.
90539. What does he get a day, about 5s.; it is 7d an hour is it not?—Yes.
90540. He would work at least eight hours a day, I suppose?—In the winter his hours are less, of course. He works ten hours in the summer and seven in the winter.
90541. That is 49d. in winter and 70d. in summer?—It depends very much on the work he is engaged in. For coaling steamers he gets 8d. and 9d. an hour in summer and in winter 9d. and 10d. per hour. Then the rate of wages paid on what is called regular traders to the *bona fide* dock labourers is 7d. per hour and 10½d. per hour for overtime.
90542. Do most of the wives or the female relatives of the person working in the dock work also in factories and so on?—Of the casual dock labourer?
90543. No, of the ordinary dock labourer?—Not of the ordinary dock labourer.
90544. They maintain themselves and their families?—The harbour porters and so on maintain their families, porters not workers in factories.
90545. The casual docker is maintained by his wife and children?—Yes. Casual dock labourers maintained by wives and children.
90546. That is the distinction you draw between the two?—Yes. Absence of distress amongst the *bona fide* dock labourers of Dundee?—Not a great deal. There has not been for some years. Dundee dock labourers.
90547. You would say on the whole there is not much distress amongst the *bona fide* dock labourers of Dundee?—Not a great deal. There has not been for some years. Dundee dock labourers.
90548. Do many men come from the country to work at the docks?—A large number.
90549. I suppose they are big strong men?—Yes, big strong men are preferred; men who are capable of taking heavy loads and long sustained hours of labour.
90550. The physique of the men of Dundee is good, is it not?—As a rule it is. Physique of Dundee men.
90551. (*Mr. Bentham.*) As I understand Paragraph 4, Constitution of the free labour bureau was started by the Shipping Federation?—It is a combination of shipowners, ships' brokers, consignees, merchants, stevedores and so on, and in Dundee of the Shipping Federation together.
90552. And all the expenses connected therewith are paid by the subscribing firms?—The subscribing firms pay for the management of the free labour bureau, and the free labour bureau undertakes to register the names of men who come to do work, but the bureau has nothing to do with the rates of pay or with the conditions of labour beyond the fact that these men must not interfere with the unionist or non-unionist.
90553. Do the men who register their names pay anything?—Nothing whatever. Firms subscribing to free labour bureau.
90554. Do the firms who subscribe guarantee to get all their labour from the bureau?—As a rule they do. engage all dockers there.
90555. Do they guarantee to get all their labour from the bureau if there are sufficient men?—They get it all from the bureau if possible.
90556. Are any men refused registration?—None.
90557. If they will take the necessary pledge?—If they take the badge; such men are always preferred to men who do not come through the bureau. Preference given to men having badge of free labour bureau.
90558. Is there always a sufficient number on the register to fill the demands of the shippers?—Yes.
90559. And each firm settles its own pay with the men it employs?—No, each firm settles with what is called the stevedore, the man who says: "I will discharge your ship," or "I will load your ship," for so much; then the stevedore engages and pays his own men and pays the rate of wages that he thinks proper, the rate of wages then prevailing at the port.
90560. (*Chairman.*) Is a stevedore the same thing as a harbour porter?—No, he is an employer of labour. Meaning of term stevedore.
90561. (*Mr. Bentham.*) Do the stevedores get all their labour from the free labour bureau?—Yes.

90562. Who is the direct employer of the harbour porter?—The merchant whose goods he is discharging.

90563. (*Professor Smart.*) He both loads and unloads?—Yes, when employed on regular traders.

90564. Then he is a stevedore also?—He is a stevedore in one sense that his society really governs him, but there is no superior person above him; but in the case of a vessel that comes in, where the harbour porters are unable to overtake the work themselves the labour is got through the free labour bureau, and the free labour bureau sends for a stevedore who engages the labour, but these men coming through the free labour bureau are not in a sense harbour porters at all; they are simply docker casual labour.

90565. What I am alluding to is that in Liverpool and a good many other ports a porter does not lade a ship; he confines himself to unloading. You have not that in Dundee at all?—No, there is no such distinction in Dundee.

90566. (*Mr. Bentham.*) Is there usually a surplus of labour in the bureau?—During the winter months there is not a great surplus of labour.

90567. Taking the year round, the men get a fair amount of employment week by week, if they care to have it?—Yes. Of course, I should explain that in the summer months there is not such a demand for labour at the harbour, but at that time there is more work outside in the country districts, and the men who came in from the country districts return to the country.

90568. (*Professor Smart.*) You mention that some companies have permanent staffs of their own?—Yes.

90569. Your evidence has nothing to do with these permanent staffs?—No.

90570. They are engaged by the week?—Yes.

90571. Then I gather that the harbour porters also engage labourers?—Yes.

90572. Then it is practically a co-operative society, is it not?—Yes.

90573. With a friendly society attached?—Yes.

90574. Why is the harbour porter recognised to have special privileges?—Because under the old Harbour Acts the harbour porters are bound to come out and protect the harbour as special constables, and do certain duties at the harbour in case of necessity.

90575. There is a large miscellaneous trade at Dundee as well as the jute?—Yes.

90576. But the casual labour is mostly affected by the jute?—Mostly.

90577. Do I understand that the sphere or function of the free labour bureau is entirely the giving of information?—Entirely.

90578. It does not assure the men a job in any way?—It does not.

90579. A stevedore is not bound to take a bureau man at all?—He is not bound to, but he usually does.

90580. Was it not really started in opposition to trade unions?—It really was.

90581. About how long ago?—Between two and three years ago.

90582. And the men generally agree with that now?—The men agree with it.

90583. With regard to Paragraph 11, why are the wages paid as regards regular traders so much less than for the jute steamers?—Because the regular trading men have permanent work; and on the jute steamers the work is very much harder.

90584. These are not the permanent staffs you are speaking of. These regular traders will have a permanent staff, and besides will take on casual labour?—They do take on casual labour when necessary.

90585. These are men who are paid week in and week out?—Yes.

90586. Is there not an economic weakness with regard to Dundee, that there is so little employment for men as compared with women?—Yes, compared with women the employment for men is very much smaller.

90587. So you seem rather to look on the casual labour as a godsend to Dundee?—To some extent.

90588. Do you really say that working men regard it as dishonourable not to pay their score with the publican?—Yes.

90589. (*Mr. Patten-MacDougall.*) What sort of credit do they give them?—As soon as a casual labourer is in work he can go to any of the public-houses in the neighbourhood of the harbour, and he will get credit for the day up to almost the full extent of his day's wages, if he is to be in work during the day.

90590. Will he get the same the next day?—Yes.

90591. How long does that go on?—Till he bursts; if he pays regularly they will go on indefinitely.

90592. (*Professor Smart.*) You say in Paragraph 20 that the labour bureau has sent out labour to merchants in the country?—Yes.

90593. You mean to manufacturers, I suppose?—Yes.

90594. Really, the problem of Dundee with regard to casual labour is very much the same as it is at other ports?—Very much the same.

90595. Only by reason of that scarcity of employment it is looked upon as a desirable thing rather than otherwise?—Yes.

90596. You do not regard it as a "problem" in Dundee?—No, we never have done.

90597. Even although the class of men seems to be much the same as in other places; they are rather dissolute, are they not?—They are, some of them.

90598. (*Mr. Chandler.*) You express the opinion that this free labour bureau you mention has been a success?—Yes.

90599. Tell me in what direction it has been successful? Has it improved the positions of the labourer, or has it been successful in preventing the establishment of trade unions in the docks? Which do you mean?—It has brought the men to a common centre to learn whether labour is likely to be got in Dundee; and it has put before the men the conditions under which the labour can be had, and the terms of those conditions. The docker in Dundee has never taken kindly to trade unions; why, I do not know. Some years ago there was a very strong effort made to form a dockers' union in the city—not that there was any special reason for it in Dundee, but there was some question agitating the dockers in other parts of the country at the time, and the support of the Dundee dockers was wanted. The Dundee dockers were not very willing even to start a union; but certain officials came from, I think, the Glasgow district, and after various meetings urged the men in Dundee to help their comrades elsewhere. After a good many meetings they did agree to start a dockers' union in Dundee; and meetings were held and organisers came to Dundee; but the thing gradually died a natural death. The men found that the conditions of labour without a union were rather better than with a union, because they were employed by all and sundry, whereas if they were unionists, some of the employers would have nothing to do with them.

90600. They would have to take what you call here a labour pledge. What is the nature of the pledge they took?—I have a copy.

90601. Is one of the conditions that they must not join a trade union?—Not necessarily. The pledge signed on their accepting a free labour disc, whether union or non-union men, is this: "The undersigned hereby declares his willingness to work in harmony with any other workman who may be engaged, whether he is a member of a trade union or not"; that is all.

Mr. John Malloch.

20 Jan. 1908.

Honourable discharge of debts to publicans.

Extent of credit given by publicans.

Country factories supplied with labour by free labour bureau.

Position of casual labour in Dundee.

Advantages of free labour bureau.

Attitude of Dundee dockers towards trade unions.

Nature and advantage of free labour bureau pledge.

Mr. John Malloch.
20 Jan. 1908.

90602. Still the fact of taking that pledge and being connected with the labour bureau gives them a sort of right to employment by the stevedores?—That is so.

90603. The stevedores, of course, can by that memorandum pay them any wage they like?—Yes; but hitherto the stevedore has not taken advantage of that; he has always paid the standard rate prevailing at the time in the port.

Fixing rate of dockers' wages.

90604. (Chairman.) Does your Board fix the rate?—No.

90605. It is agreed upon between the masters and the men?—Yes.

90606. (Mr. Chandler.) It is still a matter of bargain between the stevedores and the dockers?—Yes.

90607. Without the intervention of any union, or anything to keep the wage up?—Quite so.

Alcoholism and lack of thrift among casual dock labourers.

90608. In one place here you speak of their straitened circumstances, and of money having to be advanced in order to get their breakfasts and dinners, and the money being spent on drink. They are not a very first class crowd of men?—Oh, dear, no, not what we call the casual docker.

Country factories supplied with labour by free labour bureau.

90609. In the answer you gave to Professor Smart with regard to the sending of these free labour men to the country, was that in strikes or disputes; were these men

sent to take the place of the strikers?—No, that was simply in the case of pressure of work and something brisk having turned up; the work being wanted quickly extra men were asked for.

90610. Why I asked you that is that we have a free labour agency in this country whose whole and sole mission is that kind of business. It does not do that kind of thing?—No.

90611. (Mr. Patten-MacDougall.) I understood you to say there is very little distress in Dundee this winter?—Very little.

But little distress in Dundee in winter of 1907-8.

90612. Less than there has been for some years?—Yes.

90613. Are the distress committee receiving applications?—Yes, they are.

90614. Are relief works started?—They have been.

90615. This winter?—This winter, but the distress has been very small.

90616. What is the nature of the relief works?—They have been public works, in the way of road-making and drainage, chiefly.

Nature of relief works in Dundee. Number of men employed on relief works in Dundee.

90617. I suppose you do not know how many men are employed there?—Not more than fifty to sixty.

90618. And that is all the distress in Dundee?—That is all the distress at present.

ONE HUNDRED AND FORTY-SECOND DAY.

Tuesday, 21st January, 1908.

AT SCOTLAND HOUSE, WESTMINSTER, S.W.

PRESENT.

The Right Hon. Lord GEORGE HAMILTON, G.C.S.I.,
etc., etc., etc. (Chairman).
Sir SAMUEL B. PROVIS, K.C.B.
Mr. F. H. BENTHAM.
Dr. A. H. DOWNES.
The Rev. T. GAGE GARDINER.
Mr. GEORGE LANSBURY.
Mr. J. PATTEN-MACDOUGALL, C.B.

Mr. T. HANCOCK NUNN.
The Rev. L. R. PHELPS.
Professor WILLIAM SMART.
Mrs. SIDNEY WEBB.
Mr. FRANCIS CHANDLER.

Mr. R. H. A. G. DUFF (Secretary).
Mr. J. JEFFREY (Assistant Secretary).

Mr. FRANCIS WATSON, and Mr. GEORGE M. CROWTHER, called; and Examined.

Mr. Francis Watson and Mr. George M. Crowther.

90619. (Chairman.) (To Mr. Watson.) You are the Chairman of the Bradford Distress Committee, I understand?—(Mr. Watson.) Yes.

21 Jan. 1908.

90620. (To Mr. Crowther.) You are the Clerk of the Bradford Distress Committee, and you are also Clerk to the Poor Law Guardians of Bradford?—(Mr. Crowther.) Watson and I am.

90621. How long have you been clerk to the Poor Law guardians?—About nine years.

90622. I think, Mr. Crowther, you have prepared a detailed Statement of those who have applied to the Bradford Distress Committee to have their names recorded?—Yes. (The Witness handed in the following Statement.)

Conditions of labour in the textile industry at Bradford.

1. The workers of this city are to a very large extent dependent on the textile industry for their livelihood, and by reason of the low wages paid to certain classes, particularly the labourers in wool-combing and wool-washing works, it happens that when this portion of the trade is slack a large proportion of them seek relief.

2. Appended is a table which shows in detail the employment of the applicants who applied for employment-relief to the newly-formed distress committee in the year ending September 30th, 1906. (See Appendix No. III. (A).)

Details of applications to the distress committee.

3. The number of male adult workers in the textile trades shown in the table, viz., 359, does not, however, give the correct impression as to the full extent of the depression existing at that time in the textile trades. Any such depression affects nearly every family in the lower paid trades.

4. More than most trades the textile industry provides work for women and children, and it occurs that in many cases where the head of the family is out of work there is sufficient income from the wife and children or other relatives to maintain all; thus it is absolutely necessary that strict investigation should be made into all applications, so as to insure that the really necessitous cases shall be dealt with first. The census returns, 1901, give the number of females employed in these trades in Bradford as 33,342, and of children under fifteen as 7,076.

5. The great bulk of applicants being unskilled and employed when in work at low wages, distress owing to want of employment will be immediate, as these classes cannot obtain credit at shops or with their landlord; therefore it is necessary that employment relief should be available at once if it is to do any good.

6. Out of 2,134 men who placed their names on the register during the year ending September, 1906, nearly half were men who had fallen out of the ranks of the workers owing to age or physical weakness.

7. The following table gives the ages of the applicants for the period mentioned:—

UNEMPLOYED REGISTER, NOVEMBER 1ST, 1905, TO SEPTEMBER 12TH, 1906.

Classification by Ages.

Under 20.	Under 30.	Under 40.	Under 60.	60 and above.	Total.
20	596	590	790	138	2,134

8. The corporation gangers employed to supervise the men employed on distress works give it as their opinion that 30 per cent. only were average workmen, the remainder were either too old or men of poor physique. These men would not be employed by any contractor in building operations, but might be suitable for work in wool-combing or washing sheds.

9. The following table appears to show that the periods of distress are not intermittent, but occur periodically in the winter months. Although depression in the textile trade may be more or less severe, it generally occurs in the period between November to March. The work provided should, therefore, be such as could be carried on in these months:—

REGISTRATIONS MONTHLY, NOVEMBER, 1905, TO MAY, 1907.

1905.					
November	.	.	.	.	330
December	.	.	.	.	965
1906.					
January	.	.	.	.	427
February	.	.	.	.	175
March	.	.	.	.	107
April	.	.	.	.	36
May	.	.	.	.	50
June	.	.	.	.	20
July	.	.	.	.	62
August	.	.	.	.	45
September	.	.	.	.	46
October	.	.	.	.	53
November	.	.	.	.	66
December	.	.	.	.	634
1907.					
January	.	.	.	.	166
February	.	.	.	.	155
March	.	.	.	.	108
April	.	.	.	.	60
May	.	.	.	.	82

10. It follows that the works to be provided by the distress committee should be of such a nature that they can be discontinued at any time and re-opened again months later, when necessary, without detriment to the quality of the work carried on. It must be work that any unskilled man can perform without too costly supervision. It should also be of a kind that can be resumed promptly.

11. The works first undertaken by the distress committee of this city were very costly, owing to the fact that to convert derelict land into suitable building-plots required the employment of a large number of men at the market rate of wages, as well as a considerable expenditure on team labour and stone, etc.

12. The following table shows the cost as compared with the relief given to the men:—

TOTAL EXPENDITURE ON THE LAND AT DUDLEY HILL.				£	s.	d.	21 Jan. 1903.
Wages of workmen (237)	-	-	-	1,092	2	6	Nature of works to be provided by the distress committee.
Cost of purchase	-	-	-	2,038	12	0	
Compensation to tenants for disturbance	-	-	-	36	10	3	
Legal charges and interest in connection with purchase	-	-	-	35	4	8	
Payments to corporation for skilled labour and supervision	-	-	-	362	17	10	
Materials	-	-	-	97	14	3	
Construction of sewer	-	-	-	126	3	7	
Expenses in connection with attempt to sell the land	-	-	-	52	5	10	
Miscellaneous	-	-	-		14	1	
Interest on purchase money	-	-	-	63	3	2	
				£3,905	8	2	
Less rent	-	-	-		3	12	6
Total	-	-	-	£3,901	15	8	

13. One consequence of work not being available as soon as required is that many men are quite content with having placed their name on the register. In fact, if weeks or months elapse before work can be found for the unemployed it directly encourages the shiftless man to be content with having entered his name, and so long as he can live upon the earnings of his wife and children not to look out for work. He has shifted the responsibility of seeking for work on to the municipality.

14. In the year 1906, mentioned above, the building trade had been very slack, and 1,600 out of the total on the register were employees of one branch or other of this trade. So soon as there was an improvement all the able-bodied men desirous of work of this class, on being visited by the investigators, were found to have obtained employment. It may be added that not one in fifty thought it worth while to send word to the bureau that they had found work, although each man was requested on his entering his name on the register to do so.

15. The less able-bodied men with families who did not obtain work and were not placed on the employment-relief by the distress committee, applied in despair for relief to the guardians and were generally placed on outdoor labour "test," under the Outdoor Relief Regulation Order.

16. The number of men so relieved for the months from November, 1905, to September, 1906, as shown by the guardians' returns were as follows:—

1905.					
November	.	.	.	.	92
December	.	.	.	.	103
1906.					
January	.	.	.	.	102
February	.	.	.	.	85
March	.	.	.	.	63
April	.	.	.	.	19
May	.	.	.	.	18
June	.	.	.	.	6
July	.	.	.	.	8
August	.	.	.	.	18
September	.	.	.	.	28

The distress committee's works were opened in February, 1906, and were closed in the beginning of September.

17. For three years previous to the passing of the Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905, the corporation had an unemployment committee working, and had employed men on relief works, and it may be interesting to give the numbers of men so employed, giving at the same time the number of men on "test work" granted by the guardians:—

ABLE-BODIED MEN IN WANT OF WORK GRANTED TEST WORK DURING THE HALF-YEAR ENDING MARCH 25TH (THAT IS, THE WINTER PERIOD), FOR THE

Mr. Francis
Watson and
Mr. George
M. Crowther.

YEARS SHOWN BELOW AS COMPARED WITH THE
NUMBER GRANTED EMPLOYMENT-RELIEF BY THE
CORPORATION BEFORE THE UNEMPLOYED WORK-
MEN ACT WAS PUT INTO OPERATION.

21 Jan. 1908.

Relief given
by corpora-
tion un-
employment
committee
and the
guardians
compared.

Years.	Number of Men on Test.	Number of Men who registered their Names as Unemployed.	Number of Men granted Employment- Relief.
1899	33		
19 00	2		
1901	75		
1902	45		
1903	75	2,130	564
1904	187	4,497	970
1905	267	2,362	2,799
		6,859	3,769

18. Before any employment-relief at all was given by the corporation, the guardians had their labour yards open. From the figures now given it will be seen that the corporation employment-relief did not reduce the numbers on the guardians' relief works.

19. This we think was owing to the gradual relaxing by the corporation committee of their efforts to select the really destitute from the number of those applying.

Reasons for
Failure of
Distress
Committee
to obtain
suitable
relief work.

20. We regret that the distress committee has not succeeded in persuading private persons or firms to allow the committee to contract for any works they may have which could be carried out by unskilled labour, such as converting land covered with spoil heaps or open quarry holes into building or arable land. (Owing to disused coal pit workings and exhausted stone quarries these plots are numerous in this part of the West Riding of Yorkshire.) These works could not in the ordinary course of things be done, as the conversion would not pay the owner if let to a contractor who had to make a profit on the business.

21. We feel that the Unemployed Workmen Act is an admirable machine on the understanding that the distress committee have work on which they can employ the men, but unless further facilities than those provided by the Act are granted it is bound to be a failure; at any rate, that is the experience in this district. The land purchasing clauses are useless, because the corporation, in forming a distress committee and knowing that they can fall back upon the rates, thinks that it has done its duty towards the unemployed, and that it should not be called upon to hold land for the distress committee which cannot be sold again at a profit, and thus become the ultimate loser.

Schemes of
afforestation

22. Schemes of afforestation and of home colonisation should, we feel, be national. No proposals of that kind that have been brought before the committee seemed to be feasible by a local committee.

Suggested
amendment
in the Small
Holdings
Bill.

23. What appears to us could be done locally would be some provision, in the Small Holdings Bill, for instance, by which the corporation would be able to lease plots of land which are not used by the owners owing to their being derelict and the expense of their conversion not giving any prospect of profit. The distress committee could be employed by the corporation in converting these into arable lands and then, as required, letting for allotments or small holdings. It would not be at all necessary that the lands should be altogether, but might be in various plots in the neighbourhood of the city. It would have the advantages which we hold are necessary preliminaries to employment-relief as shown in the tenth paragraph, they could be discontinued at any time and re-opened again months later, when necessary, without detriment to the quality of the work carried on; it would be work that unskilled men could perform without too costly supervision, and it would be of a kind that could be resumed promptly.

Classes of
workmen
most affected
by unem-
ployment.

90623. (Chairman.) Bradford is, as you point out, a town which very largely depends on the textile industry, but I understand that the great mass of persons who applied for relief were not connected with that industry?—No; they were connected with the building trade.

90624. I suppose there are certain trades in Bradford which are dependent on the textile industry; for instance there will be certain engineering trades?—All the trades in Bradford are more or less dependent upon the textile industry. Classes of workmen most affected by unemployment.

90625. Out of a total of practically 2,000, half, I understand, were labourers?—Half were general labourers.

90626. Analysing the trades to which those labourers belonged, should you say that a large proportion of them were connected with the building trade?—The 1,118 that I give in the table were all outdoor workers.

90627. I see you had a large number of drivers; would they be connected with the carts employed in the building trades?—Yes, or in the textile trades; I cannot say exactly. (Mr. Watson.) I think a great many of the drivers were drivers who had been employed by the corporation. The corporation had, during the previous few years, executed large tramway works; in fact they had laid between fifty and seventy miles of tramways. That had attracted a great many men from outside the city into the city, and when the tramways were completed (which was about 1905) these men were thrown into the unemployed and did not leave the city to go and seek work elsewhere. I think a great many of those men who were drivers were drivers who had been employed by the corporation in carting material for the tramways.

90628. Was there any limit or any test as regards the period during which the applicants should have resided in the borough?—In our investigations, yes, certainly. Test of residence for applicants for relief.

90629. What was it?—Twelve months.

90630. Therefore, your belief is that the tramway works drew in people from the outside?—I do not think there is any doubt about that. It is generally conceded. Casual nature of occupations of unemployed.

90631. According to Paragraph 5 of the Statement, the great bulk of the applicants have been unskilled and employed when in work upon low wages; would their occupations as a rule be continuous; that is, would these men be in regular employ when engaged, or would the work be more of a casual and intermittent character?—(Mr. Crowther.) So far as the labourers were concerned, the work was of a casual nature.

90632. In Paragraph 6 you say that nearly half of those who applied were persons who had fallen out of the ranks owing either to age or to physical weakness?—Yes, that is so. Ages of the applicants for relief.

90633. Looking at the figures below, it is noticeable that a very large proportion are under forty years of age?—Yes.

90634. More than half, you see?—Yes, more than half.

90635. Do you think those figures are accurate?—Yes, I think so.

90636. It has been suggested to us that there is a tendency with persons when they are about forty to understate their age, because they think that enables them to get employment; should you be disposed to corroborate that allegation?—I have no reason to think that is the case. I think the men had no motive in giving any but their proper age.

90637. Then we have the fact—which is corroborated by evidence from other places—that the most of those unemployed were under forty?—Yes, half of them.

90638. Should you say there was very much difference between the class who thus registered themselves, and those who applied for relief under the Poor Law?—That is a very difficult question to answer, because the inquiries, though they were made on forms supplied by the Government, did not go sufficiently deep to enable one to answer that question—not so deeply, at any rate, as the union officers would go. The class who register themselves.

90639. You are a man of great experience, Mr. Crowther, and have been for a great many years clerk to the Poor Law guardians, so you would be able to go on your own impression from seeing them; now what is your opinion?—There are a certain number of persons who place their names on the register who, I should say, would not apply for Poor Law relief—for one reason, because the incomes of their families was so large that they would not get any relief. I have a return here of a certain number of the

men who placed their names on the register, which shows that there were 2,423 married men on the register, and that of those 441 had wives who were earning on an average 7s. 1½d. per week. Then I have also on the same table an analysis of the average earnings of the children. (*See Appendix No. III. (B).*)

90640. Do you mean to say that a number of persons were in receipt of such an income—or were associated with families that had such an income—that they would not apply to the Poor Law?—That is so.

90641. But you seem to think that that test should not prevent them from applying to the distress committee?—No; they were unemployed.

90642. Should you say that that class applied not so much for relief as actually for work?—They did apply for work.

90643. The main reason given for the passing of the Act was that it should help the respectable workmen who were ordinarily regularly employed and were temporarily out of employ; had you any considerable number of those applying?—Yes, I should say we had a good proportion of those.

90644. In your Statement you say that about 30 per cent. of those who applied were "average workmen"?—Yes, that is so.

90645. Would you go so far as to say that 30 per cent. were persons who ordinarily were in regular employment?—Yes, I would say so.

90646. That was rather the idea in your mind, was it?—That was in my mind when I made that note.

90647. Were you able to help that 30 per cent. materially?—Only to a certain extent—to a very small extent in my opinion.

90648. Were you able to place any considerable number of them in situations?—We opened a labour bureau and we offered work to a considerable number, but only a small number accepted. The work principally was with the railway companies; that is, the railway companies offered work. I am speaking now not of the work of the distress committee, but of the work offered by private employers through the labour bureau.

90649. You got a certain number employed through the labour bureau then?—Yes, or rather we offered them work.

90650. Have you got the figures with you?—Yes, we have. Only about thirty or forty accepted work.

90651. Did your labour bureau work well?—No, not at all well.

90652. Why do you think it worked so badly?—In one respect when the employer asked for workmen, the workmen wanted as a rule were young men, and they were wanted for apprentices on the railway. These men did not accept that. (*Mr. Watson.*) Mr. Crowther has a statement as to the twenty-one workmen who were offered work by employers, showing what was the result when they were sent to present themselves for employment. It is quite a short statement. (*See Appendix No. III. (C).*)

90653. There were twenty-one sent; what happened?—(*Mr. Crowther.*) We issued an advertisement inviting employers of labour to co-operate with our bureau, and in response the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway Company informed the committee that they were requiring working men from eighteen to twenty-one years of age, with a view to their being apprenticed to the work in the locomotive sheds of the company and gradually to be absorbed in the regular staff at the standard rate of wages. The wages to be paid were to be 18s. a week. Twenty-one men on this list of unemployed were at once informed by the bureau staff of this opportunity for work; sixteen men failed to appear as requested; of the five that presented themselves at the company's office, one was not found suitable on account of his height, four accepted the work and were instructed to start on a particular day, and out of these four, one failed to appear.

90654. What was the class of work? Was it work that an unskilled handy man could do?—(*Mr. Watson.*) It was engine-cleaning, with a view to their being taught to be stokers and subsequently engine-drivers. The men were to be from eighteen to twenty-one, all of them had to be single men according to the conditions of the railway company, and they were to leave the Bradford

district and go and live where the work was—at Newton, near Manchester, I think. Those were the conditions under which the work was offered to them. *Mr. Francis Watson and Mr. George M. Crowther.*

90655. How did the sixteen men account for not turning up? What excuse did they give?—I do not think any reason was given. They simply did not present themselves, after the work was offered and they heard what it was.

90656. Various witnesses have told us that there is great tendency on the part of boys leaving school to go into some casual employment which brings in a few shillings a week, rather than to qualify for a skilled trade; have you observed that?—That is so. *Casual boy labour a cause of unemployment.*

90657. It that noticeable in Bradford?—It is.

90658. Then I suppose these sixteen would be the young fellows who had gone through that sort of work and training, and who did not wish to qualify for this regular employment?—You may take it from the figures, which show that the bulk of our unemployed are casual labourers, that they are men who have learned no trade, and that they are not craftsmen. There is very little employment in our district on the part of craftsmen.

90659. Though they may be unskilled labourers, would they be generally in regular employ, or would their employment be casual and intermittent?—It would be casual employment. A job is begun and finished, and then they have to go and find another job as out-door labourers, it might be on a building.

90660. That, of course, is incidental to a particular trade. While the job is on, would they be continuously employed?—Yes.

90661. Now turning to the labour exchanges, it has been suggested to us that if put on a proper footing, they might play a considerable part in distributing the unemployed and finding work for them; what is your view on that point?—(*Mr. Crowther.*) The leaders of the workmen object to that arrangement. *Objections of workmen's leaders to labour exchanges.*

90662. In certain places they have no objection. With you they object, I suppose, on the ground that they think the labour bureau may be used in case of disputes?—Yes, decidedly; and also especially because the railway companies might be able to get men at a lower rate of wages than they would otherwise have to pay.

90663. Was your labour exchange linked up with others, or was it working by itself?—(*Mr. Watson.*) It was working by itself.

90664. What do you think about labour bureaux; do you think you could put them on a useful footing?—If the employers of labour could be persuaded to take advantage of them, I think they might be made useful, even if only applied to their own districts. I am afraid from what I hear that employers of labour are apt to look at people who apply through a distress committee, or through a labour bureau, as people who have a kind of disinclination for work. *Attitude of employers to applicants through a distress committee.*

90665. Assuming that labour exchanges or bureaux were universally established and linked up, would it not be possible to get both the masters and the men to take an interest in them, and to serve as an advisory board, and so, to a certain extent, to dissociate them from the notion that they only supplied persons who come for assistance under the Unemployed Workmen Act?—I do not think that impossible, and if it were possible I am sure it could be made most useful. That is my opinion. (*Mr. Crowther.*) It should be made compulsory for the men to give notice to the bureau when they had found work.

90666. Of course rules would have to be framed. Was any effort made to get over the objection of the trade unions in Bradford to these bureaux?—(*Mr. Watson.*) I do not think the trade unions did object; we never had any active statement of objection, at any rate. I think the objection that Mr. Crowther was referring to was the objection of the men who attended outdoor meetings or the unemployed, and who said they were entitled to have work in the town in which they were living and dissuaded the men from taking occupation in other towns. I think that was more what Mr. Crowther referred to. (*Mr. Crowther.*) Yes, that was it. *Objection of men to taking work in other towns.*

Mr. Francis 90667. As far as you know, there is no insuperable
 local difficulty that you are aware of to prevent an attempt
 being made to get employers and employed to serve on
 a committee?—(Mr. Watson.) I think it would be very
 useful if it could be done.

21 Jan. 1908.

90368. Could it be done?—I think it could be done.

Possibility of 90369. It would supply, I assume, information and a
 employers certain mobility to the poorest class of unskilled labour,
 and employed which is the class that is most in want of knowledge and
 sitting on the committee. of locomotive power?—I think so.

Tendency of 90370. In Paragraph 13 you state that you are rather
 the shiftless afraid that there is a tendency on the part of the shiftless
 to shirk work men, when they once register their names, to think that
 and live on they have done sufficient, and that it rests with the
 the earnings of their families. municipality to find work?—That is so. We are led
 to that conclusion very largely by the fact that of the
 men who were given notice of work when we had work
 which was not very often, only a very small percentage
 turned up—I have not got the figures with me, but I
 think it was about half. (Mr. Crowther.) Of course it is
 possible that they had found work elsewhere. (Mr.
 Watson.) Some of them may have found work somewhere
 else, but in many cases that could not have been so.

90671. In the inquiries you made, did you find that
 any considerable proportion of the married men were
 living on the earnings of their wives and children?—
 (Mr. Crowther.) Yes. (Mr. Watson.) The figures which
 Mr. Crowther has handed in will show that. (Mr. Crow-
 ther.) We found that 441 of the married men had wives
 who were earning an average of 7s. 1½d. per week, and
 that there were 315 boys earning an average of about
 6s. per week, and 306 girls earning an average of a little
 more.

90672. In Bradford there is a great deal of employment
 for women and girls, I suppose?—(Mr. Watson.) A
 very great deal. (Mr. Crowther.) There are about
 33,000 females employed.

90673. Is there rather a growing tendency for the
 men to live on their wives' earnings?—(Mr. Watson.)
 I should not say that, and I do not think so; although
 you may take it that the young women can earn better
 wages than the young men.

90674. I suppose the tendency when the head of the
 family is out of employment is for the other members
 to go out to get work?—I do not think it is specially so
 when he is out of employment; I think they go whether
 or no.

Relief by
 Guardians.

90675. Then as regards the less able-bodied men who
 did not obtain work, I see by Paragraph 15, that they
 went to the Poor Law guardians?—(Mr. Crowther.) Yes.

Effect of
 fluctuations
 in number
 employed
 by the
 corporation.

90676. And that they were placed on outdoor relief?
 —On test work. (Mr. Watson.) On that point, Mr.
 Crowther has prepared a chart showing the result when
 the corporation were employing a great many men.
 There were very few men assisted by the Poor Law on
 our register, and when the corporation were employing
 no men, our numbers went up proportionately. (Mr.
 Crowther.) The chart shows the number of men em-
 ployed by the Works Department of the corporation
 in comparison with other work. In 1903, the corporation
 started an unemployment register, and employed a great
 number of men. I think the chart shows that when the
 number employed by the corporation on their regular
 staff increased, the number employed on the unemploy-
 ment register decreased in proportion. The fluctuations
 in the number employed by the corporation are very
 large. The black line shows the number employed on
 the regular works of the corporation—what we call the
 regular men; the green line shows the number on the
 corporation unemployment works; the red line shows
 the number of able-bodied test workers; and the yellow
 line shows the number employed by the distress committee
 since it began its operations. (Handing in chart.) (See
 Appendix No. III. (D).)

90677. Looking at this chart, it would appear that
 the corporation by giving work to the so-called unem-
 ployed largely diminished their own staff?—(Mr. Watson.)
 No; they diminished their own staff, and, therefore,
 they had more applications for unemployment work.

90678. Would not the diminution of their regular
 staff add those whom they dismissed to the list of un-
 employed?—That is so, it would; but I mean to say
 they did not employ fewer because more were on the
 unemployed list, but there were more on the unemployed
 list because they were employing fewer.

90679. What I rather wanted to come to is this, that
 if regularity of work be the object in Bradford, did not
 the corporation by this policy get rid of a certain number
 of persons who were in regular employ in order to give
 irregular and intermittent employ to a certain number
 of the unemployed?—That was not the object, though
 it might be the result.

90680. Do you think it is satisfactory? Is it not
 inadvisable, if a body keep a permanent staff in regular
 employ, that they should reduce their staff in order to
 give intermittent employment to others?—As I have
 said, that was not the object; if I may explain, it was
 in this way: The corporation were carrying out certain
 regular works which were required by them as the muni-
 cipal authority; when those works were concluded,
 a certain number of men were out of employment; and
 then there came the cry of the unemployed, "We want
 work." The corporation during that period of three
 years before the establishment of our distress committee,
 sought and anticipated all the work they had for years
 to come and let it to an unemployment committee. That
 was all work which was not urgent and which would
 not have been done then but for the unemployment;
 and they collected public subscriptions out of which the
 wages were paid—they were not paid out of the rates.

90681. They were special jobs or tasks which the
 corporation had undertaken?—Which they found for
 the purpose of the unemployed.

90682. I am talking of their own work; there were
 special jobs or tasks, such as the tramways, which were
 concluded, and if there had been no question of finding
 work for the unemployed there would have been a neces-
 sary contraction of the establishments, because the work
 had been completed?—Certainly.

90683. So far as you know, the men were not taken off
 the establishment who were ordinarily in regular em-
 ployment?—No, none were taken off.

90684. (Mr. Bentham.) Are you correct in saying that
 the work was paid for by voluntary subscriptions prior
 to the Unemployed Workmen Act coming into operation?
 Was it not paid for out of corporation funds?—I think
 not. (Mr. Crowther.) The mayor raised the fund. (Mr.
 Watson.) He raised the fund by public subscription. I
 will not say that some of the work was not work for which
 they had borrowed money and for which they were en-
 titled to pay out of the rates, but I think the bulk of it
 was paid by the subscriptions. As to this, the witness
 subsequently sent the following note:—

"If I may be allowed to correct my first statement, I
 believe that so far as the funds for the unemployment
 Committee were concerned, they came from the rates.
 The mayor raised a fund for the purpose of assisting the
 unemployed, most of which was paid over to the distress
 committee but not all."

90685. (Mr. Lansbury.) And some of it came from the
 Queen's Fund, I suppose?—That was subsequently, and
 that came to the distress committee. I am speaking now
 about the works carried out by the corporation alone—
 as a corporation.

90686. (Chairman.) Turning now to your table in Relief
 Paragraph 17, that, I take it, in the second column in-
 cludes those for whom the guardians found work on test?
 —(Mr. Crowther.) Yes, during those years.

90687. And the third column gives the number of
 those who registered their names as unemployed?—
 On the corporation unemployment register.

90688. That was before the Unemployed Workmen
 Act was passed?—That is so.

90689. Then the last column gives the number of men
 who were granted employment relief?—Yes; those
 figures were taken from those who registered their names.

90690. Apparently more persons were granted relief
 in 1905 than registered?—Men were employed in 1905
 who had registered their names in 1904 and 1905. (Mr.
 Watson.) You will see that the years 1904 and 1905 are
 bracketted together.

Works
 created or
 anticipated
 by the
 Bradford
 Corporation
 for the un-
 employed.

How relief
 work for the
 unemployed
 was financed

Relief
 granted by
 various
 bodies before
 the Unem-
 ployed
 Workmen
 Act.

90691. Then the last column gives you practically not the actual number engaged in consecutive years, but the number who in the aggregate were employed during that time ?—During the winter 1904-5 really.

90692. Then apparently there was a considerable rise in the number who were granted employment relief during those two years ?—(*Mr. Crowther.*) May I say that in 1903 and 1904 the corporation arranged a joint committee with the guardians, and the guardians' officers made inquiries into the *bona fides* of these men ? In 1905 they relaxed the rule, with the result that a great many men whom the guardians' officers would not have recommended for work were put on.

90693. This table refers to the period antecedent to the Unemployed Workmen Act ; could you give us the figures for 1906 and 1907 showing what has happened since the passing of that Act ?—The total number of applicants from November 1st, 1905, to September 12th, 1906, was 2,134.

90694. That is not the number of persons granted employment ?—(*Mr. Watson.*) No, that is the number who were registered. (*Mr. Crowther.*) The number who were offered and who accepted work was 237, and the number who were offered work but did not accept it was 230.

90695. So the Act was not a great attraction as regards the number of persons who were granted employment relief ?—That is so.

90696. Was that in consequence of the Act or in consequence of the conditions getting better ?—In consequence of the Act, undoubtedly.

90697. Not of the conditions getting better ?—No, I do not think the conditions were getting better. (*Mr. Watson.*) I think the figures which would be more reliable would be those of the men who, after investigation, were found eligible for work. (*Mr. Crowther.*) Perhaps I had better give you the figures from November 1st, 1905, to November 30th, 1906. We registered 2,230 names in the first year under the Unemployed Workmen Act ; 738 of those were found work, or had removed before we found work, and 160 were found not eligible. Then, from December 1st, 1906, to September 21st, 1907, the total number registered was 1,321 ; 735 of those had found work or had removed after investigation, and 133 were found not eligible, for various reasons. I have detailed those in this return. (*See Appendix, No. III. (E).*)

90698. Is it the fact that those figures rather tend to show that there was a larger amount of employment given by the corporation to the unemployed before the Act than has since been given by the distress committee ?—There were a greater number employed, certainly.

90699. Where did the funds come from by which this employment was given before the passing of the Act ?—I do not know.

90700. Do you know if it came out of the rates ?—(*Mr. Watson.*) I think the work was work for which the corporation had obtained borrowing powers, and was paid for out of the rates.

90701. Would you say that the greater bulk was from voluntary subscriptions ?—The whole, I believe, was from the rates.

90702. Coming now to the work of the distress committee, you made efforts apparently to get private persons or firms to allow you to contract for various tasks in connection with spoil-heaps and deposits ?—Yes. (*Mr. Crowther.*) We have had several offers from private owners, but the distress committee have never seen their way to accept them.

90703. What is the idea about those heaps ? What can you do with them ?—(*Mr. Watson.*) In many cases, where they are not too big if they could be taken away and the land could be levelled it would make suitable building land, or would be available for use as arable land—agricultural land. They are shale heaps from the coal-pits.

90704. Are they supposed to have any particular fertilising value ?—No ; it is merely getting them out of the way. There is an instance given in our report where we, with the sanction of the Local Government Board, purchased a piece of land at Dudley Hill of about 7½ acres

—38,000 superficial yards. The pit-hills were removed, the spoil was deposited down the pit-shafts which had not been filled up hitherto, we levelled the inequalities in the land, and then the land was offered for sale with a view of getting back the money we had expended upon it. At present we have not been able to get any offer for the land whatever ; there seems to be no market for it, the money is lying idle, and we are paying interest upon the mortgage (which had to be raised upon the land) from our rate contribution.

90705. Then your experiment so far has not been successful ?—It has not been encouraging at all.

90706. Do you think that with perseverance something might be done to utilise or get rid of these hideous great deposits ?—I do not think it could be done at a cost at which we could recoup ourselves upon the sale. It would have to be done certainly at a loss. But at a loss it could be done, and the land would be worth something certainly, and it is worth nothing now.

90707. Could the lands be converted into parks or recreation grounds ?—The difficulty is that if you have a park or a recreation ground it costs so much to keep up, and practically we have as many of those in Bradford as, I think, the corporation are likely to approve of for some time. Bradford is very well off in that respect.

90708. Your opinion of the Unemployed Workmen Act is, that though it is a good machine, you want something more so as to be able to provide work ?—That is so.

90709. That is to say, you either want money or you want the power to embark upon a certain class of work ?—We consider, if it were possible, that we might be entitled to lease if necessary lands which are at present derelict, with the object of turning them to some useful purpose.

90710. What do you mean by derelict lands ?—Pit-hills—they are derelict.

90711. Then you would want, of course, increased facilities for raising money ?—We should.

90712. Have you ever thought it possible to combine with other districts ?—That has not been contemplated at all.

90713. But it might be practicable, might it not ? Leeds, now, is close to Bradford ?—Yes, it is close to Bradford ; but that we have never contemplated, and I have never formed an opinion about it. (*Mr. Crowther.*) The great difficulty in my mind is how the men are to be got away to the work if they are taken to a distance, and how they are to get back into regular employment again.

90714. You have not a farm colony, have you ?—No.

90715. Then you must have barracks, or some other accommodation ?—Yes.

90716. Or you must pay their fares ?—Yes.

90717. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) Do you mean that if they go a long way from their residence they would be taken away from their normal work ?—(*Mr. Watson.*) They lose touch with those from whom they might obtain employment. I may say that the men employed by our committee were only employed on four days every week—on Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday and Friday—so that they had Saturday and Monday in which to look out for work.

90718. (*Chairman.*) Assuming you could organise your labour bureaux, they would get over that difficulty, would they not ?—Yes, they would.

90719. At least to a certain extent ?—To a certain extent they would—not by creating works but rather by finding work.

90720. Assuming there had been no Unemployed Workmen Act passed, would the condition of things have been worse in Bradford ? Could the corporation have gone on as they did ?—No. I was going to say that the reason why the Bradford Distress Committee have done so little, and have had such difficulty in finding work, is that the corporation anticipated all the work which could find employment for the casual labourer prior to our coming into existence.

90721. Then the corporation were in an indirect way doing the work which by Act of Parliament afterwards the distress committee were set up to do ?—That is so.

Mr. Francis Watson and Mr. George M. Crowther.

21 Jan. 1908.

Experiments of the distress committee in providing relief work.

The Unemployed Workmen Act. How far defective.

Difficulties against combining with other districts.

Remedy of labour bureaux by finding work not creating works.

Difficulties of the Bradford Distress Committee.

Mr. Francis Watson and Mr. George M. Crowther. 90722. And that is one of your difficulties, that you have been forestalled?—We have been forestalled, and the work anticipated.

21 Jan. 1908. 90723. Have you lived long in Bradford?—All my life.

Position of unskilled labour in Bradford.

90724. What should you say as regards the condition of the lower grade of unskilled labour; do you think there is more difficulty now for persons to find permanent employment than there was?—Only to the extent that I think we have imported more than our share of casual labour through the tramway works of the corporation. That will probably become less noticeable as years go by; they will probably be absorbed into the general class of labourers.

90725. Have they pushed out Bradford people, or have these imported labourers themselves been left out?—Both, I think. They have increased the number of casual labourers beyond the demand, and some of them may have got work, and some of those who were there before may have lost their work.

90726. But with that exception you do not think the conditions are worse?—I do not think so.

Effect of limitation of apprentices by trade unions.

90727. Do you see less disposition on the part of the rising generation now to qualify themselves for regular work and to look out for work?—I think the difficulty is that in many trades the trade unions do not allow more than a limited number of apprentices. That prevents some learning a trade who otherwise would have learnt a trade, if it had been open to one who wanted to be apprenticed to a trade to be apprenticed.

90728. Do you think that limitation has done harm?—Undoubtedly it has prevented a certain number of men learning a craft.

Effect of the Workmen's Compensation Act.

90729. Now as to the Workmen's Compensation Act, do you think it has reduced the age at which men can get employment?—Undoubtedly.

90730. You have no doubt about that?—I have no doubt about it.

90731. (*Mrs. Webb.*) You said that some of the money was raised by subscription?—Yes.

Relief works run by the Bradford Corporation. Methods adopted.

90732. Surely not to do corporation work?—No, but for the purposes of the distress committee.

90733. But the work actually done was paid for out of the rates, was it not?—It was for the unemployment committee.

90734. Surely a municipal corporation could not possibly spend money, except out of the rates, on tramways and that sort of things?—It is in this way: there was an unemployment committee consisting partly of the corporation, partly of the guardians, and partly of other people outside; and the corporation placed certain work at their disposal which was done and paid for out of the rates, but the corporation did not necessarily get the full value out of the labour employed.

90735. Then you mean the amount was made up?—The amount was made up by the rates. The total cost to the rates was, I am informed, £11,502 3s. 6d.

90736. The corporation, so to speak, paid what it otherwise would have paid to a contractor, and then any additional cost coming through employing less efficient labour was paid for by the unemployment committee; was that it?—I believe; but I would not speak confidently, because I was not on the committee, that the whole was from the rates.

The wages were paid direct to the men.

90737. With regard to the payment of the persons who did this work have you ever paid any of the wage to the wives?—No, that has always been paid direct to the men.

90738. Have you never given any part of the relief in kind?—No.

Standard rate of wages paid, but shorter hours worked. Object of this.

90739. Has it been a rule that you give the regular wage, or have you given rather less?—We have given practically the regular wage, but we have not employed them for a full week, so that they did not earn as much as a man would earn working a full week; but, differently to the casual labourer, they were paid wet or fine, whether they were working or not. If they were rained off, and had to shelter from the rain, they were still paid their wages.

90740. Were they paid by the day and not by the hour?—They were paid 5d. per hour.

90741. But for a minimum period?—For a minimum Standard period of four days of eight hours a day. (*Mr. Crowther.*) rate of wages paid, but shorter hours worked. Object of this.

90742. It strikes me, watching that sort of work done that it is rather bad for the labourer to be so much under-employed. Do you object to it? I mean to say he is not doing a full week's work?—This only being temporary work, we are not entitled to employ them beyond a certain number of weeks, and therefore it was desirable that they should have the opportunity of obtaining regular employment, so Saturday and Monday were given to them for that purpose.

90743. Do you still think that it is a desirable arrangement?—We think it a better system than that adopted by the corporation, by which the men worked alternate days. They were put on without much investigation, and many of the men much prefer to work one day, and then to have the next day to play.

90744. Is not the whole theory of under-employment relief works a bad one?—I think it is if it means permanency, that is, if the man is going to be employed permanently; but if it is merely to meet a period of temporary out-of-work, I think it may be very useful.

90745. Have you ever considered the possibility of establishing an organised system of labour exchanges for the casual labourer all over the country, and making it compulsory on the employer to take his casual labour from the labour exchange?—Not making it compulsory on the employer to take it from the exchange; I have not considered that.

Question of compulsion on employer to take casual labour from the labour exchange.

90746. How does it strike you? Supposing you said to the employer: "You can if you like give a legal minimum period of employment, that is, you can employ people by the month; but if you prefer to employ casual labour, you must take it from the national exchange," so that all such labour would be dove-tailed?—As a matter of my personal opinion, that would not commend itself to me.

90747. You would object to compulsion?—I should object to compulsion.

90748. But you would approve of the dove-tailing of the labour that would be employed, would you not?—I do not object to that.

90749. It is the compulsion you object to?—Yes.

90750. (*Mr. Bentham.*) With regard to the corporation employees, you have already stated, I think, in answer to a previous question, that the corporation employed men by fits and starts, that is, there were a large number one week and fewer the next week, and so on?—Yes.

Effect of fluctuation in corporation employment.

90751. You remember Mr. Pringle visiting Bradford for the purpose of getting information for the Commission, he got some particulars on this point?—Yes.

90752. Do you consider that it is a good thing as far as the workers in the town generally are concerned that the corporation should fluctuate in their employment?—I think it is a very bad thing if it could be avoided and I think it ought to be avoided even at some extra cost to the corporation.

90753. The corporation really are the largest employers of casual labour in the town, are they not?—That is so.

90754. Next to the corporation, I suppose, will come the wool-combers?—Yes, if you call wool-combing casual employment; it certainly is unskilled labour. But I am not sure whether the wool-combers or the building trade would come next.

The extent to which wool-combing is casual employment.

90755. Wool-combing really is not casual, is it?—Not quite. They are in regular employment, but the work is unskilled.

90756. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Do you mean by "regular" all-the-year-round?—Yes.

90757. (*Mr. Bentham.*) At certain seasons of the year it is rather quieter than at other times is it not?—You may take it that the textile trade is always worst in the winter, from about November to February. I do not know why it should be so, but it appears year after year from the figures that any slackness in the textile trades occurs during the winter months.

Extent of winter slackness in the textile trade. Wool-combers.

90758. And it affects the wool-combing more than the other branches?—It affects them first, because they are the first people who have to deal with the wool.

90759. The spinning and the weaving is usually fully employed all the year round, is it not, except in times of depression?—Yes. There is another reason why it affects the wool-combers. It pays better to run wool-combing plant night and day for four days a week than during the day-time for the six days; but the other mills can only run during the day, so that their people are more regularly employed.

90760. Is it not the fact that wool-combing establishments are run night and day usually for the first nine months in the year, and then short of full day-time during the remaining three months?—That is so.

90761. And that throws out of work a number of men who are not highly skilled workmen, and many of them are unable to follow outdoor employment; but for wool-combing they would scarcely ever be employed; they are the siftings of all kinds of trades?—I should think they are the lowest paid of any class employed in the textile industries.

90762. They are consequently face-to-face with poverty immediately they are not at work?—That is so. The wages which they can earn are not wages which enable them to put anything by for a rainy day.

90763. So this gives us really a winter problem?—I think so.

90764. (*Chairman.*) Are they regularly employed four days a week, or how?—A man goes in and works a night, and he does not know till he leaves whether he will be at work the next night or not; and they often turn up to see whether any work has come in during the day.

90765. (*Mr. Bentham.*) It means usually in the wool-combing industry that the women are employed during the day-time and the men are employed during the night at the same work as the women do in the day?—That is so.

90766. Wool-combing is largely a night employment for men?—Yes.

90767. And when the work falls off the night-work stops first?—When the wool-combing falls short the men are out of employment before the women.

90768. Then they have to rely on the earnings of their wives and children, or they have to apply to the guardians or to the distress committee?—Yes.

90769. Would you say that it would be much better for the town generally and for the workers in particular if the corporation had to employ their workmen more regularly?—It would ultimately be much better if they could spread their work over a regular period, rather than have a rush and get something done quickly and then stop their works.

90770. You have a table, have you not, showing these fluctuations?—Yes. If you take the year 1904 you will find that in the week ending January 6th, there were 576 men employed, and that in the week ending April 13th there were 1,118. Then in three weeks in August there were over a thousand. At the end of the year, in October, November and December, it goes down to 500 or 600, so that there is practically a difference of 500 between the winter months and the summer months. The same sort of figures would apply to the year 1905. In 1906 it happens to be the other way, and there were fewer employed by the corporation during the summer; but I think that was very unusual. I hand in this table. (*See Appendix No. III. (F).*)

90771. Now with regard to the class of persons who apply to the distress committee, perhaps Mr. Crowther would be able to answer this question: Is it not often felt that the persons who apply need relief that could not possibly be given by a distress committee? A very large percentage of the men are unsuitable, I suppose, for the work which is offered by the distress committee?—(*Mr. Crowther.*) I found in the first year—and that is the only year I investigated—that about half the workers, through age or physical unfitness, were not fit for outdoor work. I got the corporation gangers who did the work for us to make an investigation and report to me each week, and they reported the number of men who would, if they had been contractors, have been engaged by them.

They said about 50 per cent. would have been engaged by an ordinary contractor to carry out the work.

90772. In dealing with those cases, do you not feel that something should be done for the men who could not possibly be employed, by referring them to somebody or another for some kind of relief? Is not great suffering entailed through these men not being dealt with when they do not go to the Poor Law?—The men are particularly sore upon the point that, when we have made full investigations into their moral character and industrial capacity, they were not put on to work at once. They feel sore that steps are not taken immediately.

90773. About the other class which is considered not suitable at all for work under the distress committee, is it not a very great hardship on those not to have anything at all? They are not told that they are not suitable for relief work, and they are simply left to hope that they might be called upon at some time for work; they do not apply to the guardians, and so they drift on to greater poverty?—(*Mr. Watson.*) If I might answer that for the moment, Mr. Crowther and I have considered whether it would be possible to divide those registering into different classes, and we have come to the conclusion that we have three distinct classes who apply. We have the loafers, viz.:—those who cease work after a few days' trial who, we think, ought to be referred to the magistrate to be dealt with in some way by finding compulsory employment for him. Then we have those who are utterly destitute and who have no income whatever—that is, taking the family as a unit, there is nothing coming into the house either from the husband or from any of his dependants; those we consider a case for the Poor Law guardians. Then we have the third class, where there is some income coming into the house but where the head of the house is out of employment; that we consider is a case which is suitable for the distress committee under the Unemployed Workmen Act. I do not know whether that answers your question?

90774. No, not quite. The men that I mean are those that are not suitable for work, yet are Bradford men who are drifting on to greater poverty; they are not dealt with by the distress committee, neither do they go to the guardians probably because they would thereby become ineligible for work under the distress committee. Should there not be some closer connection between the distress committee and the guardians in order to have their case dealt with immediately, when they are in want? It seems to be needed, and I want to know what your opinion is about that?—(*Mr. Crowther.*) I am decidedly of opinion that the distress committee and the guardians ought to work together in the matter, and that it is impossible to divide them so sharply as to say who is a man suitable for relief and who is a man suitable for employment. (*Mr. Watson.*) The difficulty in linking the two together has been that there is a strong disposition on the part of people not to apply at all if there is any connection with the Poor Law. It is a sentimental objection, if you like, but it is an objection; and I am afraid that many deserving cases would not apply if it was felt that it was being worked in connection with the Poor Law.

90775. Would you say that the work provided by the distress committee could ever do away with the labour test work which is applied under the guardians?—(*Mr. Crowther.*) No. (*Mr. Watson.*) I do not think so.

90776. Why?—(*Mr. Crowther.*) Because there are a certain class of persons who are physically unfit for ordinary outdoor work, who could be found a certain kind of work by the guardians.

90777. Of a lighter kind?—Yes, of a lighter kind. (*Mr. Watson.*) A modified test.

90778. So that it really means that there would have to be continued some method of dealing with the people out of employment who are in distress and destitute through want of employment, side by side with the work done by the distress committee?—Undoubtedly. (*Mr. Crowther.*) I am strongly in favour of a test-house or a test-workhouse for the so-called able-bodied men who could have work on the land, of which there should be so many acres in connection with each workhouse in a large urban district.

Mr. Francis Watson and Mr. George M. Crowther.

21 Jan 1908.

Suggested classification of applicants to the distress committee.

Difficulties in linking distress committee with guardians.

Continued necessity for labour test of guardians.

Mr. Francis 90779. To suit these men who are not fully capable of doing a day's work under the distress committee? They could be dealt with by that means?—Yes.

Mr. George 90780. (Chairman.) Would you not have them permanently on your hands then?—Not necessarily so. They would be in touch with their families, and when an opportunity arose they would be able to be taken out by the relatives.

Continued necessity for labour test of guardians.

90781. That is the class, I understand, who, from physical defects or a low physical standard, have a difficulty in finding any place in our present industrial system?—That is so.

90782. Surely what you are recommending means, if it is to be effective, that it must be permanent employment?—Every destitute man, I think, who applies is a proper case for the Poor Law.

90783. (Mr. Bentham.) But this is not quite a destitute person; as I understand, it is a respectable person who has a difficulty in getting employment because he is not up to the standard?—But he is destitute, of course, or he would not apply.

90784. I do not quite see the difference between that class and the feeble or inefficient who apply to the Poor Law?—Those are naturally Poor Law cases.

90785. These cases ought not to be dealt with by the distress committee?—No, by the Poor Law.

90786. What I want to show is whether there is a large number who apply to the distress committee for whom you have no hope of providing suitable work through the distress committee?—Not by outdoor labour, at any rate.

Questions what work distress committees can provide.

90787. You have no other form of labour to suggest that could be taken up by the distress committee to employ them, have you?—None whatever.

90788. (Mr. Lansbury.) Is there any reason why you should not find other work for them? If the guardians can find other work, what is to prevent you doing it?—In my opinion the guardians would find other work of a light nature in connection with work on the land.

Suggested modification of the Poor Law.

90789. My only point is, why should these particular men, who are respectable men, go to the Poor Law and become paupers?—Of course, I do not say that they should lose their civil rights.

90790. Then you would get the law altered, so that they should not become paupers?—That is so.

Extent of success for emigration.

90791. (Mr. Bentham.) With regard to emigration, some attempt has been made at emigrating a few men; has it met with any amount of success?—No, not at all. We sent out fifteen men with their wives and families in May, 1906, after searching inquiries had been made into their antecedents.

90792. In all these cases were the committee satisfied as to their being suitable people to emigrate?—They were the very best men we could find.

90793. Trustworthy people, so far as honesty was concerned?—Yes.

90794. You had expectations that they would refund the money which was the cost of their emigration?—That is so.

90795. What has been the result of that?—We have had 10 dollars returned to us.

90796. Was that all from one man?—Yes.

90797. You have particulars of all the fifteen cases here, I suppose?—I have a list here in a report from the Salvation Army, who acted as our agents in the matter, as to the condition of the men in Canada.

90798. Could we have the whole of the fifteen cases put in?—The report was made to us on February 12th, last year, and it appears in our Second Annual Report (See Appendix, No. III. (G).)

90799. (Mr. Lansbury.) Were the men doing all right?—(Mr. Watson.) That all appears in our Annual Report.

90800. (Mr. Patten-MacDougall.) Have any of them been sent back from Canada?—(Mr. Crowther.) No, they have not been sent back. (Mr. Watson.) But one or two have come back.

90801. (Mr. Bentham.) With regard to the numbers Number who registered themselves, the number who are on the register, no register at any given time is not a correct indication of the number of men who want work, is it?—(Mr. Crowther.) No, I should say not.

90802. Many of the men have already found work, but have not told the committee so?—Of course, men who have found work never do let us know, although they are requested to do so in every case.

90803. Is it not the fact that sometimes these men, not being permanently employed in their present occupation, place themselves on the register while they are still in employment, so that they might have work ready for them when they get out of employment?—I could not say that, but I know that the men we found work for through the labour bureau did not report themselves to us, and the reason given was that they thought they might not have it permanently, and therefore they had better keep their names on the register.

90804. Is it not the fact that the men register themselves more than once on the same register; that is, they have registered their names and nothing has been heard of it, then they have got work and they think they have been crossed off the register, and subsequently they re-register their names, so that you have found the names recurring on the same register?—Our register is prepared in such a way that the men could not do so on the same register, but there are recurring registrations on two registers. We open a new register in each year, and of the men who were on the first register 521 re-registered themselves on the second register.

Register, how it is prepared.

90805. On p. 7 of your Second Annual Report I find in Table B that the total number of individuals registered was 6,705, whilst the total number of registrations was 11,219?—Quite so, but those are not our registers; those are the registers of the unemployed before the passing of the Unemployed Workmen Act. (Mr. Watson.) That is the corporation register. (Mr. Crowther.) That applies to the corporation register, certainly, but not to our register.

90806. Not to the distress committee's register?—No. Our register is kept in a very different manner to that.

90807. (Professor Smart.) I see in your list of registered men seventeen miners; are these coal-miners?—Yes. Few coal-miners apply

90808. Is that a common thing?—There are some coal-miners in the neighbourhood.

90809. I believe the experience of Scotland is that a coal-miner never applies: coal-miners and sailors, I believe, are the two exceptions?—Of course, they called themselves coal-miners when they applied, but I have not investigated that.

90810. What manner of investigation do you make into the applicants?—We send a visitor to the home. Methods of investigation employed.

90811. What kind of visitor?—A man.

90812. Is he an official of the Poor Law?—No, he is an official of the distress committee.

90813. He has not been employed by the Poor Law then?—He never has been.

90814. Is he an experienced man in any way?—No, they have not any experience except they have acquired it in their work. (Mr. Watson.) We selected the best of the applicants that we had for the position of investigator. That was how it was done.

90815. Did any applicants from the Poor Law apply, do you know?—We did not appoint any. I do not recollect whether any applied.

90816. Do you not think it would have been very desirable to have had some?—(Mr. Crowther.) There were a certain number of men employed by us to aid the corporation in their inquiries under the previous régime, but these men were not appointed by the distress committee when they took office.

90817. Have you any reason to believe that the investigation was very strict?—I think they were as strict as possible under the circumstances, but the investigations are not as strict as those of the Poor Law, by any means. The investigations not so strict as those of Poor Law.

90818. And you made no use of the investigations of the Poor Law at all?—None whatever. (Mr. Watson.) There was a strong feeling amongst many members of the committee against employing an investigator who

had been employed by the Poor Law, because they wanted to dissociate the distress committee from the Poor Law on account of the sentimental objection there was to it. That was the reason it was done.

90819. They carried it against you?—Yes.

90820. Was the investigation made by the corporation formerly as strict as that now made by the distress committee?—No. (*Mr. Crowther.*) Not nearly so, and the corporation did not accept the results of the investigations either. The distress committee in every case accepts the report of the investigators, and puts no man to work whose answers to the inquiries are not satisfactory; but in respect to the corporation a great many men were put on whose answers were not satisfactory.

90821. Do you apply to former employers?—Yes, in every case.

90822. Do you find them answer quite readily?—Yes.

90823. With regard to the labour bureau, is that under the distress committee entirely?—Yes.

90824. Then inevitably it has become associated with an exceptional method?—Yes. It is the place where the men register.

90825. It is not a general labour exchange at all?—No, not at all.

90826. So that anything your experience teaches you from the present bureau is of very little importance with regard to a general labour exchange?—The only steps that were taken by the distress committee with reference to it were that we advertised in the local press inviting employers of labour to search our registers and select men; or if they applied to us, we sent them the names and addresses of any suitable men.

90827. But they naturally would presume that you had not the sort of men whom they would like?—We advertised that we had suitable men of certain classes on our registers.

90828. The inference being that the men who were being registered by the distress committee would not be men such as an employer would willingly engage?—Naturally, I think not.

90829. I see you say in Paragraph 8 that 30 per cent. of the men employed were "average workmen"?—Yes.

90830. Did you mean by that that they were worth the standard wage?—That they were men who had been employed, and who would be employed if there was the work for them, at the ordinary standard rate of wages.

90831. Men you would have taken on and paid the standard rate to?—Yes.

90832. Now with reference to these twenty-one exceptional men that you were speaking of, were they all men who had come up before the distress committee?—They were; they had all registered their names.

90833. You said a little while ago that if the labour exchange was instituted it would require to get the co-operation of employers, and you suggested that a certain number of employers must be put on the committee?—Yes.

90834. Is there not also another requisite, namely, that the superintendent of the labour exchange should be a man who is fit to talk to employers?—Decidedly.

90835. So that an ordinary working-man would not do?—For a superintendent of a labour exchange he would not do at all, I should think. He wants to have a general knowledge of the requirements of the different trades.

90836. So you must look out for a highly-paid official?—Yes.

90837. Do you think on the whole now that a permanent distress committee works better than the former intermittent corporation unemployment committee?—I should imagine it is decidedly better. (*Mr. Watson.*) The work is much more thoroughly done.

90838. And you want an organisation that is always at hand?—(*Mr. Crowther.*) Yes.

90839. With regard to emigration, what was your principle of emigration; did you emigrate whenever you could?—A list of the men who desired to emigrate was kept, and when it reached a certain proportion—a

number of about 100—investigations were made into the circumstances of the men and of their families. If a man had a wife and a family who were earning wages, they were not emigrated, and if a man was of an undesirable character, he and his family were not suggested for emigration. (*Mr. Watson.*) Although there were twenty-eight persons emigrated, there were only fifteen families—that is, fifteen men.

90840. (*Mr. Phelps.*) Were there any single men?—The fifteen men with their wives and families made up the number to twenty-eight.

90841. Then none of them were single men?—There was not one single man.

90842. (*Professor Smart.*) Was the feeling in the committee in favour of emigrating single men, or against it?—(*Mr. Crowther.*) The feeling was against it.

90843. Then you would say that those whom you emigrated were really the best of those who applied to you?—They were the best of the persons who applied to be emigrated. (*Mr. Watson.*) And the most suitable. (*Mr. Crowther.*) They were the most suitable, certainly.

90844. (*Mr. Phelps.*) The object of the Act we are discussing is, is it not, to find employment for artisans and a high type of labourer who are in temporary want of employment?—To find work, not necessarily for a high type of artisan.

90845. That was the intention as stated by the men who promoted the Act, was it not?—Yes, that was what was stated by them in debate, but that is not the wording of the Act.

90846. And you have not worked it in that spirit, I mean?—Not at all.

90847. I ask the question, because in Paragraph 19 you say that a certain situation arose from the fact that the corporation committee relaxed their efforts to select the really destitute from the number of those applying. Do you think that destitution is the real test to apply under the Act?—That paragraph applies to the employment found by the corporation before the Unemployed Workmen Act was brought into existence.

90848. Do you think the corporation would be justified in taking destitution as their test?—No, but I think they were justified in taking character into consideration.

90849. Is all that you complain of that they did not select the really destitute? My point is this—is not destitution rather a Poor Law distinction than a distinction for a distress committee?—My point in writing that sentence was that the best men, the most suitable men, had not been selected. (*Mr. Watson.*) I think the word "destitute" there should have been "suitable"; I think that would have been the better word there. (*Mr. Crowther.*) I meant really necessitous cases. When you have several thousand men, certainly the first men who ought to be dealt with are those who need it the most.

90850. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Might they not be the least worthy?—Possibly.

90851. (*Mr. Phelps.*) I rather understood that the class was the class you describe as the people who were not entirely destitute but had something with which to go on. In Paragraph 21 there is an expression which rather puzzles me. You say: "We feel that the Unemployed Workmen Act is an admirable machine on the understanding that the distress committee have work on which they can employ the men;" what exactly is meant by the word "work" there?—(*Mr. Watson.*) It might be "work" or "works"—it means any employment offered. At present if we had any names on our list, we have no employment to which we could send the men.

90852. Does the word "work" or "employment" there mean employment arising naturally, or employment artificially created?—Either; it means work of any kind.

90853. Then it would include employment artificially created?—It would undoubtedly.

90854. In that case, is the difficulty so much in the way of finding work, as of finding the means of paying for it?—(*Mr. Crowther.*) It is the difficulty of finding work, or finding works rather. (*Mr. Watson.*) You can always find work if you are prepared to pay for it, if it is only in

Mr. Francis Watson and Mr. George M. Crowther.

21 Jan. 1908.

The objects of the Unemployed Workmen Act.

Destitution as a test to employ under the Act.

Defects of the Unemployed Workmen Act. Lack of powers in distress committees.

Mr. Francis Watson and Mr. George M. Crowther. moving all the slag heaps in England; but whether it is going to be work which would, in any sense, be remunerative or not, is another matter.

90855. Exactly?—If you say: Can we find work?
21 Jan. 1908. I say yes, but whether it would be remunerative or not, is the question.

90856. Very good; so you mean by "work" there, remunerative work?—Or work which cannot be conducted at an absolute loss of the whole of the money spent upon it, or the greater part of it. The committee, I believe, would be quite willing, and have shown themselves willing, to conduct works which could not be done at a remunerative rate, but still which did not entail practically the complete loss of the money expended.

90857. Can any Act of Parliament guarantee you a supply of that kind of work?—I do not think it could if it left it to the local committee to carry it out, but if they embark on national works they might be able to do it. (*Mr. Crowther.*) Except in so far as the reclamation of land goes.

Difficulties in the way of schemes of afforestation.

90858. I only want to call your attention to the fact that there is an ambiguity in the use of the word "work" there. Now with regard to the schemes of afforestation; have you gone into the question of afforestation at all, and the possibilities of it?—(*Mr. Watson.*) Yes, we have in this sense, that we have applied to the waterworks committee of the corporation, who have very large areas of land, most of them twenty or thirty miles away from the city, moorlands and lands upon which the farms have been allowed to go out of cultivation, so as to prevent the water being polluted. We thought that they might have lands which could be used for afforestation purposes. We applied to the Waterworks Committee, who had reports made to them by the waterworks engineer, and by a gentleman skilled in forestry; but the reports were unfavourable. They had a small area of about fifteen acres adjoining one of the reservoirs about thirty miles away, on which it was said we might plant willows, but the conditions were so stringent, in order to prevent the pollution of water, that it would have been quite impossible to have carried out the works.

90859. Taking the question of afforestation in the larger sense, have you gone into the evidence at all with regard to the possibilities which it gives of the number of people that you could employ upon it, and so forth?—The only experience we have is the experience of what they are doing in Leeds.

90860. I was going to ask about that?—We have seen their report as to what they are doing, and it does not seem that you are able to employ very many men per acre.

Question of labour colonies and small holdings.

90861. With regard to home colonisation, what was in your mind under that head?—We were thinking in that respect of labour colonies.

90862. And not of planting out families into the country?—No.

90863. Then you think that the corporation might be able to lease plots of land for the purposes of the Small Holdings Bill?—(*Mr. Crowther.*) That statement was made before the Act was passed.

90864. Do you think you have any large number of people in Bradford whom you can plant away in the country?—With their families on small holdings?

90865. Yes?—No, I should think not; it would be a new line of business entirely for them.

90866. Did you see your way to using the Unemployed Workmen Act as a means of educating the people to that end?—As a matter of fact, I am not in favour of a labour colony in connection with a distress committee at all. I do not see how it is to work.

Objects of the distress committee.

90867. What would be your idea with regard to the ultimate aim of a distress committee?—To tide over a temporary depression in trade simply.

90868. Do you think that when you have started a distress committee you could possibly restrict it to that?—I mean that the distress committee machinery should always be ready to be used in case of depression.

90869. Not more than that?—Not more than that.

90870. You do not look forward to it as a means of educating persons who are now unfit?—I do not think that is the work of a distress committee, at all. (*Mr. Watson.*) We do not contemplate it. (*Mr. Crowther.*) It might be work taken up by the Poor Law, but it is certainly not work for a distress committee.

90871. How would you guard against people such as you describe constantly making use of the distress committee?—By investigation, and by the strict carrying out of the Act.

90872. Practically the investigation would aim at establishing that the distress of the people was purely temporary?—That is so.

90873. And where it was chronic, you would send them to the Poor Law?—That is so in individual cases. If a man had absolutely no means, we should recommend him to be sent to the Poor Law.

90874. Do you think machinery of that kind might exist permanently for relieving that class?—Yes, on the lines of the present Unemployed Workmen Act.

90875. Do you think it is all possible for working men to insure themselves against out of work?—In the case of the casual labouring class, I do not.

90876. I was not thinking so much of that class. Do you think that the friendly societies could devise any scheme by which they could insure their members against out-of-work?—(*Mr. Watson.*) That is done to a certain extent by the trade unions.

90877. Is it done to any great extent in Bradford?—Yes, to a very large extent.

90878. Do you find that no trade unionist comes before the distress committee, in consequence?—Practically none, and therefore, I do not think that our table does show accurately the whole number of the unemployed.

90879. Do you think that the friendly societies could frame a scheme which would cover the people outside the trade unions?—I do not see how you could frame a scheme which would deal with those who are not members of a society, because if you did, you would have those who were willing and did work, paying for those who are not so anxious to work.

90880. This is the point I wanted to get at: Can you guarantee against malingering?—I do not think you can.

90881. How do the trade unions do that?—They do it the best way, I believe—by having a club doctor to whom the man has to apply if he alleges any illness, and then the doctor has to certify. Then they pay the contributions, I believe, by one of their own visitors who goes weekly and sees the man and reports.

90882. I can quite understand the case of a man who is out of work through illness, but I want to take the case of a man who is out of work through trade depression. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Excuse me, but does not the trade union act as a kind of labour bureau, and has not the man to sign a book every day?—I think so.

90883. And if the trade union knows of work anywhere, the man has to go to it, or his pay is stopped?—I think there is something of that kind, but I am not conversant with the details of how it is done.

90884. (*Mr. Phelps.*) They do succeed in doing it?—I think they do. I do not think they have much malingering amongst their own people.

90885. All I ask is, do you think it is possible that that same principle could be extended?—I do not see how it can be done with casual labour; I should think there are many difficulties in the way. (*Mr. Crowther.*) There are many people who are living on the borders of pauperism.

90886. I am not thinking of the difficulties of finding the men, but I am thinking rather of the difficulties of drawing up a scheme of payment. Do you think it would be possible to arrange a scheme of payment which would guarantee the society against malingering?—By contributions from among the labourers themselves? (*Mr. Watson.*) From any source—from a fund to be formed for the purpose is what you mean, I think.

90887. If the trade unions have so arranged the contributions of their members as to guarantee them against

Difference between its work and that of the Poor Law.

Possibility of insurance of working men against out of work. By trades unions.

Guarantees used by trade unions.

Difficulties of extending the principle to casual labour.

an out-of-work period, can the friendly societies do the same thing; that is really what I want to ascertain?—The friendly societies are for those people who are able to put something by and who join and subscribe, and I think that the man that we are speaking of now, the casual labourer, is in such a state of poverty that he is not in a position to pay such subscriptions, even if he is in work.

90888. Supposing that he was, do you think that they could formulate such a scheme?—I think it would have to be on the lines of the trade unions if it were done.

90889. With regard to the emigration of these people, on the whole you say that your committee is not in favour of emigration?—Yes.

90890. Have you many foreigners at Bradford?—A great many. We have not the foreigners that you get in the poorer classes; all the foreigners in Bradford are well-to-do. We have a large number of German merchants and their clerks, and people of that description; but we have not the foreigners who come from Russia and Poland, like those in Leeds in the slipper trade and the tailoring trade. We have not got those trades in Bradford, and so we have no poor foreigners in Bradford.

90891. There is no influx of people from abroad into Bradford, is there?—No, not at all.

90892. Do you think there is any influx from the country?—I do not think so, because all round Bradford and the district, for 11 and 12 miles round at any rate, it is one series of manufacturing towns. They are called villages, but they are villages of from 8,000 and 10,000 to 15,000 and 20,000 inhabitants, and they all have their own factories and their own works. It is all semi-urban around Bradford; it is not rural.

90893. Do you find that you get a large number of people in Bradford among the labouring population whose parents are country folks?—I should not think so.

90894. Perhaps Mr. Crowther knows, as he would have more experience of that?—(Mr. Crowther.) Not in recent years. Twenty or thirty years ago it was so, because the population increased very rapidly, but of late years I should say not. All the present generation, speaking generally, are the children of townsmen. (Mr. Watson.) I think that is shown by the increase in the Census Returns. What has been the increase in the last twenty or thirty years? Mr. Bentham would probably know, but I think it is quite normal.

90895. (Mr. Bentham.) It is lower than the average of the West Riding?—I will take that.

90896. (Chairman.) Following up Mr. Phelps' question assuming you had this permanently constituted distress committee, who would decide when it should be in operation or not?—(Mr. Crowther.) The distress committee itself. It would have periodical meetings, or the clerk would call it together if the number on the register were sufficient to justify that. He would keep a permanent register, so to speak; but I am in favour of the register being started afresh on a certain day each year.

90897. There would always be a heavy local pressure on the committee, would there not?—(Mr. Watson.) Yes.

90898. Assuming there was anything of this kind, you would require to have a very stringent test, independent of the investigation, to prevent persons coming to you who were already in employment, would you not?—(Mr. Crowther.) Of course, if a man was found to be employed when his case was investigated he would be struck off, and that would be generally known.

90899. Would not something more be required? If this machinery was always in existence, would it not be necessary to impose a stringent test on the applicants in order to see whether they were *bona fide* in want of work?—(Mr. Watson.) I think that the tests fixed by the present Act are sufficient for that purpose in that they are only employed for a limited number of weeks, and that the Act gives the committee the power to fix the wages.

90900. But surely that would not meet the situation, because if the distress continued the employment would have to be continued?—We rather thought not. We looked at it from this point of view—so long as it is to be treated in the way of relief only, our relief works could be kept open for so long as it was felt they were required, and then we could stop the works. That is why we specify the class of work that would be suitable. Then

we could re-open our works when the unemployment became such as to demand that they should be re-opened.

90901. I was thinking rather more of the rate of payment, which I believe is demanded in certain quarters shall be the standard rate?—What we have been paying is slightly below the standard rate.

90902. You would probably get the most inferior workmen who would be first out of employment?—Yes.

90903. If, then, you gave them the standard rate that would practically be a premium on the less efficient?—I agree.

90904. How would you deal with that difficulty—because it would be a serious difficulty?—It would be a very serious difficulty, and I think that something rather less than the standard rate of wages would be sufficient by way of relief, seeing that this is not intended to be a trade supply requiring regular workmen, and that it is only temporary.

90905. In fact, you must have some substantial obstacle to prevent a man leaving his employment in order to come and get employment under your distress committee?—That we feel.

90906. You think that could be done by some difference in the wage?—I think there should be a difference in the earnings—it might be a difference in the wage per hour, or it might be a shortening of the number of hours per week worked, partly so as to give a man an opportunity of looking for other employment, and partly so that he should not be able to earn the same wages as a man in regular employment.

90907. But some safeguard on that point would, in your judgment, be very necessary?—I think so.

90908. (Mr. Gardiner.) We have had evidence that prior to December, 1905, the Bradford Corporation put in hand public works for the benefit of the unemployed?—(Mr. Crowther.) They did.

90909. And that in consequence of this their regular staff was out of employment and were walking about the streets?—No. That is not the inference I wish you to draw.

90910. That is not what you told us, but what we have been told in another statement that has been put in with reference to unemployment in your city?—I should not say that.

90911. You could not confirm that statement from your own knowledge?—No.

90912. (To Mr. Watson.) Could you?—(Mr. Watson.) Except to this extent. As a member of the corporation I can say this, that they have never been short of any workmen that they have wished to employ, and that they have always been able to get their casual labourers. It is only when they have ceased to require them that the number of unemployed has swelled, and they have had to find them employment by the relief works which have been mentioned.

90913. What I understand from this statement which I hold in my hand—and it is a local statement—is that the regular labourers employed by the Bradford Corporation were walking about the streets, having been displaced by people put on by the distress committee?—I should deny that statement entirely.

90914. Even if it had been made by one through whose influence I suppose the employment was given?—I do not admit it at all.

90915. Even supposing it was made by the chairman of the works committee, or the surveyor of the department?—Yes, I should not agree with that. I should be very much surprised to find that that was true.

90916. Would you think that he was labouring under a misapprehension?—I should.

90917. And also would you say that, since the Act came into operation, that is since December, 1905, there has not been any similar result consequent on the action of the distress committee, that is to say, you have had none of the regular staff displaced?—I do not think so, because we have been applying to the corporation the whole time to find work for us, and we were prepared to give them men who would have done their work, but they never applied to us.

Mr. Francis Watson and Mr. George M. Crowther.

21 Jan. 1908.

Rate of wage paid on relief works.

Disputed effect of Bradford Corporation relief works on the regular staff of the corporation.

Mr. Francis Watson and Mr. George M. Crowther. 90918. And they never, as far as you know, displaced members of their regular staff in order to find work for your hands?—I never heard of it, and I was a member of the corporation for eight years prior to November 1st last, when I resigned. (Mr. Crowther.) Might I just supplement that? It may apply in this sense—that in December, just before Christmas, the Mayor decided to have the streets swept and cleared of snow and a great number of men were employed at his request, in fact, several hundred men were employed by the corporation to clear the streets. They did displace, I have no doubt, a certain number of the ordinary workmen of the corporation. (Mr. Watson.) It was only for forty-eight hours. (Mr. Crowther.) Yes, it was only for two days.

90919. The statement on which my question was based was certainly made some time in July, 1907, but as far as you know that is a mistake?—(Mr. Watson.) Yes.

Number and class of investigators employed by the distress committee. 90920. Would you mind telling us what investigating staff you have in connection with the committee?—(Mr. Crowther.) We employ investigators when we have works, but we have no works at the present time, and so we have no investigators, but we have employed from four to six.

90921. From four to six investigators, do you mean?—Yes.

90922. What are they doing between whiles, because investigation means training, does it not?—They find other employment.

90923. Then they have to be trained every time because you do not always get the same men, do you?—Generally; we have had no difficulty up to the present. The same men are very glad to come back.

90924. What stamp of men are they?—They are really clerks.

90925. Who are casually employed?—Yes. (Mr. Watson.) I do not think the committee have any reason to be dissatisfied with the work done by the investigators as a whole.

90926. Practically a casually employed clerk—working under your supervision, I suppose?—Certainly.

90927. Is adequate for your purpose?—Yes, because he puts certain specified questions. He is not like a relieving officer who makes a general investigation, but he has to put certain questions to the men, and the information required is specified so definitely that there is not much difficulty in his knowing what he has to do.

Office expenses of the distress committee. 90928. Might I ask what the office expenses of your distress committee amount to?—(Mr. Watson.) For the year ending March 31st, 1906, out of the rate contribution, emigration expenses were £50, and the salaries of officers, £145 5s.

90929. How many officers does that include?—That includes the clerk and the registration clerk. (Mr. Crowther.) I may say that I am not paid a salary at all; I am simply given a sum to provide the office expenses in the way of book-keeping.

90930. So you practically give your time; you are practically a volunteer?—That is so.

90931. Such time as you require you take away from the board of guardians and give to the distress committee?—That is so—by the suggestion of the Local Government Board.

90932. And no one minds?—No.

90933. I suppose it means a good deal more work for you, does it not?—Yes, it is a considerable amount of work—more than I anticipated when I took the work up.

Character of unemployed. 90934. So the eight hours' day would not apply to you. Could you put in, with the additions that you are going to make to your Statement, some information about those sixteen young fellows aged between eighteen and twenty-one, who were offered work by the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway Company, and who refused it? It is not worth while taking up the time of the Commission now, so long as it gets into the evidence ultimately. I want to know what the training had been, what had been their past career, and whether they were really wastrels by the time they were twenty-one?—(Mr. Watson.) All the cases had been investigated prior to their being offered to the railway company, and the result of those investiga-

tions would appear upon the Report with regard to each one.

90935. Could you give us the information without mentioning names?—Yes, we could give it you under initials, like we have done in other cases (See Appendix No. III. (C)).

90936. It would be very interesting if you would do so, in order to see whether those fellows really had any chance or whether they were simply newspaper boys, and so on?—I think they were corner boys.

90937. (Mr. Chandler.) Can you tell me what particular trade you had in mind when you spoke of the restriction of apprentices by trade unions?—The one that I had heard of was the joiners. I have clients of my own who are in that business, and they are not allowed to have more than a certain number of apprentices to their skilled hands.

Restriction of apprentices by the trade unions.

90938. Is that not a regulation between the Bradford master builders and the joiners?—It may be that, but the trade union are the people who enforce it.

90939. Still you had in twelve months only twenty-one joiners applying to the distress committee?—Yes, that might be so.

90940. Therefore evidently the joinery trade is not under-stocked in Bradford?—At that particular period it might not be, because, as is mentioned in the Report, the building trade was the one which was particularly under a cloud at that time. I believe the same thing applies in other trades.

90941. Do you think that unrestricted liberty to have as many apprentices as possible would reduce that number of 1,118 labourers, which you had to deal with in that year?—I did not put it in that way. I rather said that the fact that we had comparatively few skilled men upon our list, and that the bulk of them were casual labourers, showed that those who had learnt a trade were in a better position than those who had not learnt a trade.

Few skilled men apply to the distress committee.

90942. Statistics go to show that the unskilled are in the majority in every large town, and I take it it would be pretty much the same in Bradford?—No doubt.

90943. All our statistics go to prove that, so it is hardly a question of the restriction of apprentices which causes that big crowd of unskilled. With regard to unemployment, and the men providing for it themselves, I do not think you regard it possible for these 1,118 labourers to provide a scheme of unemployed benefit for themselves—you do not think that this big crowd of labourers could do that, do you?—I do not.

Impossibility of labourers providing unemployed benefit.

90944. It would be a very big expense—too big an expense for them?—They could not do it themselves; that is quite obvious.

90945. And it would hardly be possible for a friendly society to do it, because that is a mixed body of men?—The friendly society relies on the contributions of its members for its funds.

Unsuitability of friendly societies for this purpose.

90946. The very essence of a trade union providing unemployment benefit for its members, and the secret of its success, is that it is confined to one particular industry, and therefore you are always on the look-out for employment for a man, and you are watching him carefully; that supervision could not obtain in a friendly society which is composed of a mixed body of men, could it?—No.

90947. I take it that you approve of the Unemployed Workmen's Act, but you think that it fails in its purpose because the distress committees have not work for the applicants?—I think as a machine for inquiring into the character of those who are seeking employment it is excellent.

Failure of the Unemployed Workmen Act for want of work for applicants.

90948. I understand that from the Statement?—If there were works to which we could send the men, I think the Act also provides an adequate machine for carrying out those works, and so on. The difficulty is that we have not been able to find means to get back practically any part of the money which we spend upon the works.

90949. And in the most favourable cases a considerable time elapsed before you were able to find employment for your people?—That was largely because we had not the works. If we had permanent works which we could begin when unemployment became acute and discontinue when the number unemployed was too small to make it worth while running, that would be of great assistance, and we should be able to work satisfactorily.

90950. In Paragraph 14 you say that not one in fifty thought it worth while to send word to the bureau that they had found work; I assume that was due to the fact that they had waited so long that they had almost given up expecting anything from the distress committee?—It would be more than one in fifty who would get employment within quite a reasonable time. (*Mr. Crowther.*) The one in fifty that I mention in that paragraph relates to those to whom employment had been offered through the labour bureau from private employers. When one offered that work to them, not one in fifty of them took any notice of it.

90951. I thought it was a kind of reproach to the men that as soon as there was an improvement all the able-bodied men desirous of work on being visited by the investigators were found to have obtained employment, and yet not one in fifty thought it worth while to send word that they had obtained employment. Do you think, Mr. Watson, that a scheme of a national character would be most suitable for meeting this defect in the Act?—(*Mr. Watson.*) I think that would be well worth consideration.

90952. (*Mr. Patten-MacDougall.*) You did consider a proposal for afforestation, I think you said?—Yes, we did.

90953. But you found that it could not be approved because of the pollution of the watershed?—Yes.

90954. Did it involve manuring for afforestation purposes, or what was the difficulty?—We did not think so, but there were very severe restrictions put upon the work we had to do. I am sorry I have not got the reports here, but it was quite impossible to do it. That was only a small area of 15 acres of willow, I think. (*Mr. Crowther.*) Yes, it was proposed to be taken for willow planting.

90955. Were you induced at all to consider such a scheme because of the Leeds scheme, which I believe is in operation?—(*Mr. Watson.*) No, I believe, in the first instance, the suggestion was a personal one of my own, and the committee, at my request, passed a resolution asking the corporation to give us certain lands or to report upon the advisability of those for afforestation purposes, being some of the lands which they have for their waterworks purposes.

90956. Do you know whether the Leeds scheme has been a success?—I have only read the reports in the papers. It does appear to have been, I think, reasonably successful. Of course it will be many years before we can tell whether it will be commercially remunerative.

90957. Have you considered whether forestry is work to which you could put these applicants for work?—We did consider that, and we got very adverse reports.

90958. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) Do I rightly understand that you allow applications to be made to you for assistance all the year round?—The register is always open for these people to put their names upon it, in fact our register has never been closed, but we do not investigate cases until we have some likelihood of being able to offer work. We do not investigate all the cases that are put on the register.

90959. But the decision as to whether you will investigate cases does not depend upon any period of the year, does it?—No.

90960. Only upon the question of whether you have got work?—(*Mr. Crowther.*) That is it.

90961. Would you not meet your own suggestion that you made just now, that you thought the distress committee as a machine should operate when it is really required, by closing your register at a certain time of the year?—The difficulty would be then when to open it. There would have to be outside pressure put upon the committee, and that would be very unsuitable.

90962. Take the case of London: In London a distress committee cannot receive applications except when authorised by the Central Body; and similarly outside London, the Act contemplates, I think, that you fix a period during which you will receive applications. You have not proceeded, I gather, in that way?—(*Mr. Watson.*) The idea was this, that if we closed our register, the only reason for opening it would be that pressure was put

upon the committee, or that the amount of unemployment had become so acute that we ought to open our register and endeavour to do something. We did not think it wise to put the committee in the position of having pressure put upon it from time to time to open the register when we have, as a matter of fact, no work to offer.

90963. Still, if you are going to use the committee as a means of providing work during temporary periods of distress, are you not almost driven to do something of that kind?—Certainly the argument is in favour of that, so far as I can see.

90964. Then another point that has occurred to me, from what you have said, is this: Is there not something to be said for revising the register from time to time?—I think there is.

90965. Would you not get a truer view of the real state of unemployment in your city by some process of that kind?—(*Mr. Crowther.*) That means following up the investigation.

90966. Yes, it does?—The difficulty of following up the investigation is that the applicants then have false hopes that work is going to be found for them, and it would make people much more dissatisfied than they were before. (*Mr. Watson.*) And every subsequent enquiry for the purpose of ascertaining the present position of the person whose name is on the register would give renewed hopes that he was going to have work offered to him.

90967. Could you not get over that in some such way as saying that a man need only be on the register for, say, a month and then he must renew his application if he wishes to be retained there?—I do not think a month would be long enough.

90968. Perhaps not, but say for a certain limited time?—I think something in that direction might be done—every three months, even, might meet it.

90969. (*Chairman.*) If you gave cards or anything of that sort which only ran for a month, a man would have to come back and renew his card?—(*Mr. Crowther.*) That is so, but it would be more costly than the present system—that is all.

90970. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) It would cost something more, you think?—Yes.

90971. (*Chairman.*) But would you in that way be able to keep a more accurate register of the amount of unemployment?—Undoubtedly if a ticket that ran for a month was issued to each man, and at the end of the month, if he was still out of work, he must re-register his name or have it struck off, that would tend to reduce the number on the list of those really needing assistance.

90972. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) Take those cases you have referred to of the people who come on to the register with a view of throwing the responsibility, as it were, of their being out of work on to you, and therefore relying upon their wives and families to provide for them; would not those be proper cases to reject altogether?—(*Mr. Watson.*) The difficulty is in ascertaining which they are, because you cannot ascertain which they are until you have work to offer them.

90973. Supposing you offer work and they refuse it, might they not be rejected on their refusal?—I think it would be wise to have a regulation that anyone being offered work and refusing it without just cause, should not be eligible to have his name on the register for a couple of years.

90974. The kind of people to whom you refer are just the kind of people who ought to be sent to the Poor Law if they are destitute?—(*Mr. Crowther.*) That is so.

90975. You have suggested that the land purchasing clauses are useless "because the corporation, in forming a distress committee and knowing that they can fall of the land back upon the rates, thinks that it has done its duty towards the unemployed" and will not purchase land for them; that is what it comes to, I think?—Yes, there is great reluctance in purchasing land.

90976. Might that not be met, if the Act was made permanent, by enabling the distress committee to buy land themselves?—At present we buy land, but the corporation have to hold it.

Mr. Francis Watson and Mr. George M. Crowther.
21 Jan. 1908.

Question of revising the register from time to time.

Difficulty of following up the investigation.

A system of registration to be received monthly suggested.

Question of how to deal with those who register with no intention of accepting work.

Suggested amendment to the land purchasing clauses of the Unemployed Workmen Act.

Mr. Francis Watson and Mr. George M. Crowther. 90977. I will put it in another way: Might the difficulty be met by allowing the distress committee themselves to hold the land?—Yes.

21 Jan. 1908. 90978. Of course, they are not a corporate body now, but they might be made a corporate body?—(*Mr. Watson.*) Quite so.

90979. That would meet that difficulty, would it not?—Yes, it would.

Mr. Pringle's report as to men on the unemployed register displacing corporation employees. 90980. (*Mr. Bentham.*) Arising out of the question put by Mr. Gardiner with regard to the corporation employees who were walking about the streets at the time that the special work was provided by the corporation committee, I may quote to you from Mr. Pringle's Report: "In the winter of 1904-5 from 300 to 750 men from the unemployed list were employed under the Street and Drainage Department and it was estimated that the same number of the department's own men were walking about idle. Some had been forced to leave Bradford altogether. In consequence, in May, 1905, a register was made dividing men into those who had worked for the department over five and less than five years. Even then it was not possible to employ all the 'five-year and over men.'" This means that they graded their men afterwards with the intention of calling upon their older hands first?—In what year was that?

90981. This was in the year 1904-5, which was the year mentioned by Mr. Gardiner. I may say that that statement is entirely borne out by the surveyor. Then I may say that the number of men employed by the corporation just prior to this being started was 1,000, and when

they commenced to employ the unemployed the corporation were only employing ordinarily 570, so that they had dropped down 500 men who had been regular employees when they started these works for the unemployed?—I will take the opportunity of investigating that. I suppose it is Mr. Dawson's Statement that Mr. Pringle is relying upon. I think either Mr. Dawson has not understood it or Mr. Pringle has not, or else I have not—I do not know which it is.

As to this the witness subsequently sent the following note:—"With regard to both this and the previous question, I think there is some misapprehension. There is no doubt that the corporation, at a time when the ranks of the unemployed were swelled by a large number of corporation workmen out of work, did, by anticipating works, as I have before mentioned, offer work to the unemployed committee through the street and drainage committee, but as this work was not sufficient to provide labour for all the unemployed, many men, who had at some time been corporation employees, were still out of work, and had not registered their names on the employed register, were not included in the number, and may have walked the streets, but to say that the corporation dismissed any of their regular employees, in order to find work for the unemployed committee, or that any of the corporation's employees who were out of work, could have been in employment but for the operations of the unemployed committee is not correct. Pressure, however, was brought to bear upon the corporation to carry out some of the works it had borrowing powers for by corporation employees on regular lines, but this proposal was not accepted."

Mr. John Richmond Cooper.

Mr. JOHN RICHMOND COOPER, called; and Examined.

21 Jan. 1908. 90982. (*Chairman.*) You have been good enough to send us a paper relating to a particular class of work which you think might advantageously be carried out by distress committees, and if you will kindly hand it in we will treat it as your evidence-in-chief?—Certainly (*The Witness handed in the following Statement.*)

Town Clerk of Walsall. 1.—I have been Town Clerk of the County Borough of Walsall for the last 23 years, and had had 23 years' experience in municipal and local government administration previous to my appointment.

Statistics as to Borough. 2.—Walsall is a county borough in Staffordshire, and had a population of 86,430 according to the census of 1901. It is now estimated at 96,000. The borough is on the green borderland of what is known as "the Black Country," being ten miles north of Birmingham, six north-east of Wolverhampton, and seven of Dudley. The towns of West Bromwich, Wednesbury, and Darlaston adjoin it on the south and south-west.

3.—It is a purely manufacturing town, its staple trades being the tanning and currying of leather, the making of harness and saddlery, and also of tubes and all kinds of light iron castings. There are also some clothing factories of considerable size in the town.

Personal experience of work of distress committees. 4.—I have taken an active personal interest in matters relating to the relief of distress in the borough during the last 30 years, and am now clerk to the Distress Committee for the borough.

5.—It has been my experience that the greatest difficulty of a Distress Committee in dealing with applications for assistance is the provision of suitable work for applicants.

Necessity for providing "Spade and Barrow" work. 6.—In my opinion—and it is the result of my experience—"spade and barrow" work is the most suitable for the general class of applicants. Stone-breaking is too laborious, and unfitted for any except those who have been accustomed to it or similar work. To others it is more of a punishment than employment.

Suitability of pit mounds and waste lands. 7.—Within or on the confines of the Borough of Walsall there are some 300 or 400 acres of pit mounds or slag heaps, which would provide suitable employment in times of need if they could be acquired on reasonable terms, but from actual experience it is found that when a Local Authority seeks to acquire them the terms asked for are prohibitory.

Negotiations for purchase of pit mounds at Bentley. 8.—In 1906 I sought to acquire an area of 144 acres at Bentley, on the confines of the borough, with a view to the Distress Committee putting the unemployed

to work upon it, but could not succeed in my negotiations. The land was practically unenclosed, let at a nominal rent, I believe, of £10 per annum for the grazing on some parts of it on which grass grew, and I offered £750 for it, but this offer was refused, and the negotiations fell through. The land would have cost £200 per acre to level, which is considerably more than it would be worth when levelled, but the great advantage of its purchase would have been that it would have furnished suitable work for hundreds of men who at that time were on the verge of starvation owing to the depressed state of trade in our town.

9.—It has been proved by experience that these waste lands can be brought into cultivation by the expenditure of a moderate amount of money upon them. About 25 years ago the Corporation acquired 46 acres of pit mounds, known as "Reedswood." This has been converted into a public park after being used as a tip for ashpit refuse for some years, and there are now plenty of trees growing upon portions of it from 20 to 50 feet high, with butts 36 inches in circumference. The bulk of the levelling and spreading of street sweepings and soil was done in times of distress by the unemployed, under the supervision of the borough surveyor.

Other towns in the vicinity have since carried out similar works and converted like lands into parks (Wolverhampton and Wednesbury).

10.—In South Staffordshire it is computed that there are about 30,000 acres of pit mounds and spoil banks, which are capable of being dealt with in the like way. I submit a plan showing these lands which are indicated thereon by black patches.

11.—The Midland Reafforesting Association, of which Sir Oliver Lodge is president, are doing an excellent work in planting spoil banks and waste lands, and they estimate that there are 14,000 acres which could be planted at once if they could only obtain possession and the necessary funds were at their disposal to defray the cost of planting, which is not great. The Association employ casual labour for the preparation of the ground, and some of it has been obtained through Distress Committees.

12.—Local Authorities have two difficulties to deal with in acquiring land for public purposes—the first is that they possess no compulsory powers to compel an owner to sell—the second is that an owner usually asks such a high price, including compensation for prospective value, as to make the purchase impossible,

Mr. Pringle's report as to men on the unemployed register displacing corporation employees.

Waste lands can be brought into cultivation at reasonable cost. Experience at Reeds Wood.

Area of pit mounds, &c., in Black Country. Plan.

Work of the Midland Re-afforesting Association.

Difficulties in the way of Local Authorities acquiring lands.

except on such terms as are prohibitory. Where the price is to be settled by arbitration the proceedings are protracted and costly, and the authority has generally to pay the costs of the arbitration in addition to an extravagant price for the land.

13.—In the case of pit mounds, spoil banks and other similar lands, which in their present condition are practically unproductive to the owners, it is submitted that a distress committee, or the Local Authority appointing it, should be empowered to apply to a Court of Summary Jurisdiction, or the judge of a county court, to require any owner thereof to show cause why the land should not be taken by a distress committee for the purposes of the Act on such terms and conditions as the court or judge should think fair or reasonable, and in case of sufficient cause not being shown by the owner, the court or judge should be empowered to make an order vesting the land in the Distress Committee (or the Local Authority) on such terms and conditions as the court or judge might think fit. By this means the Distress Committee could obtain, without unnecessary delay, possession of suitable land and be able to provide work for many years for the unemployed, while unsightly pit mounds could be levelled and planted, and in course of time land now waste could be brought into cultivation and rendered fit for small holdings or allotments.

14.—I do not think that by adopting this course any great injury would be caused to a landowner. In its present condition the land is practically valueless to him. It would not be unreasonable to contend that the annual value of it to the owner should be determined by the amount at which it is assessed for rating purposes, as this represents the value on which the owner's contribution to the local rates is based.

90983. (*Chairman.*) You are both Town Clerk and Clerk to the Distress Committee of the County Borough of Walsall?—I am.

90984. I suppose your difficulty in that double capacity is in finding suitable work?—That is so.

90985. Work which does not compete with private enterprise, and yet would not be a sheer waste of money?—Yes.

90986. You have come to the conclusion that these mounds and slag heaps give rather a favourable opportunity for work?—I think so from my experience of pit mounds and slag heaps, and suchlike places. Altogether, as I have stated in my proof, there are about 30,000 acres in the Black Country, and from 400 to 500 acres in the borough which I represent.

90987. You have given us a map?—I have. (*Map not reproduced.*)

90988. A certain amount of work of this kind has been done by your corporation?—That is so. For some years past, whenever the opportunity has occurred, the corporation have found work in times of distress upon land over which they had control; but that work has now been exhausted; and after the distress committee was appointed under the Act of 1906 an effort was made to obtain additional land, so as to continue the employment, but that was found to be impossible. As you are aware, no compulsory powers are vested in local authorities for that purpose. They can only acquire by agreement, and that has been found to be next to impracticable.

90989. Let us look at this question from two points of view. Let us see to what purpose these heaps could be put; and next let us consider, assuming we come to the conclusion that some public advantage may accrue from their being dealt with, what machinery you would want to gain possession of them. On your map there are a number of little p's. Do they represent parks?—The p's denote parks.

90990. Sir Oliver Lodge's name is mentioned. Does he believe that you can make use of these spoil banks?—He does; and not only so, but the association of which he is the president have proved it by actual demonstration. They have already planted about 100 acres with trees.

90991. Have these deposits any special fertilising qualities at all?—No, I cannot say that; but trees will grow well upon them. Since sending you my Statement

I got the park-keeper to measure some trees for me, all of which have been planted since 1886 upon these pit banks, in a park which the corporation made out of 46 acres of this kind of land; and I find that I under-estimated in my Statement both the height and the girth of the trees. There are trees which since 1886 have grown to a height of 60 feet and have a girth of 60 inches. I have prepared a list of the different kinds of trees, the different heights, and the different girths, in case you would like to have the information.

90992. What is their general character? Are they deciduous trees, most of them?—They are black Italian poplar, wych elm, Huntingdon willow, alder, birch (the poorest land the birch will grow upon), the sycamore, the Lombardy poplar, the horse-chestnut, and the ash.

90993. They have all done fairly well?—They have all done very well; but it must not be forgotten that mixed up with the spoil bank was the town refuse, and consequently that would give some nourishment to the trees when planted; but some of the land which has been undertaken by the association of which Sir Oliver Lodge is the president has not had that advantage. That is simply the pit mound without any deposit upon it.

90994. Of course, there is a limit to the number of parks that localities could want. Is there any other purpose to which you could put them. Could you make them the sites of houses, or utilise them for building purposes?—Many of these pit mounds could at very slight expense be converted into useful land. I have many instances in my own mind in our own borough where that has been done. The truth is, to make them productive they want one of two things: they must either have labour or they must have capital spent upon them. It is no uncommon thing for a poor man to be allowed to cultivate some of these waste lands, to do rough levelling; and in course of years he is able to obtain a crop from them.

90995. Is your experience, which is, of course, of the Borough of Walsall, the same as that of other towns similarly situate; have they been able to make use of these?—Yes, a number of towns in South Staffordshire; for instance, Wolverhampton.

90996. These various p's, I suppose, mark parks which have been purchased?—Some of them refer to parks constructed out of ordinary land, they are not all parks constructed out of pit mounds. The towns in the immediate neighbourhood of Walsall which have constructed parks out of pit mounds are Wolverhampton and Wednesbury; they are the only two that I know of.

90997. These pit mounds, of course, ruin the landscape and they are almost a nuisance?—That is so.

90998. I suppose there is no power of proceeding against a person who piles up these nuisances?—None whatever.

90999. You have great difficulty as a corporation in acquiring possession of these?—That is so.

91000. Is that because theoretically if you purchase these heaps you have subterranean rights?—The moment a local authority seeks to purchase, that moment the vendor applies himself to see what value it is possible to attach to these lands, and, consequently, you have a fabulous price put upon them. For instance, some of the shale in the heap they say in course of time will be available for brickmaking, it may be they consider there are still some unworked measures of minerals underneath the land, and you have to face claims of that kind the moment you come to acquire the land.

91001. The claims under the ground seem to me rather a substantial difficulty?—They are.

91002. The claims above ground, I should think, could be more easily disposed of?—Your idea was that there under should be some compulsory power for getting possession of these?—I think that is the only way really of dealing with the matter. Such powers have been given under an Act of the last session of Parliament, the Small Holdings and Allotments Act, but as to these waste lands, these pit mounds, I think you want to go a step further even than that Act. If they are to be made of any use the local authority must be able to get early possession. There should be no waste of time in applying machinery.

Mr. John Richmond Cooper.

21 Jan. 1908.

Growth of trees on the pit mounds.

Pit-heaps require capital or labour spent on them.

Use to which pit mounds have been put in South Staffordshire.

Difficulties in the way of local authorities acquiring land.

Powers should be given under the Small Holdings Act 1907. Need for extension of these.

Mr. John
Richmond
Cooper.

21 Jan. 1908.

Land wanted
for distress
committees
for relief
works.

91003. We will put the character of the machinery on one side for the moment; supposing you get this power do you think you would in future years be able to find a certain amount of work?—Undoubtedly; I have not the slightest doubt whatever about it. This year if we could acquire a sufficient area of land, the distress committee would be able to put men to work upon it, and at the same time provide much needed employment for unemployed persons who are fit for employment.

91004. It would be a great boon?—A great boon, in my opinion, and I think that opinion is shared generally throughout South Staffordshire.

91005. Does your borough council hold that view?—It does.

91006. What you want is that where these mounds exists where no use is made of them and where they are an eyesore, that the local authority should obtain, on equitable terms, possession of them?—That is so, but the machinery should be of the simplest and most expeditious character.

91007. I expect if you applied for any such power your purchase would be limited to above ground?—Yes.

91008. You feel the difficulty about having sub-ground right?—I do. On the other hand, it is hardly reasonable to expect that a local authority should incur considerable expense in levelling and planting land and then find in the course of a few years that the mineowner has disposed of any remaining minerals there might be, and in working them the surface is disturbed; and it is impossible to work some of these mines without interfering with the surface.

91009. The surface rights there does not seem to be much doubt about, but it is working underneath. Would the working underneath affect the level above?—I want to point out if there is to be no reservation of the right to work underneath the surface, the actual working is almost certain to interfere with the surface, and consequently the work upon which public money has been expended might be of little value.

91010. Would that be so if the shaft was not in the immediate neighbourhood of the ground acquired. Of course, if anybody could make a fresh shaft through the ground you acquire to get at his rights below, that would seriously interfere with and depreciate the work done?—That would be so.

91011. How would working underground interfere?—The shaft is simply for the purpose of getting to the required depth to drive a heading to get out the coal. It is getting out the coal from underneath the surface by means of these headings which would let down the surface.

91012. Is there much land, the surface of which has subsided in the neighbourhood of Walsall?—Yes.

91013. That is not fit for building purposes?—There is a good deal of land all round Walsall underneath which the mines have been worked, but which have settled down, there being no further working. We have no mines in operation at the present time in our borough, except one undertaking at the extreme northern boundary.

91014. Do you think if there was any question of this kind, of giving additional powers, that you would get the neighbouring borough councils to combine with you in making the request?—I have not the slightest doubt about it. I believe they would all hail it as a measure of relief to the community generally.

91015. What purposes other than public parks could these be put to; could they make building sites?—Some of them could—others could be planted with timber of a kind suitable to be cut early and converted into crate wood and such like things. Some of this timber, as you see from the figures I have given you, is very quick in its growth, and is available for such purposes as I have indicated.

91016. The main objects would be to beautify, or stop the disfigurement of, the neighbourhood, and I suppose to give building sites?—I put it a little higher than that; the main object is to bring into use and for the service of the community, lands which at the present time are practically useless.

91017. And do away with disfigurement?—Yes.

91018. (Sir Samuel Provis.) I suppose you could need to acquire these lands now if you really wanted them for acquire land some specific purpose, could you not?—We do require urgent. them at the present moment.

91019. For any particular purpose?—Yes, to find employment for men who are out of work. To-morrow my distress committee are meeting to consider a number of cases of able-bodied men who have applied to the guardians for relief and have been referred on to the distress committee for them to see if it is possible to find work for them; but I was going to say it is impossible in our experience for a distress committee to find work from other people. They must provide the work themselves. The men who are out of employment, if it is possible to get work, would get it very much better themselves; they know where to look for it, and they get it very much better than any distress committee could for them from a third party.

91020. Have you, as a town council, had occasion to purchase any of these lands for any other purpose?—Yes, I could give you an illustration of what I did. Some few years ago we required a site for an isolation hospital. I had tried by negotiation to obtain a site by agreement, but without any result. An old colliery estate was put up to auction. I obtained a secret commission from my council to buy that estate if possible. I bought 40 acres for £1,300 and I have since been offered £200 more than I gave for the whole for the right to get the remaining minerals under it, to get the unworked measures, because the mine had been abandoned for more than twenty years, twenty-five years, when I made the purchase. I have been offered £1,500 for the minerals, leaving the corporation the right to the surface. If I had tried to buy that land by agreement, I should have had to give three times the money for it at least.

91021. Did you build your hospital?—Yes.

91022. On part of it?—Yes, we employed men at levelling it, and put the hospital upon it, and the hospital has been used repeatedly ever since.

91023. Has there been any working of the measures under that?—No, we have reserved the mines under that portion so as to preserve our hospital. We have done a considerable amount of planting upon it by our own workmen.

91024. Is it, in your experience, possible to acquire the surface rights with a covenant to support?—No.

91025. You see what I mean?—I quite follow, but it is not, and I will tell you why. If you require a covenant to support, the mineowner has to leave pillars of sufficient thickness to maintain that support, and he finds that a very great drawback to the working of the mine. Possibly you might induce him to do it, but you would have to make such a sacrifice in the shape of allowance from the royalty that it would hardly be worth while doing it.

91026. What I was thinking was, if you had compulsory powers would it be cheaper for you to acquire the surface rights subject to a covenant of that kind, or to purchase the land outright including the minerals?—I should say it would be much better that the purchase should be of the entire fee simple, including the minerals underneath the surface.

91027. Would that enable you to sell, or would you think it wise to sell the mineral rights, subject to a covenant to support, after you had acquired the whole of the property?—It would enable us to sell the minerals.

91028. Sometimes it would be prudent to sell the minerals?—Yes.

91029. Otherwise you would have the corporations placed in the position of having to work the mines?—Yes.

91030. Which you would not think desirable, probably?—No. I may say in nearly all the cases I have mentioned you will find the mineral rights of very little value, or they would never have been abandoned. There was some reason for abandoning them.

91031. In these places to which you refer the mineral rights generally are abandoned?—Yes, the whole of them.

91032. Your suggestion is that you should go to a court of summary jurisdiction or to the county court for acquiring these powers?—Yes.

91033. Which you would not think desirable, probably?—No. I may say in nearly all the cases I have mentioned you will find the mineral rights of very little value, or they would never have been abandoned. There was some reason for abandoning them.

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Question as to the best authority to be empowered to grant rights of compulsory purchase.

Extent of
rights which
distress
committees
want to
acquire.

Views of
neighbouring
borough
councils.

Possible
growth on
the pit-heaps
of timber to
be cut.

91033. That is rather a drastic proposal, is it not?—It is, but there is a little foundation for it; under the Lands Clauses Act the Justices have power to settle compensation to a limited amount.

91034. But only after the rights to acquire have been given by Parliament?—That is so.

91035. You propose going to the Justices for the right to acquire, I understand?—Yes, I want Parliament to give that right to the local authority.

91036. What is your objection to some such plan as was adopted under the Small Holdings Act of a Government Department having power to give such a right by simple order?—That would be better than what we have now, but even that machinery must take some time to bring it into operation, and it is to get rid of that waste of time that I want summary powers to be given either to the Justices or to the Judge of the county court.

91037. Is it not likely that Parliament would require some procedure whereby there was a good deal of notice to owners and opportunities given to persons concerned for objections, and so forth, even if you went to a court of summary jurisdiction for power, and that procedure would take time?—Yes, but you see a court of summary jurisdiction would be able to proceed with greater speed than the Local Government Board can.

91038. Even a court of summary jurisdiction must have some local investigation?—No doubt.

91039. And that is what takes time?—Yes.

91040. Therefore, in any case you cannot proceed quite with the rapidity that you can in recovering a civil debt?—I know that under any circumstances there must be a certain amount of time consumed before even a court of summary jurisdiction could do it.

91041. Would you not have the advantage in going to a Government Department that they would have a staff of skilled people who could make the investigation which a court of summary jurisdiction would not have?—I have no objection to that course; I am sure the Local Government Board recognise the necessity for expedition.

91042. (*Mr. Patten-MacDougall.*) About how many men does the Midland Re-forestation Association employ?—They obtain all their casual labour, I believe, from distress committees in the district in which they require it. They have only a few trained planters whom they occasionally employ; they have no permanent staff.

91043. Do they find that casual labour does its work well in planting?—That is so, They say it has worked very well indeed for all the rough work.

91044. Has that been going on since 1886?—For the last four years.

91045. Prior to that, because I think you said they started work in 1886, did they not?—That was the corporation. You are speaking now of the Midland Re-forestation Association. The corporation began work long before that association came into existence.

91046. The planting to which you allude in Paragraph 4 is planting which has been going on for a number of years with this result, that many of the trees are now 60 feet in height?—All that planting was done by the corporation.

91047. Has it been commercially a success? Have they begun to sell any of the wood yet?—No. Of course we have not planted from the commercial standpoint at all. The intention was to convert this 46 acres of spoil bank into a park, and that has been done; but I may say that to a large extent it has been used as a nursery for supplying trees to our other public parks in the borough. I am glad to say we are not limited to one, I think we have five or six at the present time; and the small trees were planted pretty close together, and then they have been thinned out for the purpose of being used in the other parks. This park is not enclosed in the sense of having an unclimbable fence. It is simply enclosed with a post and tube fence so that anybody could get over. We have a football ground, a cricket ground and an open bathing-place, and all the appurtenances of a public park there.

91048. The planting has been more with the view of amenity than commercial profit of any sort?—Yes.

91049. (*Mr. Phelps.*) Supposing you gained your end and secured the opportunity of purchasing the land in this way, what kind of number of people in Walsall have you for whom occupation of that sort is wanted?—Of course, that depends upon the amount of distress which is existing. My own feeling is that a distress committee ought not to hold itself out to find employment for all comers. I think that is a mistake.

91050. What class do you think they should cater for?—We should choose the genuine unemployed man who is thrown out of work through no fault of his own, and who is anxious to do work of some kind, and not able to find work. If you will allow me I will supplement that answer, because I think it may interest you. Our practice has been to find the men three consecutive days' work; we pay them at the rate of 4½d. an hour; and for three days they are at liberty to go and seek for employment elsewhere.

91051. Would it be your idea that you would have a permanent committee for the purpose of the unemployed, or would you think it is only needed at special seasons?—The distress committee should be permanent and would be able to make use of the land whenever necessity arose. They have at their back the trained staff of the corporation, I mean the borough surveyor and all his staff, who can render them whatever assistance is necessary whenever distress reaches such magnitude as to require work to be undertaken.

91052. I see that. What I was thinking is that your young forest might fall on times when the distress committee had no people they wanted to put on that kind of labour?—We should not go on then.

91053. There is constant and continuous work in forestry is there not, in keeping things in order?—Probably what we should do is: we have a large staff in connection with our public parks and any skilled work required to be done in connection with the planting, and so forth, would be done by that staff, but we should always have land available for use whenever necessity arose.

91054. Your idea would be that they should get it into rough order, and then hand it over to the authorities, who would look after it permanently?—Yes.

91055. And whenever the committee was reconstituted they should have a fresh piece?—Yes.

91056. Have you any idea of what number of people you can employ per acre that way?—No, I am afraid my knowledge does not go that far.

91057. Another question of difficulty has occurred to me: how near to your centre of operations could you find these spots?—That is an important question, because we have learned that it is a mistake to deport these men from their homes. If labour is to be of any service it must be where a man can get to and from his family. We could obtain suitable land within a mile and a half or two miles of the centre of our town.

91058. You would not be obliged to put up special housing?—No; we should not think of doing that.

91059. When your men are employed in this way how do you propose to provide for their wives and families?—As I told you the practice has been to pay 4½d. an hour, which is a little underneath the trade union rate of wages; but it is believed that that is a wise proceeding. If you find the men work at trade union rates they would never have any inducement to find work for themselves; and what one wants to do is to encourage them to look out for themselves, and get something better. Then as to the wives and families, a man is better off for three days' work a week at 2s. 8d. a day than on nothing; and occasionally we have relief funds and relief in kind has been given to the wives and families of the men employed.

91060. From voluntary sources?—Yes.

91061. Do you think that men engaged in work of this kind would be unfitted for going back to their ordinary work?—Not in work of this kind; I do not think it would unfit them.

91062. It would be spade work, would it?—Yes; that sort of man could do spade and barrow work, as I call it, because the pit mounds are not heavy material at all,

Mr. John Richmond Cooper.

21 Jan. 1908.

People whom the distress committee should help. Practice of Walsall Distress Committee.

Use to be made of the distress committee's land.

Work to be within two miles or so of the centre of the town.

Standard of wages paid on relief works for families.

Advantages of spade and barrow work.

Mr. John
Richmond
Cooper.

21 Jan. 1908.

they are light to handle ; and a man will do that work, and be able to go back and follow his ordinary employment. For instance, when the South African War was over we had an immense amount of distress amongst the saddlers and harness-makers. I know many men brought up to those trades who had worked at them all their lives who undertook this kind of work, and when trade got better went back and followed their own occupation.

91063. I was going to ask you with regard to the saddlery trade ; you do not think it would disqualify a man from that ?—No ; it is not like stone-breaking, which jars a man's muscles and unfits him for his trade.

91064. Have you a distress committee in work now ?—Yes.

91065. What employment do they find for the unemployed ?—At the present time they have no means of finding employment. It is useless going round to manufacturers who already have more men than they can keep going.

91066. They have not started stone-breaking yards yet ?—We have not started that ; there is a meeting to-morrow to consider what can be done.

91067. (Professor Smart.) With regard to your calculation in Paragraph 8 as to the area of 144 acres, it was estimated it would cost £200 an acre to level ?—Yes, that is to make it perfectly level, or make it fit for building purposes.

91068. That would be a cost of £28,800 ?—It would.

91069. And you offered £750 for it ?—I did, because the levelling which the distress committee would undertake would be of a very different character to that which would be necessary to fit the land for building purposes. It would only be such rough levelling as would be necessary to fit it for agricultural purposes.

91070. Then it would not have cost £200 to level ?—We should not have spent £200 upon it.

91071. You would not ?—As a fact we should probably have spent not more than £20 an acre upon it at the outside.

91072. Still £20 even would be a very considerable sum ?—It would ; but when I say £20 I mean for levelling and planting. The tree planting would be a very trifling matter when the levelling was in hand.

91073. You look forward to work of this sort costing you a very great deal ?—I look upon it as the cheapest kind of work we can undertake to find employment fitting for the men who are likely to avail themselves of it.

91074. You are thinking of suitable work ?—I am ; I think I used that expression.

91075. Certainly not remunerative ; I should be inclined to say certainly very unremunerative, but probably it is the best you can make of it. You think it would cost less to employ the men in that way than in any other way you can think of ?—I certainly think it would.

91076. Even on a labour colony ?—Yes ; personally I have had no experience of a labour colony, but so far as my knowledge goes, the objection to a labour colony is that you remove men from their families, and the man loses the interest he ought to have in the maintenance of his family in consequence. He looks upon his family as being created for the State to take charge of.

91077. That is all true, but still even at £20 an acre, you are making this land cost £3,000, to begin with ?—That is very likely, but we could easily spend £3,000 on the relief of distress without getting any return whatever for our money.

91078. (Mr. Bentham.) There were 144 acres : did you offer £750 for the lot ?—Yes, £750 for the whole. It is a fact that for some eight or ten years that land had not been producing more than £10 a year, and there is no probability of its producing more.

91079-80. (Professor Smart.) Is nothing done with those spoil banks ?—No. These spoil banks will be probably from 15 feet to 20 feet in height from the surface

of the ground, between them there will probably be a valley of 15 or 20 feet, sometimes more. In that valley a little herbage will grow in the course of time, and somebody will take it and turn a poor cow or two on it, and graze it for what it is worth. That is the only practical use they can turn it to until some money has been spent on it.

91081. In Scotland we have found two remunerative uses for this, we make it first of all into red "blaes" when near a city where you have a demand for red cinders, and it has been found profitable to make it into bricks, so that our heaps round Glasgow are used in these remunerative ways. May it not be the case that your landowners, knowing of this, are waiting till invention goes a little further south ?—It is a case of hope deferred maketh the heart sick, I think.

91082. (Mr. Bentham.) What number of unemployed have you on the register that you could deal with at the present moment ?—I could not tell you at the present time. To our knowledge there will be perhaps from fifty to sixty applicants, but the moment it is known that work can be provided you will have ten times that number. Of course, the practice has been to weed out the worthless ones, for I may tell you that I think 75 per cent. of the applicants are perfectly useless as workmen, they never have worked, they never want to work, what they want to get is the daily wage which is paid them.

91083. What percentage would you put it at ?—75 per cent. I should think.

91084. Is there much need in your district for any provision for dealing at all with the able-bodied. Are not they able to take care of themselves and provide for unemployment ?—No, there are times, and especially after a stress of bad weather such as we have had, when outdoor workers who never earn sufficient to save much, and whose habits prevent them from saving anything, must have relief of some kind ; that is it must either be from the guardians or it must be through the instrumentality of distress committees.

91085. Having regard to the habits of the 75 per cent. do you think it advisable to hold out inducements for work at any time that they may need it ?—No, it is not desirable to hold out inducements, but it is desirable that the deserving minority should be provided for.

91086. In operation can you confine the working of the Act to the deserving cases that you have in mind ?—You mean the tendency to attract ?

91087. No, the tendency to deal with those who are less deserving ?—The tendency of the Act has been to check relief given to that class. I think the Act has worked exceedingly well in that respect ; the distress committee have taken the trouble to carefully enquire into every application, and they have weeded out the worthless and sent them on to the Board of guardians.

91088. Under the distress committee you mean that more discrimination has been exercised than there was formerly by the town council ?—Yes, because the town council were not trained to the work ; the distress committees have had experience, and every member of it is experienced in giving relief now.

91089. Have you sufficient faith in a body such as the distress committee is in so administering the Act that these people whom you have said are not deserving under the terms of the Act do not get employment under the committee ?—Only the deserving in my opinion are obtaining employment.

91090. You maintain that that is so now ?—I do, and it is to provide employment for the deserving that I am anxious to obtain these powers.

91091. Would the 25 per cent. be practically the deserving and the 75 per cent. undeserving ?—I should say 25 per cent. would be thoroughly deserving cases.

91092. Have you been able to deal with that quantity at any period since the passing of the Act ?—Yes, more than the quantity ; because immediately after the passing of the Act there was a good deal of distress, and it enabled us to deal with it at that time. Some of the men were employed in double digging at the sewage farm, some were put on levelling some lands we had of

No work
provided by
the distress
committee at
present.

Attempt of
the distress
committee
to acquire
land.

Cheapest
kind of
work that is
suitable for
relief works.

The disad-
vantages of
labour
colonies.

Uselessness
of spoil
banks at
present.

Uselessness
of 75 per
cent. of the
applicants
on the register.

Inability of
many out-
door workers
to save.

Improved
efficiency
the distress
committee
in giving
relief.

Only the
deserving
are obtain
relief.

Work to
which the
men em-
ployed had
been put

our own, some were engaged in lowering a road which required lowering, because after all up to the present time the corporation is the only body that has been able to find work. You cannot get work found by outsiders.

91093. Is there much work in the local ity for women and children?—No, I should say not, not outdoor work. In our leather trades both women and girls are employed in stitching and so forth, but there are no women working out-of-doors with us.

91094. I meant ordinary employment for women and children in the district?—There are a good number of women and girls employed, but our school age is fourteen, so they are getting a little past children when they are able to go to work.

91095. Are married women employed much?—In some of our local trades they are.

91096. I was only thinking if there was much employment for women and children there would not be the same amount of distress through want of employment as there would be had there been no employment for women and children, which obtains in some districts?—I admit that, but you must bear in mind, if you please, that the proportion of working women and children is very small with us, and there are many instances where a working man would be hardly able to keep a home at all except for the earnings of his children.

91097. Are you satisfied that it is necessary to renew the Act?—My own impression is that the Act should be renewed with certain amendments: one of the amendments being the one I am here for the special purpose of advocating before you to-day.

91098. Any others?—Yes, I furnished the Secretary of this Commission with some particulars of the points which I was authorised by my committee to ask for. The first was that power should be given to distress committees to provide suitable temporary work by opening labour yards, or workshops, and acquiring land for spade work (which is the object I am speaking about now) without any restriction as to the character of the work. Then there should be provision for the contribution of a sufficient sum from the Imperial Exchequer to defray the expenditure of distress committees in carrying out the Act. Voluntary contributions have become a thing of the past, I am satisfied of that, to a very great extent. It is quite possible under exceptional circumstances that a limited amount may be obtained, but no great amount will ever be obtained as long as those best able to pay have to pay through their rates. Then there is the compulsory power of the distress committee to acquire lands. The removal of the obligation to obtain money by voluntary contributions for the reasons I have just mentioned; and the extension of the provisions of the Act to emigration so as to apply to families of married men who have already emigrated. If you would allow me, I would like to say a word upon that. The distress committee have sent a number of men into Canada, some of them were married men with families. The men have not found it the golden land they thought they would when they went. They can get a living for themselves, and they have to work hard for it, because I have been in personal touch with some of these men. When they went out their wives and families were left behind, and they have had to be helped by the board of guardians. It would be a good thing if the distress committee could provide the means for sending the wives and families out to join the men. One of the men in a letter I got a fortnight ago said if his wife and family could be got out he thought he could provide a home for them by about the middle of April. In some of these cases the men were sent out not by the distress committee but by voluntary assistance, some of the Church clergy took an interest in them and raised funds sufficient to pay the passage out, the reason for that being that the men were disqualified from assistance at the hands of the distress committee owing to their having been in receipt of parish relief within the prescribed period.

91099. The distress committee has power, has it not to emigrate whole families?—This is the case where the men have gone out and the families are left behind, and in some cases the men were not relieved by the distress committee.

91100. You mean you want to have power to send a family after the man has already been emigrated by other means?—Yes, I would give that power.

91101. The board of guardians can do that, cannot they?—I know they can, but the board of guardians are not always easy to move.

91102. Are they less easy than a distress committee or a corporation?—I think they are. The guardians see the worst side of the life of the poor, and naturally it makes them a little hard in dealing with them. I am not blaming the guardians, I think they exercise frequently a very wise discretion.

91103. The guardians know more about the cases than the distress committee, is that what you mean?—No, I do not say that; what I do say is that the guardians see the worst side of the poor, the very worst, and naturally, because they have to deal with the lowest. Now the distress committee do not see that worst side, they see a better class of the poor who are entitled to relief as much as the poorest class which the guardians do relieve are.

91104. Is it not true that the guardians see all round the case; they see the good side and the bad side?—I have not said the guardians do not.

91105. A distress committee could not see more than that, though they could see less?—It is possible they see less than the guardians, I admit that much.

91106. (Mr. Patten-MacDougall.) Were these men emigrated with the assistance of the Canadian Government or the Salvation Army, or what machinery was used?—We sent the first batch through the Salvation Army. The Salvation Army took a good deal of trouble, but they lost touch with the men. I believe the Salvation Army undertook too much work, and that consequently they were not able to follow up the emigrants when once they landed in Canada. From the time we sent them until now we have never been able to get any record of what the men were doing, except those who communicated with me personally.

91107. Did they decline to have anything to do with the emigration of the wives and children?—They decline unless a contribution can be made sufficient to cover their expenses. You see the Salvation Army have some very heavy claims on them; I give them credit for all the good they do, or try to do. I think they try to do too much in relation to this emigration question. That is my own personal view.

91108. (Mr. Bentham.) You advocate an Imperial grant for the purpose of paying wages rather than through voluntary contributions, is that not so?—I am not sure that I follow your question.

91109. You say that the day of voluntary contributions has gone, and you advocate that an imperial grant should be given?—I do.

91110. That means for the payment of wages, does it not?—Certainly, and for all the expenses attendant upon the execution of the Act by a distress committee.

91111. You would even go further than the payment of wages, you would go as far as the "fixed expenses of the committee"?—I would.

91112. Would you leave it in the hands of the local committee to deal with the question just as they thought fit, although they were spending imperial funds and not local funds?—Yes, subject to supervision by the inspectors of the Local Government Board. The distress committee have received great assistance from the Poor Law inspectors in the discharge of their duties, and advice too.

91113. Do you mean special inspectors or the Local Government Board Poor Law inspectors?—The Local Government Board Poor Law inspectors.

91114. Then you really bring this under the purview of the Poor Law in that way?—Certainly.

91115. Do you not think really it is only another branch of the Poor Law problem?—Yes.

91116. Do you see any reason why the guardians by some re-formed board of guardians should not deal with the whole matter?—Yes, the complete abhorrence on the part of the honest worker, even though out of employment, to being stigmatised as a pauper by his application to the board of guardians.

Mr. John Richmond Cooper.

21 Jan. 1908.

Powers of the board of guardians.

Men emigrated through the Salvation Army. Refusal of the Salvation Army to emigrate their families.

Imperial grant? advocated with supervision by the Local Government Board.

by Abhorrence of honest worker to applying to board of guardians.

Mr. John
Richmond
Cooper.

21 Jan. 1908.

Abhorrence
of honest
worker to
applying to
board of
guardians.

91117. Can you conceive a Poor Law being so framed that it would make provision for the employment of this class?—I would rather see the law before I expressed an opinion upon it.

91118. I wanted your views on the principle?—I have already put before you my view. The particular thing I want is that you should use your influence as a Royal Commission to get these amendments of the law.

91119. To sum it all up, it is a question of relief, is it not, and you really relieve the able-bodied by providing them with employment. What difference is there in principle between relieving such a man, however respectable, and a respectable man who happens to be in want because he is sick. You allow him to go to the Poor Law with impunity, but the man who is able to work and who would be better able to take care of himself than a sick man you want some special provision made for; why for him and not for the other?—In dealing with the existing state of things, you must take into account the natural prejudice in the minds of the poorer class of people, and their prejudice is against applying to the Poor Law guardians for relief. I could give you dozens of cases where men have starved, positively starved, rather than make the application, respectable men who earned good wages as artisans, and have sold their furniture, everything has drifted away from them, and they would stay at home and starve rather than apply to the board of guardians. That is no uncommon occurrence.

91120. You do not grant that people should get relief on their own conditions, do you?—Certainly not. I think there should be the strictest possible investigation.

91121. Would you let people make their own conditions, because it is difficult to conceive conditions which will not be repugnant to them, and at the same time be in the interests of the community as a whole?—No, I would not let anybody make their own conditions. I think there wants to be a controlling authority, such as a distress committee, which is also controlled by the Local Government Board.

91122. But really it is the conditions of the Poor Law which are repugnant, and not the thing itself. People will go with impunity to the Poor Law in some places, and they will not in others?—That may be; I am only speaking of my knowledge of the poorer classes of the town I come from. I am not going to say but what the Poor Law is wise, although I think it is capable of great amendment. I think perhaps it is well administered by those authorised at the present time to administer it.

91123. From your experience in Walsall you think it is necessary for another body to deal with the respectable able-bodied unemployed?—I think it is well that there should be a separate authority to deal with the genuine worker who is thrown out of work as distinguished from the loafers, the street corner men, who are better dealt with as members of the pauper class and referred to an authority like the Poor Law guardians.

91124. Do you recognise the right of every man to be found employment or subsistence?—No, I do not.

91125. Then your proposal would have its limitations?—What I propose is this, that there should be an authority

with power to give work in cases where they think it is desirable to give such work.

91126. And also where they can provide suitable work?—Certainly, that is my argument, that it should be suitable work that is provided.

91127. Does that not leave it open for the workman to feel that at any rate the community will provide work for him when he is out of employment if he behaves himself, but not if he commits a slip: if he walks straight yet spends his money as he goes along and makes no provision, the community would provide honourable labour for him?—No, my own personal knowledge of working men is just the opposite. I believe they are too proud to apply for relief as long as they can help themselves.

91128. It is said that State provision always reduces the amount of self-provision: you do not hold with that?—It may be so; on the other hand: Is the State to stand on one side and see men starve when it is possible to give them work to do? Danger of reducing amount of self-reliance.

91129. There is a provision you know by law that no person need starve?—I know, but then you brand at once the starving man as a pauper.

91130. (Mr. Lansbury.) There has been a very large extension of public provision through various circumstances during the past 100 years?—Undoubtedly. Extension of public provision recently.

91131. And in the main people appear to have benefited by that public provision in sanitary arrangements, education, public lighting and so on?—Certainly.

91132. You are arguing, so far as I understand it, that when a man is out of employment because there is no means of his getting employment, the State cannot stand on one side and say that man shall starve?—That is my view. Duty of the State towards the unemployed.

91133. And you do not think the public provision made seventy years ago under the Poor Law Act is the proper provision for what we see at the present time?—I agree with that.

91134. In your proposal with regard to afforestation, as I understand it, the question of the cost is not so much the question that is in your mind, but the prevention of the men whom you are dealing with falling into a lower class than you find them in?—That is so. Object of relief works.

91135. You want to prevent deterioration of character?—I want to raise him rather than to lower him. I do not want him to get into the pauper class, I want to keep him above it.

91136. I gather from your statement the reason you advocate this work of afforestation and planting parks, and that kind of thing, is because it could be dropped when there is no need for it?—Precisely. Class of work suitable for relief-works.

91137. And the upkeep of this kind of place is not very much after the initial work has once been done?—It is very small indeed.

91138. One other question about the 75 per cent. of worthless: would you really say of all those you find out of employment that they are worthless because of their own bad character, or because of bad physique, or their not being properly developed mentally?—I quite follow you: the 75 per cent. I referred to are men who are either physically incapable of work, or are morally unfit for it. Physical or moral unfitness of 75 per cent. of the unemployed.

Mr. Thomas
Richardson.

21 Jan. 1908.

Experience
of witness.

Mr. THOMAS RICHARDSON, called and Examined.

91139. (Sir Samuel Provis.) You have been a member of the corporation of Newcastle-on-Tyne for a great many years?—I have.

91140. You are an Alderman, a Justice of the Peace and Chairman of the Trade and Commerce Committee, and have held other offices which have given you a great deal of local knowledge in respect of Newcastle-on-Tyne?—That is so.

91141. You have prepared a Statement which we propose to treat as your evidence-in-chief if you will kindly hand it in?—Certainly. (The Witness handed in the following Statement.)

1. I have been a member of the Newcastle Corporation for thirty years, am an Alderman, a Justice of the Peace, Chairman of the Trade and Commerce Committee and the Schools and Charities Committee of the Corporation, and Chairman of the Dredging and River Works Committee of the River Tyne Commission. During these thirty years I have taken an active part in the affairs of the city.

2. I have not been a Poor Law guardian since the magisterial *ex-officio* qualification was abolished, but as a public man I have kept myself informed upon all public affairs.

3. A labour bureau was formed, as a department of the corporation, some two or three years ago. The proposal was not opposed in the council, the majority of the members thinking it could do no harm and might do good. It was an experiment merely, but looked upon with suspicion, inasmuch as it had a socialist origin and at the beginning a notorious socialist was appointed secretary. This bureau became practically identified with the "unemployed committee" which sprang into existence after the passing of the Unemployed Bill. The bureau has not been a success, and there was no necessity whatever, so far as Newcastle is concerned, for the Unemployed Bill.

4. There has been no abnormal distress arising out of unemployment for a considerable period. The coal trade—with its allied industries, shipping and rail transit (witness North Eastern Railway Company returns)—have been brisk. The manufacturing and shipbuilding yards have been well employed—some of them so busy as to necessitate the taking on of a considerable number of new hands. Skilled labour has had ample opportunities for employment. Unskilled labour has had nearly equal opportunities. The returns of the local Trades Society, published either monthly or quarterly, have made it clear that employment has been good and regular, with one exception—the building trade. After being extremely active, some two or three years ago, that trade has been slack. Speculative builders are engaged largely in erecting houses for the working classes, a considerable portion of which remain unoccupied. This has seriously hit that part of the trade. On the other hand large public building and street improvements have employed a large number of men. In my opinion the speculative branch of the building trade has been adversely affected by the policy of the corporation, who, during the last two or three years, have been erecting dwellings for the working classes. This policy has restricted if not paralysed the speculative trade. With the sole exception of the building trade, all others have been fairly prosperous and the workmen well engaged.

5. It is difficult to ascertain the exact or even approximate number of the unemployed, the returns of the bureau including women engaged in all kinds of pursuits, waiters whose employment is chronically precarious, and a large percentage composed of those who have no adaptability, no training, hangers on, who believe in "jobs," not constant work, and a portion with a "history."

6. It may be taken as a fact—there is no chronic distress by reason of unemployment—and when such distress has arisen in the past, it has been occasioned by severe winters, stopping outdoor work, and by the fluctuation and depression of certain trades.

7. The Poor Law guardians for some time past have experienced no abnormal pressure, but have been and are quite qualified to cope with the difficulty.

8. I think it is highly probable that the institution of the Bureau and Unemployed Committee drew a considerable number of so-called unemployed from outside the city.

9. It must also be remembered that in the best of times, even when there is "a boom" in trade, there is always a considerable number of men on the list of the unemployed. In the case of the organised trades unionists this number is said never to represent less than about 2½ per cent., in the case of non-unionists following similar trades about 3½ per cent.; in the case of organised labourers about 4 per cent., and unorganised labourers 6 per cent. of the total number.

10. The causes of unemployment are difficult to define, and I speak generally:—

(1) I think it is beyond doubt that the effect of the Workmen's Compensation Act has made it extremely difficult for men over a certain age or with any physical defect to obtain employment.

(2) The tyrannical action of trades unions when these are not controlled by thoughtful and far-seeing men. Their action sometimes paralyses industries and leaves results from which it takes years to recover.

(3) Ordinary causes always operating in large cities—*drink*, laziness, want of thrift and application. A goodly number of men believe in "jobs," casual work, not constant employment.

11. As there is no abnormal want of employment and consequently no abnormal distress here, I need not dwell upon the effects. Whenever serious distress has arisen here, say by severe winters, etc., public sympathy has always been evoked. Voluntary distress committees have been formed, money has flown in plentifully, and district or ward sub-committee have administered the necessary relief after investigation into the cases. Even then voluntary there has been a considerable amount of malingering, and caution has had to be exercised.

12. The remedies for unemployment are less legislation, less Government and municipal interference. I have no hesitation in saying that the Unemployed Act will have a most deteriorating effect on the *morale* of that class of the community who are not eager for work. It can only intensify the evil, and especially if loss of vote or *status* is not to follow State or municipal assistance.

13. Any exceptional distress can be met by the community (not when chronic) and by giving more elasticity and power to the Poor Law authorities.

14. To ask the municipality to provide work—as I have argued in the council—*can be no remedy*—it is hardly a palliative—on the other hand is more likely to accentuate the evil. If special work is to be *created this year*, the work wont be required *next*, and another danger is, that the provident and regular workman will be ousted by such provision. After mature consideration I have come to the conclusion that municipal provision of work will intensify the evil and in the end increase the number of the unemployed.

15. The reflex action on the members of the governing body is extremely demoralising.

16. "Back to the land" is the universal panacea. Being in the grain trade and with some knowledge of agriculture and country life—whilst extremely anxious to see some of the surplus population of urban districts back to the land—I am extremely dubious as to the success of such an experiment. The exodus of the people from country to town has a history and a meaning. The change in the conditions of farming and of so much arable land being changed to pasture is not an accident but an evolution, and is the outcome of economic laws and the wants of the British population.

17. A well considered, well organised, assisted scheme of emigration is *the remedy*. If unemployment arises from congestion of population and labour, there is no other remedy. It will not destroy the feeling of self-respect, but on the other hand recognise it and encourage it. Many of the unemployed require to be lifted out of their old roots and environments, and given a chance of correcting old habits, and, under entirely new conditions, work out their own salvation. Many sons of well-to-do parents who have gone to Canada (for instance) have applied themselves to work there that they would not have touched here.

18. Canada (to wit) is in urgent need of skilled and unskilled labour, and to plant the unemployed there is not transportation—not starving this country—but only placing them in another part of their own dominions—amongst their own kin and people—and in conditions which will enable every willing worker to find work and better himself in position, means, health—and in opportunities for his children.

91142. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) I gather that a labour bureau was opened by the corporation before the passing of the Unemployed Workmen Act? Did that labour bureau do anything to obtain work itself, or did it merely register the names of persons who wanted to get employment, or wanted to get employees?—It registered the names, and then did seek to get situations if it possibly could for the applicants.

91143. Therefore to a certain extent it did work of a similar kind to that of the distress committee?—Yes.

91144. Were the expenses of that defrayed by the corporation itself?—And private subscriptions.

91145. Practically did the private subscriptions cover the cost?—No. For the first two years, I think, the expenses were mostly in salaries and office expenses.

91146. They were borne by the corporation?—Yes.

Mr. Thomas Richardson.

21 Jan. 1908.

Relief of distress in the past by voluntary charity.

Remedies for unemployment.

Deteriorating effect of Unemployed Act.

Proposed greater elasticity to Poor Law Authorities

Effect on governing body.

The "Back to the land" panacea.

A well considered scheme of emigration *the remedy*.

Operations of the corporation labour bureau before the Unemployed Workmen Act.

Expenses, how defrayed.

Mr. Thomas Richardson. 91147. You say in Paragraph 4 there has been no abnormal distress arising out of unemployment for a considerable period. Your statement was sent in some time ago?—In July.

21 Jan. 1908. Increase in unemployment since the Statement was sent in difficult to explain. 91148. Is that quite the case now?—It is not exactly the case to-day.

91149. You might, perhaps, like to explain that a little?—It is very difficult to explain. There are two very strong facts we have to face; there are the returns, for instance of the North Eastern Railway Company and the River Tyne Commissioners—two unfailing barometers of the condition of trade in the North of England, because you will remember the North Eastern Railway Company covers from the Humber to the Tweed, it has the monopoly of railway transit, and their returns in 1906 and 1907 are higher than they have ever been; they have reached a record. The river Tyne Commissioners are a similar barometer for the city of Newcastle-on-Tyne and the neighbourhood. In 1906 their gross receipts were the highest on record, and I am told by the clerk (I am a member of the commission) that 1907 will exceed 1906. All that is an unfailing barometer of the state of trade in our district, therefore it is difficult to account for the number of unemployed increasing except from this fact, that they generally do increase in the winter months. The shipbuilding trade is not now so good, they have not now so many orders; I believe several men have been discharged, and the building trade is extremely depressed, and these, no doubt, have contributed to the increased numbers of the unemployed at the present moment.

Work provided by the distress committee at Newcastle. 91150. In point of fact the distress committee are taking steps, are they not, to provide work at Newcastle?—They are.

91151. And they have a good many applicants?—The corporation really are doing it all; they are providing the work so far.

91152. I forget what the work is?—The Agricultural Show is being held in Newcastle next year, and the levelling and the turfing and the laying of the water conduit pipes is being done by the unemployed. Of course, that work would have gone into other hands. Then there is some levelling down on the estate at Walker, and road-making, and so on.

Question whether the unemployed committee draws in unemployed from outside Newcastle. 91153. You suggest that it is possible, and indeed probable, that the institution in the borough of an unemployed committee drew a considerable number of the unemployed from outside into Newcastle?—Yes.

91154. Do you think by that they come to reside permanently in Newcastle?—Yes I do, they slide in from the adjoining districts.

91155. Of course, they would not be entitled to assistance from the committee, would they, until they had resided a year in Newcastle?—They would not be entitled until they had resided for twelve months.

91156. But they do, in your experience, qualify themselves in that way?—That is borne out by the report of the secretary of the distress committee, Mr. Wood himself, who says they do.

Always a considerable number of unemployed. 91157. In Paragraph 9 you point out that there are always a considerable number of men unemployed: that is not altogether satisfactory, is it?—I have taken it from their own records. I think it is the normal conditions.

91158. I am not questioning the fact, but merely asking whether it does not seem to you that that is an unsatisfactory state of things to some extent?—I do not think it can be considered a very unsatisfactory state of things.

Unionists supported by their unions. 91159. You divide them into two classes—the unionists, and the non-unionists?—Yes.

91160. In the case of the unionists they are supported for a time by their unions?—They are.

91161. Therefore they do not come on the community at large?—No.

Unorganised labourers by the Poor Law and by charity. 91162. With regard to the others, how do they live?—Do you mean the unorganised labourers?

91163. Yes; how do they live when they are out of employment?—That is very difficult to answer. Some of them, of course, have to call upon the Poor Law board;

but in Newcastle-on-Tyne whenever there has been this winter depression a subscription list has been opened, and the money on the whole has been very fairly supplied by the community to tide over the difficulty.

91164. Has there been a diminution in the subscriptions, since the Unemployed Workmen Act started?—Yes; and that is likely to increase.

91165. You think that is attributable to the Act?—Yes.

91166. Is it not partly attributable to the fact that you have had pretty good times in Newcastle?—I do not think it is likely that people are going to pay out of the rates or Imperial taxes and at the same time pay out of their private benevolence.

91167. Has there yet been an appeal for subscriptions this year?—The Lord Mayor has raised a mayor's subscription fund but there has not been a satisfactory response, I think, for that reason.

91168. What amount have they got this year?—I think including £500 from the Miners' Association and a considerable sum, I think £500, from the Wholesale Co-operative Society (I will not swear to the figure of the Co-operative Society, but I know the Miners' contribution is £500); the total was £1,700 when I left home.

91169. I think your view generally would be opposed to the Unemployed Workmen Act?—Yes.

91170. You think the matter might be left entirely to the Poor Law and to private charity?—I think it intensifies the evil, and is calculated to do so.

91171. The difficulty with the Poor Law is this, is it not, that there are certain classes of people who do not like to resort to the Poor Law and yet who do need assistance?—Yes.

91172. How do you meet that?—That is the crux of the whole question, I admit, and it is a very difficult question to answer.

91173. Have you formed any opinion as to it in your own mind, or any solution of it?—Not any solution; it is a very thorny question.

91174. It is to meet that difficulty that the Act is designed?—Yes; but it does not meet it.

91175. No alternative suggestion presents itself to you that is likely to be satisfactory?—I have no alternative suggestion in my own mind at the moment, not to meet that particular phase of the question.

91176. Your own remedy is really emigration, as I understand?—I do not say that entirely; but if the contention is that there is a congestion of labour, and that that is a permanent congestion, it seems to me the only sensible plan is a well-ordered scheme of emigration.

91177. Do you find that the class you wish to help are willing to emigrate?—That I have had no experience of to enable me to say; but I do not see why they should not be. Let me just state this: it is well known to all around here that there is no doubt the middle classes have done the colonisation of our Empire in the past, and are doing it yet; and if the sons of the middle classes go to the colonies to build up their own fortunes as well as the Empire I do not see why the working classes should not go also. I speak feelingly; I have two sons in Canada, and one on his way to Australia.

91178. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Are there any figures published in regard to Paragraph 8, the paragraph in which you drawn into say that a considerable number of so-called unemployed the city were drawn into the city?—There are no actual numbers from outside that I can refer you to; but I know that Mr. Wood, Causes of the Secretary of the distress committee, confirms what this. I say.

91179. It is the "considerable number" that I am rather upon?—Quite so, I understand your point. I think in a large city like Newcastle you may assume that as a certainty.

91180. Is that because the unemployed committee was set up? There were unemployed committees set up everywhere; I do not quite see why they should want to travel round and lose their rights?—It is because they got the impression, I take it, that the corporation of Newcastle is bound to provide them with work.

Effect of Unemployed Workmen Act on charity.

Defects of the Unemployed Workmen Act.

Difficulties in connection with the Poor Law.

Emigration as a remedy.

Unemployed

91181. But they cannot get it until they have resided a year. If they stayed in their own district they could get it at once, because everywhere there were unemployed committees, it was not singular to Newcastle?—They may have unemployed committees; but they have not the power to employ men such as the corporation of Newcastle possesses. They have not the facilities.

91182. Did the corporation of Newcastle find such a great lot of work for the people? Have you any figures as to how much they did do?—I have given you the actual work.

91183. The kind of work, I know, but the number of those who registered and the number of unemployed are very different things. To the number who registered the proportion who were employed is quite tiny, I believe?—There is a very remarkable fact concerning that, that out of 2,700 applicants at the bureau, after 2,300 being found employment for, only 300 reported themselves, I think.

91184. Have you the reason why they did not report themselves?—It is impossible for me to give that. I am not on the committee. I only state the fact from the report.

91185. Then Paragraph 8 is only a matter of observation; there are no real figures about it?—We have no absolute figures as to Paragraph 8.

91186. Then to go back to Paragraph 3, you say that the bureau has not been a success, and that so far as Newcastle is concerned the Unemployed Bill was not necessary?—Yes.

91187. Of course, a good many people in Newcastle thought it was necessary, and still think it was necessary. do they not?—That is very possible.

91188. The people who are working the Act?—That is very possible.

91189. You have not worked the Act, have you; you have had no experience in working it?—I am not a member of the committee.

91190. You are in the position of the happy outsider who perhaps sees most of the game?—I see most of the game; you are quite right.

91191. Your opinion happens to be entirely opposed to those who happen to have had experience in the matter?—No, I do not think that.

91192. The people who have formed the distress committee?—Yes.

91193. I suppose you will admit they have had some experience?—Yes; but I am not quite prepared to say they endorse the Act.

91194. We have their returns; we need not argue about it. Are there any figures about Paragraph 10, Section (1)?—No; it is impossible to obtain figures on that point; but that is an acknowledged fact in our district.

91195. You are an employer, are you not?—I am not personally a large employer of labour, indirectly I am.

91196. Have you any information as to the action of insurance companies with regard to men?—Yes.

91197. Whether insurance companies stipulate that only robust young men should be employed?—They do not stipulate that.

91198. Then what is the reason that the Workmen's Compensation Act should clear these older men out?—Because employers are naturally anxious not to employ men about them who have any physical defects, say partial blindness, or anything of that sort. Any physical defect of that sort may be a very serious thing, and throw the whole machinery of a factory out of gear.

91199. Do you think they employed that kind of man through whom there was that amount of danger before the Compensation Act?—The man may grow into that by service.

91200. What I mean is were these men kept on at the particular work which was that danger before the Workmen's Compensation Act was passed?—I think, to a large extent, they were.

91201. Or were they found other jobs?—Naturally if the foreman or the manager or the master knew that

this man who is in a responsible position had a defect I should think they would try to find something else for him; but that is a difficult thing to do. *Mr. Thomas Richardson.*

91202. Do you think it is a right thing that men should be thrown off because their service has rendered them incapable?—I think it is extremely hard.

91203. You would not advocate the repeal of the Compensation Act, would you?—No, I am not prepared to say that; I am only stating here what I believe is an obvious fact. I do not quarrel with the Act.

91204. You are not here to say that that Act ought not to have been passed?—No, I am not quarrelling with the Act.

91205. Then Paragraph (2): are there any examples where the tyrannical action of trade unions have really hurt industries?—Oh, dear, yes. *Tyrannical action of trade unions, e.g., in the glass trade.*

91206. Are there?—Oh, dear, yes.

91207. Could you give us one or two?—Yes, the glass trade. The glass trade of the Tyne was absolutely ruined by the opposition of the trade unions.

91208. Because they did what?—Because they resisted the introduction of new machinery, and would not allow the masters to have control of their own works. That is practically what it amounted to. *Resistance to new machinery.*

91209. I suppose that really means that they would not work for the wages and the hours that the employers insisted upon?—No, I do not think it amounted to that.

91210. Was it not a question of hours and wages?—Not entirely; they resisted the introduction of machinery. But that is going back into somewhat past history.

91211. Let us have one, say, in the last five years?—There has been no glass trade in Newcastle— *Consequent ruin of the glass trade in Newcastle.*

91212. Or any trade?—I should think the glass trade now goes back to about twenty-five years ago.

91213. Is the glass industry carried on in England anywhere now?—I believe it is. I cannot go into that. I believe it is in some parts of Staffordshire, and some other places.

91214. So that really all they did was to shift it, perhaps?—The facilities on the Tyne I should think were such as it was difficult to find elsewhere.

91215. You told us just now, and that is what called my attention to this statement, that the returns of the North-Eastern and the returns of the shipping on the Tyne were barometers to show how prosperous things were, and that 1906 and 1907 were the most prosperous years you have ever known?—Yes. *Prosperity in 1903 and 1907*

91216. That 1907 topped 1906?—Yes, judging by those returns.

91217. It did not seem to me that the tyrannical action of the trade unions had ruined Tynemouth, or from the Humber to the Tweed?—I only say that in certain trades they have. Happily for us in the North of England we have trade unions guided by the best men in the country whose names you are all familiar with. I am speaking of other paltry cases of opposition. *Sound policy followed by some trade unions.*

91218. Which after all were a negligible quantity, and which do not account for the unemployment to-day?—It throws the men out of employment, and upsets and disorganises business; it often throws man out of work for months and months. *Extent to which trade unions have disorganised business and thrown men out of employment.*

91219. Honestly we are talking of what happens now, are not we?—Yes.

91220. You have just told us the Tyneside was never so prosperous as in 1906 and 1907?—Yes.

91221. And still you have the unemployed problem; you have a Mayor's subscription, and there are subscriptions through other organisations, the co-operators, and other people?—Yes.

91222. I only suggest to you that the trade unions cannot have ruined Tyneside, and their action was a negligible quantity in the matter?—I have not said that they have.

91223. I gathered from Paragraph 10 (2) that the tyranny of the trades unions is very bad?—But you must take the whole sentence. I said, "Their action sometimes paralyses industries and leaves results from

Mr. Thomas Richardson. which it takes years to recover." I stand by that sentence to this moment.

21 Jan. 1908. 91224. But that is not operating just now ?—Indirectly it is.

91225. On Tyneside ?—In the district.

91226. With all the tremendous increase in business and the prosperity that the returns of the North-Eastern indicate ?—Yes ; indirectly it still operates.

An instance in the building trade.

91227. Could you tell me the trade ? Is it the glass trade still ?—I have given you one ; and there is no doubt about this, too, that the building trade has been considerably affected. I know a perfectly useless strike which took place in Newcastle that lasted six months, and then was given up on the employers' terms ; but the distress created in the city was enormous. These things cannot take place without leaving after results.

91228. I understand rather that it is a good thing they did strike, and did not go on with the building, or they would have been worse off, because they have apparently over-built ?—That was as to one big public building ; that was with reference to speculative building, which does not affect this at all.

91229. After all that building was finished ?—Yes.

91230. So it does not affect the question at the present moment ?—But it cost the employer £50,000, an absolute waste.

91231. Probably he was as unreasonable as the men, although he starved them out ?—I do not think he was.

Faults of public provision of employment on Government lines.

91232. I understand you think there ought to be no public provision of employment for the unemployed ?—Not on these Government lines.

91233. On what lines would you suggest ?—That is a matter again which I say it is very difficult to answer ; but I have got the impression, after the most careful thought and inquiry, that any such provision of this sort will intensify the evil.

91234. Still we have to do something, have we not ?—We have done something in the past. Nobody has ever starved yet that I am aware of.

Question as to number on the verge of starvation.

91235. There are people die of starvation ; I suppose you know that ?—There may be ; but that is grossly exaggerated. All these statistics that are thundered from the platforms about the 13,000,000 on the verge of starvation you know are arrant nonsense.

Experience of the witness.

91236. I suppose you visit the slums or the bad districts of Newcastle ?—I do.

91237. And you know of your own knowledge that that is not true ?—It is not true.

91238. You know it by close inquiry and visit ?—Yes.

Districts from which the unemployed were attracted into Newcastle.

91239. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) One question arises out of your answer to Mr. Lansbury. Did those people who came into Newcastle to reside in order to get the benefit of the Unemployed Workmen Act come from rural districts or from other towns ?—Practically Newcastle down to Tynemouth and then westward for six or eight miles is all one city ; the shipbuilding trade is down below and Armstrong's works are above, and they would come from both.

91240. The reason of my question is this, that it is only in towns of a certain size there are distress committees. What I want to know is, whether persons came into Newcastle from towns where there was a distress committee or from rural districts where there was none ?—I should think it was from districts where they had little prospect of getting anything to places where they had a prospect.

91241. From the distress committee or otherwise ?—From the committee of the corporation.

Question of causes of the failure of the corporation bureau.

91242. (*Professor Smart.*) In Paragraph 3 you do not hint that the failure of the bureau was dependent upon the employment of a Socialist, do you ?—No, I do not think it was.

91243. You do not mean to imply that Mr. Wood was appointed in order to get an unemployed Socialist a job, do you ?—No, I do not say that.

91244. You agree with the general opinion that Mr. Wood is a thoroughly good man for the place ?—So far as I know.

91245. If the bureau went on he would in all probability be the head of it ?—He would probably be the secretary of it still. I make no reflection upon him personally.

91246. (*Mr. Phelps.*) With regard to the question you were asked as to insurance, do you know on what basis insurance companies fix the premiums they charge firms ?—I ought to know, because I am a local director of the Royal, which undertakes insurance of that sort, but I cannot give you the particulars. If you wish to have the particulars, I will furnish you with them.

91247. Is it within your knowledge that they arrange their premiums according to the number of accidents on the average in the workshop of a firm ?—They have a tariff, and they take the amount of wages paid, and their average is made upon the amount of wages paid in the year.

91248. They do not take into account the number of accidents ?—If they found that this was a dangerous place, I have no doubt that the tariff officers would lay their heads together and fix a higher rate.

91249. A little lower down in your Statement, in Paragraph 13, you say : " by giving more elasticity and power to the Poor Law authorities." Had you anything definite in your mind under that head ?—I am very glad you asked that question, because one of the best versed men in Poor Law affairs in Newcastle came into my house one evening ; he has been all his life at it, and I asked him to read this evidence. He said : " I agree with everything you have said there, except what is in the 13th Clause." He said : " What do you mean by that ? " I said, " I meant this : I thought the Poor Law authority ought to have the power where they found a man with his family in distress to relieve him without putting him to the workhouse test." He then said : " I advise you to strike that out, because it is a power which I would not advise the Poor Law authorities to be granted."

91250. That is, you would repeal the clause which enabled relief to be given to the able-bodied under ordinary circumstances ?—Yes.

91251. Would you give them relief with or without disfranchisement ?—I think relief ought to be given to the able-bodied under ordinary circumstances.

91252. In the case you name ?—Yes.

91253. You think the better solution would be that the guardians should relieve these people with outdoor relief ?—Yes.

91254. Would you enlarge a little what you say in Paragraph 15 about the reflex action on the members of the governing body being extremely demoralising. What had you in your mind there ?—At this present moment there is a re-action going on in Newcastle ; the unemployed will not submit themselves to the Bureau test, and they have formed a Bureau of their own.

91255. In what sense a Bureau of their own ?—It is impossible not to have pressure brought to bear upon a public body such as the Newcastle Corporation, or the Poor Law guardians, under conditions such as these so long as the men possess the vote ; it is patent and it is obvious. I know of several cases in our corporation where if the vote had been taken by ballot the result would have been different from what it was in open voting.

91256. That is to say the people trim their sails to suit their constituents ?—They are threatened.

91257. The corporation of Newcastle has very large charities to distribute ?—Yes, I happen to be chairman of the School and Charities Committee.

91258. Do you think this demoralisation which you speak of affects the distribution of those ?—Not at all. The recipients of them are nearly all freemen.

91259. Do many of the freemen belong to the unemployed class ?—No, I should think none.

91260. Do you go down to the artisan class ?—Yes. They must have been trained to something in Newcastle : served their apprenticeship and obtained their freedom.

91261. Do you think on the whole the physique of the labouring classes has gone down in your experience ?—No, I do not.

91262. Do you think the morale has ?—No, I would not like to say that it has.

Methods of insurance companies in fixing the premiums they charge.

Question of giving greater elasticity power to the Poor Law Authorities.

Relief should be given to the able-bodied under ordinary circumstances.

Pressure put on governing body.

The Corporation of Newcastle's charities.

The physique and morale of the labouring classes.

91263. You think that the Newcastle labourer is as good a man now as he ever was?—I think he is. I think he is getting a little too fond of football and play, but that is not confined to him.

91264. With regard to Paragraph 16 and back to the land, you have there mainly in your mind, I take it, the growth of cereals when you say that the desertion of the country is an evolution and not an accident?—Yes.

91265. Have you turned your attention at all to vegetables in that connection?—Yes, I have.

91266. Do you not think there is a field there for vegetables?—Yes, I think there is a field for market gardening, but that will apply with more emphasis to the South of England perhaps than to the North, owing to the peculiarity of our climate.

91267. You do not think that round the neighbourhood of Newcastle you could raise any very large proportion of the vegetables consumed there?—I do not think we could really. What I had in my mind with regard to the exodus of the rural population to the city was this, I think it is due to the working of economic laws in this way, that the demand for milk has increased enormously in this country of recent years, and the consumption of flesh meat has gone up tremendously: now you cannot have milk without grass, and I believe the farmer has followed the calls and the demands of the public and the call of the market, and he grows that which he finds the readiest market for and which pays him best. As to extending the growth of wheat, for instance, in this country the experience of the last five years explodes that theory absolutely.

91268. In the country districts of Northumberland do you think the average labourer is as well off as the labourer in Newcastle?—That is a matter of comparison. I think the labourer in the country has made a very great mistake: he has seen the wages, for instance, of a fitter in Newcastle as being 30s. He thinks his wage of 20s. is quite out of proportion to the 30s. I have no hesitation in saying that the 20s. wage in the country is better than the 30s. wage in the town.

91269. On the whole, is the country population in Northumberland well housed?—I think fairly well housed.

91270. You do not think any defect in housing accommodation accounts for the incoming to the towns?—I do not think so at all.

91271. What do you attribute it to in the main?—I think for the main reason I have given you. It is a deep question, but I think it begins in this: There is too much rigid uniformity in our system of education. The system of education applicable to agricultural districts should be somewhat different to what it is in towns; the people who are educated there should be led in the pursuit of things bearing on agriculture, horticulture, and so on, to interest them in their work. This rigid uniformity is destroying the mind of the agricultural population. Then, no doubt, they are enamoured of the enjoyments, and so on, of the city, and there is that other point that they think a wage of 30s. in the town is worth so much more than 20s. in the country.

91272. Would you apply any of that criticism of our system of education to the education given in town schools?—I would in country schools.

91273. Would you apply any of it to town schools?—Yes.

91274. Do you see your way to making elementary education more useful?—Yes.

91275. How do you propose to do it?—That is another matter I would have to go into very carefully, but it ought to be more practical.

91276. Would you be prepared to see the school age raised?—Yes.

91277. Would you be prepared to see a system of continuation schools in which people should be taught trades?—I should be quite prepared for it.

91278. Made compulsory?—I think one of the difficulties is that we have not sufficient apprenticeship to business in our country.

91279. Do you see any means by which the apprenticeship system could be revived?—I do not see any objection to it; I think there have been objections taken on the part of trade unions to the number of apprentices. If I am wrong in that I apologise, but I am sure if we had a better organised system of apprenticeships it would do away with many of the difficulties we have to encounter to-day. The unemployed are the unskilled and untrained.

91280. The great difficulty is the facility with which boys at an early age can earn a considerable addition to the family income?—That is so.

91281. Do you see your way to counteracting that at all?—We have plenty of compulsion in education: why cannot we have a compulsory age with regard to that as well? Surely the Imperial Parliament now does not appear to be afraid of compulsion in anything!

91282. Your remedy would be to make education last longer?—Yes.

91283. And see that the children went to school longer?—Yes.

91284. Do you think that would be popular?—I do not think education is popular at all.

91285. (Mr. Lansbury.) On the question of more apprenticeship and more training, unskilled labour is paid at a far cheaper rate than skilled, is it not?—I should think so.

91286. That is because there is an abundant supply of it?—Yes.

91287. Is not one of the objections of the trade unions a perfectly natural one, that if you get an abundance of skilled labour then the price for that skilled labour will fall?—Possibly that may be the reason.

91288. And they have the fear before their eyes of a lower remunerative standard of life?—If that is the reason I do not believe in it.

91289. Very likely; but I only want to get out the trade unionist point of view?—I believe it would have the contrary effect.

91290. Take doctors, for instance; I take it that you know all about poor districts. Have you seen how the abundance of doctors in a district has brought down the rate that a doctor charges for attendance?—I should think that is very possible. That applies all round; it applies in my trade.

91291. Exactly. The more people there are in an industry, and the more people there are looking for a skilled or an unskilled job, the lower the rate of pay?—I do not think the case of a medical man is analogous to this. I would take the broad view that it must be to the benefit of the community to have as much skilled labour as possible.

91292. Under certain conditions, I agree?—Under any conditions.

91293. It is still true, is it not, that at the present moment there are 6 per cent. of the skilled trade unionists out of employment?—No.

91294. If that is so, I am afraid the Board of Trade returns are not correct?—I will be corrected by you if you say that is so.

91295. That is the latest published record; I do not mind your saying it is not true?—The record I took is over six months old.

91296. I suggest to you, that that being so, it does not show a scarcity of skilled labour in the country; it shows that at least of those trade unions who make returns there are 6 per cent. of their skilled members for whom there is no room?—It shows exactly the contrary; it shows the enormous demand there is for skilled labour. Compare this 6 per cent. with the percentage of the unskilled unemployed.

91297. I am bound to say I do not understand that reasoning, that is all, because they are not employed; and if there was a demand for them they would not be registered as people for whom there was no demand?—Six per cent. is nothing.

91298. It is nothing to you or me probably, because it does not affect us, but it is something to those who

Mr. Thomas Richardson.

21 Jan. 1908.

Question of reviving the apprenticeship system.

More compulsion wanted in education.

Reasons why unskilled labour is cheap.

Trade union objection to an abundance of skilled labour

Proportion of skilled trade unionists out of employment at present not serious.

Mr. Thomas Richardson. are part of the 6 per cent ?—That is only in the winter months; they suffer, like the rest of labourers, to some extent.

21 Jan. 1908.

The receipts of the North Eastern and the Tyne Commissioners as a barometer of trade.

91299. (*Mr. Chandler.*) With regard to that unfailing barometer, the receipts of the North Eastern Railway Company, you say it is an unfailing barometer as to the state of industry at Newcastle-on-Tyne ?—It is an unfailing barometer of the amount of trade going on in the district; and the Tyne Commissioners' return is a barometer really of what is going out of Newcastle and the immediate district.

91300. That would include receipts for carrying the coal from the coalfields of Northumberland ?—The North Eastern return would; but the Tyne Commissioners' return is receipts for everything imported and exported.

91301. Assuming there were a great demand for that coal in other parts of the country, the receipts would go up; but it would not necessarily mean good trade in the Newcastle district ?—If the miners are all employed, as they are, and coining money for the owners, it means that the men are all employed and spending money. We are all one district; you can hardly throw a stone without uniting one village to another, or the city to the whole.

91302. It is possible for the colliers to be well employed and spending their money, and the ship-builders to be in the street with nothing to do ?—That is not the case; the ship-builders have been employed until two months ago.

91303. In the last two months the ship-builders have insisted on a reduction in wages ?—Yes.

91304. Assuming that the ballot that is now being taken results in the whole of the men striking, having regard to the fact that there is good trade, would you be inclined then to say that the employers had anything to do with driving the trade away by their action ?—No; the unions agreed to regulate their wages by the condition of trade. When trade is prosperous they get a percentage of the prosperity, but when things go back, and the masters say: "We cannot get orders unless we can work at a less expense," they object; and it is not only that question, but the high price of coal, that is distinctly affecting the industries of the Tyne at this moment.

91305. It has prevented orders coming in for ships ?—Yes, the cost of manufacture is so heavy owing to the price of coal.

91306. That is really the state of the ship-building trade, is it not ?—Yes.

ONE HUNDRED AND FORTY-THIRD DAY.

Monday, 27th January, 1908.

AT SCOTLAND HOUSE, WESTMINSTER, S.W.

PRESENT.

The Right Hon. Lord GEORGE HAMILTON, G.C.S.I.,
etc., etc., etc. (*Chairman.*)
Sir SAMUEL B. PROVIS, K.C.B.
Mr. F. H. BENTHAM.
Dr. A. H. DOWNES.
The Rev. T. GAGE GARDINER.
Mr. GEORGE LANSBURY.
Mr. T. HANCOCK NUNN.
The Rev. L. R. PHELPS.

Professor WILLIAM SMART.
Mrs. BERNARD BOSANQUET.
Mrs. SIDNEY WEBB.
Miss OCTAVIA HILL.
Mr. FRANCIS CHANDLER.
The Right Rev. The LORD BISHOP of ROSS.

Mr. R. H. A. G. DUFF (*Secretary*).
Mr. J. JEFFREY (*Assistant Secretary*).

Mr. WILLIAM CROOKS, M.P., called; and Examined.

Mr. William Crooks, M.P.

27 Jan. 1908.

91307. (*Chairman.*) You have been good enough to prepare for us a paper on the question of unemployment, which, I understand, represents the views of the Labour Party Members of the House of Commons ?—Yes, that is so. (*The Witness handed in the following Statement.*)

Failure of the Unemployed Workmen Act.

1. The difficulties which undoubtedly exist at present in dealing with the unemployed are created in a measure by the official tendency to crush the problem and not to solve it. The Unemployed Workmen's Act (1905) was the culmination of a general desire to keep unemployed persons from sinking so low as to compel them to apply for Poor Law relief, and yet administrative methods have accentuated the trouble. Names are registered by local committees, sympathy is excited, and the worst cases of destitution are sent on to the Central Body, with the result that the real workman is on the street waiting for a share of employment, which, in thousands of cases, never comes. The limitation of work is not necessarily the result of scarcity of funds. On the contrary, we see year after year relief funds started, huge sums of money raised and distributed in a haphazard kind of way, that does no real or lasting good.

Result of making the Local Government Board the controlling authority.

2. The anticipated benefits of the Act were nullified, we think, by making the Local Government Board the controlling authority. Tradition and precedent, based upon tests of destitution, which have failed in work-

house administration, are worse than useless when applied to the question of unemployment.

3. The Local Government Board have power to hinder, but are under no obligation to suggest schemes of work, and the remarkable difference of opinion existing between it and the Central Unemployed Body for London on such interesting subjects as Hollesley Bay Training College and workshops for women makes the position almost hopeless.

4. The principle we wish to see established is work and not relief for the unemployed. To make this relief wanted possible it is necessary to have the power to organise work and the intention to enforce it.

5. We therefore think that a Labour Department should be created, with a President of Cabinet rank, whose duties should include (a) Collecting all necessary information in reference to the conditions of employments and trade fluctuations; (b) To organise work with a view to lessening the effect of trade depressions upon the men and women thrown out of employment; (c) To encourage employers of labour to send to this Department (but not for publication) the condition of their order books from year to year for the purpose of providing work in the earliest stages of unemployment; (d) To obtain from every local authority in the United Kingdom particulars of all public works which

Proposed Labour Department with a President of Cabinet rank. Its duties.

could be put in hand at times of industrial depression, such as—

Reclamation of foreshores,
Coast erosion,
New roads,
Afforestation,
Cultivation of derelict land,

and land which would be suitable to place families upon to train in agriculture or horticultural pursuits; (e) To provide training and employment for unskilled men or others who are forced out by new methods of production.

6. The Department should be required to certify and submit to the Chancellor of the Exchequer an estimated apportionment of the cost upon—

A. The local rates,
B. County rate,
C. National Exchequer.

7. With this knowledge, the existence of depression in any given district could be met by orders issued to the Local Distress Committee to put in hand some part of the scheduled work.

91308. (*Chairman.*) I should like to supplement your Statement with a few questions?—Please do.

91309. You think that the anticipated benefits of the Unemployed Workmen Act have been greatly curtailed by the action which the Local Government Board have taken?—Yes, very largely.

91310. Is not your objection really more against the object and limitations of the Act itself than against any action on the part of the Department?—I think the administration of the Act is very largely to blame. Certain regulations and conditions laid down by the Department enabled those who wanted to do nothing to do nothing, rather than encouraging them to do something. Perhaps I may put it in my way: The Department always insisted upon a well devised and properly explained scheme. You are dealing here with men who really want to get work, and the Act was passed—as you will remember perfectly well—for the express purpose of dealing with men as soon as they were unemployed, to enable them to turn their hands to something before they sank so low as to be compelled to apply for outdoor relief—in a word, to save the man and to save his home was the original object.

91311. Was not the theoretical object to give relief to a certain class—that is, a class who were ordinarily permanently in employ, and who, from some depression in trade, were temporarily out of employ?—Yes.

91312. The evidence that we have had from a good many witnesses is that that class have not come up or availed themselves to any extent of the Act?—I think that is perfectly natural. Look at the conditions you lay down. The decent man who has any self-respect, who just goes there as the last resort, finds himself being sifted and investigated and questioned in a thousand ways, and then told to come on some future occasion, and if there is anything to do he will probably get it. No definite promise is given to him. That is no encouragement for decent people—the very class of men we wanted to help—to register.

91313. On the other hand, it has been suggested to us by certain witnesses, that the Act in its operation has registered for the most part persons whose employment is always casual and, in fact, that the tendency of the Act has been rather in the direction of subsidising or making permanent that class of casual labour, which, I think, we all object to?—Was that not the fault of the people who were administering the Act from the very start?

91314. I understood the object of the Act was to give facilities to a particular class, and that is the class of respectable working men who are ordinarily in employment but who are temporarily out of employ?—Yes.

91315. For whatever reason it may be, the Act has not touched that class—at least, so we are informed—and that is your view, is it not?—I do not say it did not touch him in the early days, but it certainly has not in the ordinary way touched him in the least degree since, because the conditions were made so bad at the first, that, to use another word, he shied at it. He said: Why should I go and expose the conditions of my own

family on the off-chance that I might get something? *Mr. William Crooks, M.P.* I suppose your first year's register is a very different kind of thing to what has happened since.

27 Jan. 1908.

91316. Have you had any experience at all of giving work of this kind in Poplar before this Act was passed?—Yes.

Experience of giving work of this kind in Poplar, before the Act.

91317. Independent of the Poor Law?—Yes, independent of the Poor Law.

91318. What was the class who applied then?—Were they much the same class as have applied under this Act or were they a different class, do you think?—There were all sorts of men, from the man who was least likely you would have thought, namely, the coster; the casual labourer came; and there were mechanics who came. You have got to remember that the proportion of men would be very much larger in the casual labour class to what they would in the ordinary skilled mechanic class—I mean at that time, but I will show you presently why it does not act now. These men who were registered were painters and carpenters, and in some instances boilermakers. We could not get the boilermakers, say, and the iron shipbuilders their ordinary work, and they just took the same position as the ordinary casual labourer—they took what you had to offer them—they took the stone-yard; that was what happened. We found work for the carpenter in making shafts for the hammer-heads and that sort of thing, and a lot of little jobs were found which did not hurt him. We also found, of course, that the man who was skilled in breaking stones—that work was part of the scheme that we started in 1894 or 1895—did very well at it; while the other men did not do so well. I do not know whether it has been submitted to you, but there was a report upon the whole scheme which came about through Mr. Hills of the Thames, Limited, whom you know, of course. He offered a sum of money equal to half, for any work that might be taken up in the interests of the unemployed. He sent for myself and a friend named Butler. We pointed out that it would not help if he insisted upon his plan, namely, to pay the half of every piece of work to be taken up, because in all probability there would be a lack of discipline, and it would cost twice as much as it ought to do. The end of it was that he offered us £1,000 conditionally that someone else should give £1,000—he did not care who. We went then to the Poplar District Board of Works, which is now the borough council, and told them the circumstances and conditions. They immediately formed a committee to work with a committee which was practically nominated by Mr. Hills or approved of by him, so that it was a co-operative committee. He gave the money on the one hand, and the Board of Works, on the other, organised the work, that is, they found the work and he found the money, but they undertook to supplement Mr. Hills' £1,000 with another £1,000. We did a lot of work locally. We took up granite setts and put down wood paving, and we whitewashed courts and alleys and that sort of thing. I am not quite sure whether we had given to us—I rather think we did—some huge blocks of stone; we put men on cutting this stone up into small pieces, the same as they do the macadam, but it was rather softer than that. That was the employment that went on. The end of it was that we spent about £5,000 or £6,000, and having regard to the £1,000 that Mr. Hills gave us, the result on the whole was satisfactory; that is to say, the total valued up only showed a loss of 10 per cent., in other words, under ordinary circumstances, this work would have been done at 10 per cent. less than it really was done for.

Nature of the work offered.

Report on Mr. Hill's scheme.

91319. As regards the results, what was the effect of the scheme on the workers? Do you think it enabled them to rehabilitate themselves at all?—May I say that if you save a man you simply keep him from going down, and you prevent him from going down; but when a man is down, it is the utmost difficulty in the world to lift him up. No one can declare that they have lifted any person up by giving relief work. The question is, how many people have you saved from going down? This winter, up to this moment, I can only point to two cases in which we have saved by relief work—one a woman and one a man, that is to say, we have prevented them going down and got a fair start for them.

Effect of relief work on the workers.

91320. There are two processes, are there not? There is the first process of trying to prevent them going further down, and then there is the second process that you hope

Mr. William Crooks, M.P. by the assistance and the training or the employment given, that you may help them to go up?—May I put it in another way? No decent man who could do other things would apply for your relief work under any circumstances, and he would never stop at it—you have never made it attractive enough for him.

Object to be kept in view in assisting the unemployed.

91321. Do we not really want to do two things if we can? We want to assist, as you say, the persons who fall in the industrial or social scale—that is the first thing we want to do; and then having done that, we want, if possible, to put a man in a condition so that when he has finished his work he may be rather better off than he was when we first took him?—He may, on the other hand, be worse. You have got to look at this all round, and you want to know what you are really going to do. In some cases you will make a better man of him, and in others, if you are not very careful in your organisation, you will rather degrade the man. That is what the unemployed committees have been doing with one or two exceptions. At Hollesley Bay you have lifted people up, but other work has had the contrary effect.

91322. Though we may differ as regards methods, I think what we all feel is that we do not want to establish any so-called system of relief which would tend to perpetuate, as regards individuals, conditions which you want to improve?—With the exception of turning men into farmers, I do not see that you could possibly do that—not even by what I suggest. Men would naturally turn to it in the hour of need and would not go and look for a job of this character like they would go and look for a job in their own trade. A carpenter would not look for a navvy's job under any circumstances, and he would not want to go into the park to work; so, on the other hand, a cooper would not like to go into an iron-yard to become a labourer—he would naturally go to the thing he is trained for.

91323. The idea was, I assume, that if he had temporary relief, he would go back to his original occupation?—He would at the very earliest opportunity; that I am certain about.

91324. You have criticised the Unemployed Workmen Act and the results of the Act; shall we now take you on to that part of your Statement where you make definite proposals as regards what you would wish done?—Yes.

91325. You wish to see work established, rather than relief, for the unemployed?—Yes.

91326. If the State undertake that, they would have to keep the system going so long as the individuals wanted work?—Yes, I think it is very likely they would.

91327. I mean it would be the beginning of a very serious undertaking?—Personally, I do not think the consequences are so serious as not doing it; I mean that in all sincerity, and it is not said with a view of making a score. The fact of the matter is that the conditions are so bad now that whatever you do cannot make things worse, but must improve them.

91328. Just following up the idea you sketch out, you would like to have a Labour Department with a Cabinet Minister?—Yes.

91329. You would then collect the necessary information, you would try and organise the work, and in endeavouring to organise this work, you would obtain particulars of all public works that can be put in hand at times of industrial depression, and you enumerate them?—Yes.

91330. Then the works so started should be maintained out of three sources, the local rates, the county rate, and the national Exchequer?—Yes.

91331. They would necessarily have to be on a large scale, and the Government might find themselves—because I suppose it would be a Government body—with a very large number of persons coming to them for employment, might they not?—Yes, they might. The work may be small as well as large, but the Department would have to keep a grip of the whole country, and know exactly what was happening in Sunderland say on the one hand, and in Worcestershire on the other, or in London or Norwich or other places all over the country. They would know exactly what was happening.

91332. I agree with you that if the idea that you sketch is put into practice it must be a combined national effort, but I want to see what it might result in. Would you pay the persons the same standard rate that would be recognised outside?—For the particular work, yes.

91333. You would?—Yes.

91334. Supposing you did, what inducement would any person have to go and seek for employment himself?—Because in the case of the particular man whom you are putting on to this work and helping, it is very long odds that the work you are setting him to is not the work he has been accustomed to. Supposing you were to put them on to charcoal-burning and the regulation rate for charcoal-burning was 27s. per week, I could not do it if you gave me £27 per week, and I should not want to stop there. The same thing happens with the others, I assure you. I know it is a little difficult to make people understand who have not been through it, but a man has an inclination for his own business and his own particular trade; he works happily at it because he understands it, and if you take him out of it, he is very unhappy. May I give you this simple example of my own? I could not say the year, but it would probably be about 1880 when I wanted a job, I wanted, in fact, bread; and I had to go to the docks. A friendly foreman who knew me called me on, and I got work at 5d. an hour. Well, I spent the most wretched time in my life working with these men—wheeling bales of wool, helping to stack bags of corn and bags of sugar. Do you think any kind of pay would have attracted me to stop there permanently the moment I had a chance of getting out of it?

91335. But surely the great mass of persons who would avail themselves of your proposals would be unskilled labourers?—Yes.

91336. And unskilled labourers of rather a low type?—On the border of your argument runs the question of the employable and the unemployable, and the trouble, of course—we are ready to face it—is with the man who will not try to do anything but what you find for him. But then you have led him up to that, and you have left him in the position that he exists somehow on his one, or two, or three days a week. He has sunk so low that he just gets enough to keep him going, without the slightest desire to do anything else; but he wants the next meal to come along. Now, steady work and steady food would improve that man out of knowledge, and he would be a different being in the course of six months.

91337. I put the unemployable on one side, because I do not think, so far as I know there is really very much difference amongst all the witnesses who have come before us in regard to that class?—But there is a tremendous difference between the man who is employable and the man who is described as unemployable.

91338. Quite so; but the difficult class really that we have to deal with is not the unemployable but the class of unskilled, low-grade labourer, is it not?—Yes; but do you not see that the unemployable man is used in evidence against you always, whatever you are trying to do? The low-class, low-grade labourer is always hurled at us when any proposal is made, and we are asked: What will you do with that class of man? We have said: If you give us the work and give us the chance of putting him under proper discipline—I mean reasonable, sympathetic discipline—we will improve him in a way that you little dream of. In fact you have left him to make a living by his wits, and a poor living he is making out of it; and I am not blaming him in the least bit if he tries to take advantage of your softness.

91339. I am not going back to the wage. If that class of person, not the unemployable, but the class, we will say, which is just above it, found out that they got the same wages under Government employ for doing practically very much the same class of work as they would get in private employ, I ask: What inducement would they have to seek for employment themselves, unless you make the wage and other conditions of the Government work less favourable than those that they can get from the private employer?—What you presuppose there is that there is work for everybody. If that were so, we should not be here. The fact of the matter is that there is a

Proposal to pay the standard rate of wages on relief works, and question of its effect on the persons assisted.

Difficulty of assisting unskilled low-grade labourers, and effect of regular work and discipline on said labourers.

Question as to effect of paying the standard rate of wages on Government relief works.

Provision of work rather than relief for the unemployed, and question of effect of so doing.

Proposed Labour Department and its functions: method of defraying cost of relief works.

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large surplus of men with whom we do not know what to do. What is a man to do? Is he to come to you, and have you other openings to which you can send him? The moment that there was an improvement in the industrial condition of things you would at once say to this man: You cannot stick here, my friend, there is work elsewhere for you, and there you will have to go. But you are not in that position yet.

Question as
effect of
editions of
employment
Government
relief
works.

91340. Even admitting for a moment that there may be a surplus of labour over the amount of employment available, my point is that unless you make the conditions of Government employment less favourable to that class than those they get outside, you will have a very large number of persons permanently idle, because you will give them no inducement to try and get labour outside?—Very well. They are only filling one man's place, and if the work that you offer is work of a useful character—and for the country's sake I do not want you to start work for work's sake—if that work is of a useful character, he is leaving a job for somebody else. You have already got a surplus of men who are idle, and our ambition and desire is that you should absorb them with work, and that can only be done with a proper organisation.

91341. I am coming rather to the wage now. Is not the standard wage which is laid down by certain unions and labour bodies, based on the assumption that the individual gives an equivalent in the way of work? You now have to deal with persons who are admitted to be the worst class of workers and whose work consequently may be assumed to be inferior. Why, then, should you give them, if they cannot find employment for themselves, the same rate as the competent workman? If you do give them the same rate it seems to me that you will have them permanently on your hands, as you will be giving them a positive inducement to remain with you instead of going outside?—You have got the authority in yourself to turn them off when you like, if you think there is work elsewhere to be done. The reason why we are so keen about the regulation of the rate is that no person, not even the Government itself, should seek an advantage over men who are unemployed by getting their work done cheaply. You have no right to do that.

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91342. Assuming that the leaders of the Labour Party could get us a practical guarantee, so to say, that the wage given by the Government would not at all affect the wage given outside, would they then press for this standard wage?—I think they would. There are many sides to the question, as your Lordship knows. There is the argument of the Wages Board, and all this sort of thing. It does not matter who a man works for; employers in this country always fix the minimum wage as the maximum, which is entirely different to what is done abroad, where a man gets paid on his merits. Here you hardly ever get anything of the kind, and if a man is exceptionally skilful, immediately everyone below him is supposed to come up to his standard; but an exceptionally skilful man does not get anything in advance of the ordinary trade union rates. What we stand out for is not a fixed wage or anything like that, but a minimum rate of wage; and we stand out for the minimum, whatever it is in any locality for a certain class of work.

91343. I think if you do that, the inevitable tendency must be that these Government establishments will grow and grow?—I am not on that line this morning. I am trying to deal with the facts that I have got at this moment.

91344. In making that recommendation, you do not wish the Government to have more and more of this class on their hands in permanent employ, do you?—No; but do you not see that the nation has got them on its hands now doing nothing—either idling their time away, becoming wastrels more and more, or recruiting the wastrels of society, if you please to call them so, as some people are calling them; or you have got a burden on the rates, or a burden on sick benefit societies. Frequently, if a man had work to do he would turn to it; and so in a thousand ways the nation is the poorer by having nothing done than it would be by spending money on having something done.

91345. I agree with you there, but that is not my point. My point is really, to go back to the words of the Poor Law Commission of 1834, that I want the persons who cannot find employment for themselves and who are compelled to come to the Government, to find their lot

is less eligible than that of those outside, as otherwise no pressure would be brought to bear upon them to look out for work for themselves?—You would have the ordinary investigation as to whether this or that particular man was a proper person to take on, or whether he had a just and honest claim to it. That would always happen.

Mr. William
Crooks, M.P.
27 Jan. 1908.

Question of
deterrence
in relief.

91346. But once on, under your scheme he would be permanently on?—He would have to do his day's work. Your point of working under the 1834 Act has never been a success. I cannot tell what happened previous, say, to 1850; but coming on to later years it has never been a success—in fact, it has been an abject failure. You have only played at giving them work, and you have never given them work. They have lived with you all the time, but they have never done anything or produced of anything like adequate value. Take whatever Poor Law institution you like and take an able-bodied man or an able-bodied woman, I ask, Whenever did any of them give anything like a decent return even for their food, to say nothing of wages? It has been an absolute waste of time.

Total failure
of the Act
of 1834.

91347. I agree there. Then you would give the same wage as outside?—Yes.

91348. Now how would this work be financed? You say the cost is to be divided between the local rates, the county rate, and the National Exchequer?—The thing I have always had in my head is this, that if the authority, say the Government authority, would issue instructions to the local authority, whoever they may be—it might be even an urban district council—to schedule such work as might be taken up in times of commercial depression, and give an expression of their own opinion as to the value of that work to the locality, to the county, or to the nation, I would accept whatever the local surveyor said about this particular work. Take London, for instance—this would be a very simple illustration: An improvement is wanted, say, in the Westminster Bridge Road; Westminster says: That is a London County improvement; the county says: No; this is a purely local thing, and you are going to get an advantage out of it. I would allow them to express an opinion. On the other hand, the county might declare that the nation as a whole was going to get a benefit from that particular improvement. Very well. The Department would know exactly the opinion of the locality at a given moment, and having all this work scheduled, it would go down to the locality on an application. If, say, Sunderland was asking for a grant, it would go to Sunderland and say: Look here—you have scheduled certain work, and you can employ 300 or 400 men there. We think the work is of a local character, and our decision is final; you will have to charge it to the locality. If, on the other hand, the Department think it is a county one, they will say: Very well, you can do it and the county rate shall pay for it. But if, on the other hand again, you have such things as coast erosion and things of that character taken in hand, the Department would say: This is a case of national improvement and the Exchequer ought to make a grant to do this. In that way the instruction would go from the particular Department to the locality as to who was to finance this particular thing.

The finance
of relief
works and
method of
Government
control.

91349. The plans would be more or less under national control, and if any scheme was agreed upon, then the Department would have the power to say that the locality should bear a certain proportion of the cost?—Yes. This would be one of the things I should be very despotically about—I should insist on the locality going on with the work and meeting the needs of the men at once, and whatever decision the Department came to, that would have to be final.

Suggested
that the
decision of
the Depart-
ment be final.

91350. Who would be the judge of the necessity of starting the work? Would it be the locality or the Government?—It would be the Government Department.

91351. On reports from the locality?—No. The country is not so big but what we can get over it in a day or so. What I would do on an application is, I would immediately send a responsible officer down to report. He would, of course have information in the Department, Labour and he would look up and see, say, that Hull had a complaint that there was a want of work, and he would find that there was work to be done at such and such a place;

Methods of
operation for
Department.

Mr. William Crooks, M.P. he would go there and come back and report to the Department, and the Department would say:—"We will give a decision in a couple of days as to what we think ought to be done."

27 Jan. 1908.

91352. I think I grasp your scheme as regards the finding of work; but my point was, who would decide that this work should be taken in hand in any one locality? Would it be done on the report of the locality that there was a certain amount of work wanted and that there was a certain amount of distress? Would they have to satisfy the Central Department that they should be allowed to take work in hand?—They would make their application. Say there were 300 or 400 men out of work; they would go to their proper authority, and say: We want work, and something must be done. The authority would then make every inquiry, and send to the Department.

91353. That is, send to the central authority?—Yes.

91354. Would you give the central authority power to close the work, if they thought that necessary?—Certainly. They should be able to say: You will get no more money, as we shall give you no authority to go on. There you will have the controlling influence at once. Now you are stuck fast, and have been in every depression that has come along, and I can remember every one distinctly since 1866. Whenever there has been a depression, you may collect money, but you have no organisation to put people to work.

91355. In your judgment, looking at it from another point of view, the past schemes with all their collections of money have resulted in waste, and there has not been an adequate benefit accruing from the money spent?—No more than your breakfast is quite enough to keep you going till dinner-time. That is just what is the matter. You may feed temporarily, but you help nobody; and, you know, the very thing that you are afraid of bringing about is the very thing you do bring about. You get people into that frame of mind that they depend entirely on charity. They get accustomed to calling regularly, and getting a ticket for a shilling or half-crown. As Mr. Lansbury knows, perfectly well, so low have some men sunk that when a day's work comes along, they would sooner have 2s. in relief than they would have 4s. for work. It is all our fault, because we have not offered them work at the proper moment.

91356. Then I may sum up what you say in this respect. I think: putting your actual scheme on one side, as we have discussed it, your idea is that the test of the *bona fides* of the persons applying for work is their willingness to work?—Yes.

91357. And you would apply that test?—Yes.

91358. You would have powers, so that if persons refused to do reasonable work and loafed and so on, you would send them to a labour colony, or something of that kind?—So sure am I that this will work that I will give you two very simple illustrations. We took 100 men down to Long Grove on Mr. Long's scheme; ninety-four I think it was of those men turned up on a bitter morning, on the 1st January, 1903. They took their coats off, some of them were without food, and had been for goodness knows how long, certainly they had had none that morning. They worked on, and one amongst their number was unable to work. I stayed there till half the day was through, and a deputation came down, and said: "Now look here; there is one of our fellows who cannot work; can't you put him in that shed where the tools are to look after two or three things until he gets a bit of food into him and until he can work." Just take that as 1 per cent. Take the next case. That was clearing the foundations at Colney Hatch, and it was a particularly hard job. They had to dig up and clear away roots and old bricks, and a tremendous job it was. Those men got paid the trade union rate, and a grant was given especially for them. They were not there a week before a deputation of the men went to the head, and said: "Now look here, there is one of our fellows who was born tired; he won't try, and we are not going to be disgraced by a man like him." The head man went down, and he said: "I give you a couple of more days; if you don't improve, you will have to go." He went. That only shows that the man who wants to work is not only willing to work but

encourages other people to work too. The experiment is not half as dangerous as people are led to believe. I know that man perfectly well, and he has been looking after relief all the time, but he does not get on so well as he would if he was at work. He has sunk low enough not to care; but what about the others who did care?

91359. It was stated to us the other day by a witness from the north that the persons for whom this Act was a good deal intended—that is, the respectable artisans temporarily out of employ—declined to work in company with some of the persons who get relief, as they did not wish to be associated with them. Has that been your experience at all?—That is the kind of pride that Sir Samuel Provis will know something about. For instance, the Poor Law boys who were trained on the "Exmouth" would not play cricket with the truant boys on the "Shaftesbury," because it was lowering their dignity. The same thing applies here.

91360. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) About the work being so attractive and the wage keeping men always at this kind of work, could not that be got over if there were some system of registering the men out of employment all over the country, and also of registering the employment all over the country, through your new Department?—I think so. You would register every man's trade; and if you look round the depressions that occur and see the men who are thrown out of work, you will see there is seldom anything offers which would be a substitute for their own work and therefore would not be as attractive.

91361. Is not the difficulty in London, and in all the big centres, that while people theorise and say that there ought to be enough work to go round, nobody can tell us where to send the men to find this private employment that is begging for labour?—We have never found it yet. I have had letters, as you know, from all over the country telling me that there are farmers looking for men here and that there are farmers looking for men there. I have taken the trouble to write, but I never was able to hear of any case. I have had letters to say: We want a girl or: We want a man, or something; he must be an exceptional character and all the rest of it. When I have written back, I have never got any reply. It was a mere try on.

91362. In ordinary industrial centres, would you be in favour of a national system of labour exchanges which not only registered men, but also took account of the employers' needs in the particular district?—Practically, I say so in my Statement. If the employers will make a return—and they would do so to a Government Department, though they might not do so to a local labour bureau; if they think it is a thing of national importance, they would make the return, and the big men would say Our Order Book shows that we have to dispose of 500 or 1,000 men on a certain date, and if anything comes in in the meantime, we will let you know—then the Department would know almost exactly what was going to happen.

91363. If that were so, on a man coming to register himself for work under the Government according to your scheme, the Department or the authority concerned would have at its disposal the knowledge as to whether that man's labour could be utilised by private employers in any part of the country?—That is exactly what I have in my mind. Quite apart from the Government at all, if the private employer would make known his possible needs, it would help the Government to arrive at a decision whether the work would be sufficient in a certain place or not.

91364. And would be able to say to a man: "Instead of you stopping here on relief works, you must go there and work under normal conditions"?—Certainly.

91365. And if not, at least that kind of work would not be given?—I think we may sum up the situation by saying that what we have been anxious about is work for willing workers and not work for unwilling workers.

91366. And you do not mind whether that work is provided by the State or by private employers?—No.

91367. All that you want is that it should be organised somehow?—Yes, and it seems to me that that is the way to do it.

Instances of pride, a desire not to associate with certain persons.

Suggested registration of trades of unemployed.

Difficulty of finding private demand for labour.

Suggested returns by employers to the Labour Department.

Work wanted for willing, not for unwilling workers. Whether from the State or private employers.

Applications to be made by the local authority to the Department.

The central authority to have power to close the relief works.

Failure of charity in the past.

Test of the *bona fides* of applicants, their willingness to work.

Illustrations as to how the scheme would work.

91368. Now about the casual labourers; the difficulty in the East End is, is it not, the question of casual labour in the building trade, the docks, and practically all kinds of trades there?—Yes, but the casual labour in any other trade does not seem to me to be so bad as the system that has grown up at the docks. After the strike of 1889 there was a better system came about here and there—that is to say, more permanent men were taken on; and it looked as though the question of casual employment was settled, and that there would be no more crowds of men praying and beseeching to be taken on. But then they found that they could get a supply, and after all, it was better that they should go out to the gate and see 100 or 200 men there when they only wanted ten or fifteen, so that they might pick them out. Consequently the system is exactly the same now as it was previous to 1889. Immediately after 1889, in the first year, casual employment dropped to very small proportions indeed, which makes this point—that if casual employment was abolished, they could meet all the demands. But it is cheaper for a company that they should have a supply, and they look with considerable suspicion at any attempt to absorb it. Say there were 300 men, and we were talking about taking 150 away and giving them employment of some sort; they would say their chances of picking their men were less. But the nation, as a whole, loses by it. I do not know whether the Commission would feel inclined to make the experiment; but if you have any doubt about the point, you could easily get through on the telephone and find out whether there is a ship up over night, and if you were to go down just half an hour before calling-on time, whatever time was fixed—just now the ordinary time is half-past eight, after the first of March it will be half-past seven, and sometimes they start a ship at seven o'clock or six o'clock in the morning—you would see hundreds and hundreds of able-bodied men clamouring, praying, and beseeching to be allowed to go in to earn a couple of shillings. Why, it beggars description. You cannot get any notion of it unless you have been amongst it, as I have been. I want to know what the nation is thinking about. There is waste of material, if you like to put it that way. You will see able-bodied grown men putting their hands together, and praying the foreman who stands up in a box: "Here, Sir, here, Sir, for God's sake take me on, Sir." About a week before Christmas, a foreman, who is a relative of mine, and a clerk went down to the entrance of Cuba Street, South Dock, to take on four men. There was a tremendous crowd. They called the four, and when they turned to go down the docks to the ship they found they had five. They said to one man: "Here, outside; you were not called." "I was called, Sir." "Go on, we are not foolish; get out of it, you were not called." Then he said: "For Christ's sake, let me stop. I have six children, and we have not a mouthful at home." The foreman went to the clerk and says: "Can we put him on?" and the clerk says: "I think we can give him a couple of hours." I want the Commission to think that you can multiply that by hundreds; and there cannot really be any doubt whether it does not take some organisation to deal with men like that. Casual labour and casual feeding saps not only the men, but their children as well.

91369. Of course, it would be no use our taking away men and allowing others to come, would it?—Not a bit.

91370. Therefore, some steps must be taken besides providing work, for regularising the work at places like the docks?—That is so. But there is a very dangerous point there which comes out in the very old Acts—namely, that you should fix up the locality and say a man should have his own settlement. We have no such idea in our mind as that a man shall not come out of his place; hence the need of the Government regulating this; that is to say, if there was work in Hull and a group of unemployed men were at Wakefield, there is no earthly reason why they should not be transported from one place to the other. I want that done, and I do not want to fix men down hard-and-fast; but I would have them registered, though I know the desirability of transferring men from one place to another.

91371. And there ought to be some organisation at the labour places, like the docks in London and other centres, whereby the casual nature of the employment could be reduced to a minimum, rather than let it be as it is now?

—After the strike of 1889 it was shown that it could be done; but people are offering to let places at a certain rental, and declaring that the advantage of this particular place is that there is always a large reservoir there of casual labour. It is a curious thing, perpetuated frequently by Government Departments pointing out: Well, after all, there is work to be found there—and here are men advertising properties and factories and riverside places, because there is a full reservoir of casual labour to draw from.

91372. (Mrs. Webb.) Do you mean to say that there are really advertisements with that proviso in them?—It is in private letters that I have seen it, and it came out any how in our own inquiry, that the advantage to certain people living in our district was because there is a reservoir of casual labour invariably full to be drawn from.

91373. (Chairman.) Was that an advantage to the employer or to the employee?—The advantage was to the employer of labour, of course.

91374. And as regards his works, not as regards his residence?—That is so.

91375. I thought these were private residences you were speaking of?—No. It might apply to people who were letting their places. Take Maconochie's. I know Maconochie; he is a very decent fellow in every way. Why does he come to Millwall? He comes to Millwall because he can take women on for an hour or two and then put them off. Supposing the supply of women was limited, then he must arrange his work to keep these people on regularly. He does nothing of the kind.

91376. I thought you were rather talking of another matter—namely, that the houses in the immediate neighbourhood of the docks have a special value, because the persons who live there can always be on the spot?—On the contrary I did not mean residents; I meant the people who have large manufacturing premises. I would not like to say for certain, but I suppose it is no exaggeration to say that 75 per cent. of our population do not work at the docks.

91377. (Mr. Nunn.) I think the point the Chairman had in his mind was that whilst this ran wages down, affected it ran rents up at the same time?—Of course.

91378. And so, in effect, lowered wages in two respects at the same time?—Yes.

91379. (Chairman.) My point was, did it give the slums a fictitious value?—I should think that does not affect us nowadays, because that has done all its mischief—I will put it that way.

91380. (Mrs. Webb.) You have had a long experience in the East End; are things worse in the East End now than they were in 1887 and 1888?—I should not like to say so.

91381. Are they just a bit?—I should say they are a bit; and what makes the matter seemingly more acute is that you have to remember that there is improved knowledge amongst the people. They are not going to be content with the conditions under which their fathers lived a long time ago. Every stage of acquiring knowledge naturally makes people feel very acutely the conditions under which they are compelled to live.

91382. And that has been one advantage of the Unemployed Workmen Act, that it has brought the problem before the public?—Yes. May I put it in this way? A man's grandfather was out of work, but he only knew the effect; the grandson is out of work, and he knows the cause.

91383. And he thinks he knows the remedy?—Yes. Therefore to-day although the proportion may be better in favour of the modern-day man the discontent is individually greater than it ever was before; and naturally so. No one, no matter what his position is, wants to go back, and they do not want to go back.

91384. They recognise that that leads to the deterioration of human nature?—Of course.

91385. And that that is worse than the deterioration of machinery?—Very much.

91386. Can you explain to us why it is that the employer, who takes such precious good care that his machinery should not deteriorate, is quite careless about the deterioration of the working-man?—Because he puts

Mr. William Crooks, M.P.
27 Jan. 1908.

Need for casual dock labour.
Advantage to the employer in drawing on a reservoir of casual labour.

Advantage to the employer in drawing on a reservoir of casual labour.

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Advantage to the employer in drawing on a reservoir of casual labour.

Mr. William Crooks, M.P. the burden of the deterioration of his work-people upon the rates ; but in regard to the machinery he has to bear it himself.

27 Jan. 1908. 91387. That is to say, he has to pay the capital cost of the machinery ?—Of course.

91388. But he has not to pay the capital cost of the workman ?—No.

Failure of the tradition of the Local Government Board in respect to unemployment. 91389. (*Mr. Bentham.*) In your second Paragraph you say : " Tradition and precedent, based upon tests of destitution, have failed in workhouse administration " ; and I take it you mean that the tradition of the Local Government Board in regard to the unemployed problem is a failure ?—Yes.

91390. What is your measure of failure in the test of destitution, under our present Poor Law system ?—You have got conditions under which you are supposed only to help a person who is in a state of destitution. That is laid down as a cardinal principle, but concurrently with that, you fix this principle also, that no person shall be given outdoor relief, unless some person or they themselves are able to pay their rent, for instance. If they are able to pay their rent, are they in a state of destitution ? It is unfair, I know, to ask questions, but I do happen to know that there are very curious anomalies in Poor Law administration.

Anomalies of Poor Law administration.

No belief in destitution as a test of eligibility for relief.

91391. What I rather wanted to gather was whether you consider the poverty and the suffering which remains outside the Poor Law is a measure of the failure of the workhouse principle and of the present Poor Law ?—I am afraid I do not gather the purport of the question.

91392. You do not believe in the test of destitution being applied before an artisan is eligible for some form of relief ?—No, I do not think I do.

91393. You do not ?—No. I tell you that the bigger the liar applying under the Poor Law the better he gets off—and there is nothing to stop it.

91394. That would apply to almost everything that you deal with, would it not ?—It may be, but then, do you not see that you have laid down certain principles which are sworn by, and which we say are an absolute failure. Even supposing that you adopted this system which we suggest in dealing with the unemployed, it would never sink so low as the Poor Law has sunk, because you would get something for what you were giving.

Difficulty of dealing with the able-bodied in the poor-house.

91395. My point is, why do you say it is a failure ? I want to know what is your measure of failure ?—It has failed, because you have tried to administer an Act passed in 1834 in these days, when people have completely changed and an entirely different set of circumstances exists. It is not repressive. The real right-down bad man or bad woman is not deterred by anything you have ever done in the way of administering the Poor Law, as you know perfectly well. Who is your stumbling-block in the poor house ? It is not the aged, or the infirm, and it is not the children ; it is the able-bodied man, and the able-bodied woman.

Objections to the Poor Law. Methods of inquiry.

91396. You consider that it has failed then because it is not repressive to those it should repress, on the other hand there are a lot of people outside the operation of the Poor Law who need assistance ; is that your point ?—I say the people you get inside very frequently are not properly dealt with. I do not want people to go on the Poor Law. I hate the whole system, and I say I know something about it.

91397. Do you disagree with the test of destitution being imposed before a person is eligible for relief ?—I think you frequently do not help people in destitution. Your methods of discovery and your way of inquiry, and the conditions you lay down, are such as are revolting to these people until you have sunk them so low that they do not care what happens. I thought coming along of a single case of a poor woman, whom I know perfectly well, who had a little family. She applied for relief and she needed it, as I well know. The relieving officer discovered in the house when he entered that on the table set out on a dish was a cod's head and shoulders, which was bought for threepence. Here were signs of affluence ; and he went back and reported : " This person does not need

relief ; she was full of plenty when I arrived on a certain day after her having made application to me."

91398. Was that in Poplar, may I ask ?—It was ; but I am talking of when I was a youngster, and not since I have been grown up. There was a case in Poplar last Friday afternoon, where a committee of the county council were in a school where I know there were under-fed children. They looked round, and because the children were clean, and because their hair was combed, they said : " Look there, there is not the slightest sign of any need here ; how can anyone assume that a class like that should be in want." Your investigations are all wrong.

91399. That is rather away from the point I wanted to deal with ?—I know it is ; I am sorry.

91400. I take it that you feel that the test of destitution under the Poor Law has failed as a qualification for relief ?—Yes.

Failure of the test of destitution under the Poor Law.

91401. In the first place, because a number of people who ought to be assisted will not apply because of the conditions—that will be one reason, will it not ?—They are obliged to apply.

91402. They will not apply because of the conditions imposed by the Poor Law ?—I say you make no attempt to save any person. There is a case at Whitechapel, which my friend opposite knows perfectly well, of a woman taking £25 down to the Whitechapel Board—this happened some twenty years ago now—and she said : " I am destitute, but for this "—" We cannot look at you ; you are not a destitute person " ; and so the sooner she had wasted it, the sooner she became chargeable.

91403. Under whatever system you may have, you will have people who take a different view of the conditions and of the restrictions. Now the question of destitution will vary in particular men's minds, as it does in the minds of guardians, and as it does in the minds of officials. You will, of course, have that under any system, if you attach any conditions, will you not ?—Yes, I think you will.

91404. Then is it not rather unfair to say, because people take an outrageous view of what they consider to be destitution, the same thing will apply under whatever conditions you propose ?—There is no reason why not. I do not expect to get any perfect system in this world.

91405. You believe that the duty of the community should begin with the people who are in want before they get to the stage of destitution ?—Most decidedly I do ; I want to stop that recruiting.

91406. But you cannot measure at all, can you, the amount of good that this test of destitution has done in the past by throwing people upon their own resources rather than letting them lean upon public provision ? That is the side which might show the good of a test and yet it is immeasurable ?—I do not want to drop any person or relieve any person of his self-reliance. But what you have done, and what the system of society has done, is that it has robbed them of any opportunity of exercising it. You cannot persuade me anyhow that you are likely by any system to rob a man of his love of home. Bad people have always existed. I have another parallel case. The same kind of argument was advanced against me in a committee. It was said that a man or a woman might murder their child to get 30s. insurance money. " Yes," I said, " and the man or the woman who would murder that child for 30s. would murder it without the 30s. ; they are bad anyhow. I do not want to deal with them, the law is strong enough to deal with them." I want to deal with the decent man and woman who have self-reliance ; I want to deal with him before he has got to sell his home. Once you drive him right down, what does he care when he has got to come to you and beg and pray to you to do something for him ? In my own language, frequently a man comes up and I am unworthy to lace his shoes, so great are the efforts he has made to get work.

Self reliance : how far stimulated by deterrent features of public relief.

91407. I think I quite agree with you as to a good deal of that, but I might not agree with you as to the

cause of it. The point is whether self-reliance, and an enormous amount of self-reliance, has, or has not, been stimulated by the deterrent condition of public relief. Take all our thrift societies of various kinds, would they have been as strong as they are to-day but for this?—I do not believe it.

91408. You do not believe it?—No. I can give you a dozen cases in which it does not apply. Ask me on anything in my own life. I was brought up on Poor Law relief. My father met with an accident when I was a little chap and there were seven of us to keep, and not one able to earn a penny, and my mother had to depend entirely upon what the Poor Law gave us. I know they took the lot of us into the poorhouse—an abominable thing to do—and broke up our little home. Plenty of charity was given to us. But did one of us ever return to it? You did not sap what was in us—the love of our liberty and independence, and you never will, but you went a long way towards breaking it up if there was any weakness in us.

91409. Then it is not true to say that the Poor Law really does the mischief, and that once a pauper always a pauper?—Very largely it is so, because you will insist upon these lines of absolute destitution and begin breaking people's homes up.

91410. But your own example is against that, is it not?—It only shows that what you are trying to argue is what has frequently been quoted against me. But you cannot prove that once a pauper always a pauper, because if you look at modern statistics, you will see that that has been completely knocked on the head by improved education during the last twenty years. May I go a little further, and say that you cannot go to a Poor Law school to-day and find the low type boy or girl which you could twenty-five years ago.

91411. I am not disagreeing with you on that point. I agree that it is not once a pauper always a pauper, and that the Poor Law is doing a good deal to rehabilitate people; but it might do more, you may say. Now you do not agree that State-help kills self-help?—No.

91412. (Mrs. Webb.) The Education Acts have not killed self-help, have they?—I cannot understand the argument. The nation frequently makes a subsidy to a colony. Has it ruined the colony, because it has given £20,000, £30,000, £50,000 or £100,000? I say it has encouraged self-help. But when it comes to the individual it is "ruining" him.

91413. (Mr. Bentham.) There is rather a difference between the two, is there not?—All right; but I say it is the individual that makes up the nation.

91414. It is by individual effort, is it not, that we build everything up, and if you kill the effort you cease to build up?—Very well. My answer to that is that you have already killed it in more cases than are ever likely to arise in the days to come under a properly-organised system.

91415. In Paragraph 5 of your Statement you suggest that a labour Department should be created, and that labour department you state should do various things which you have put under various heads (a) (b), (c) and (d); and the first one is work that is already done very largely by the Board of Trade, is it not?—No.

91416. "Collecting all necessary information in reference to the conditions of employments and trade fluctuations?"—What do they do with it when they have got it?

91417. That is rather a different question?—Very well. If that is collected, that only means that you have got to transfer it to the other Department. That is so much saved.

91418. You would transfer it to this new Department that you would set up?—Yes.

91419. Then you suggest that this new department should be the one that should deal with employment and with the provision of work?—Yes.

91420. I do not mean to say that it should carry it out, but it should regulate the provision of the work?—Tell me what you mean by regulating. It could not regulate the conditions of work; it can only regulate the conditions of employment, or of unemployment

rather; that is to say, it could not go to Armstrongs or Mr. Williams to Maxims, or to the big Lancashire mills and regulate their work.

91421. I am thinking of public work. Would you put the control of the labour exchange under the same department?—Yes, I think I would; but I am not very keen about that side of it, because I think the system has not worked out as I should like it to have it worked. To use my own language, it is usually a means of supplying cheap labour and letting certain employers understand where they can get unemployed men at a low rate. The best kind of man has not come to you yet; I hope he will.

91422. If you have got to deal with casual labour and that floating class of labourers who are more or less out of employment, is it not absolutely necessary to know what the quantity is, and can you know it by any other means than having labour exchanges where every man shall register? You know the problem is really how to get a thorough system of labour exchanges?—I know that if you get a register, it does not mean a labour exchange. With a register you would know exactly what is happening; the department would know of that.

91423. You mean a register of people who are unemployed and who want employment?—Yes, of course. The exchange, as I understand, is a place where employers may go and see how many men are out of employment, and regulate their wages accordingly. You cannot wonder that I am a little shy of this sort of thing. I am not in favour of a sweater, even though he can tell me that he can get twenty people to do it cheaper.

91424. But there are advantages apart from that, are there not, in having a labour exchange? Labour might be required in a given locality when there was a plentiful supply in another?—Yes.

91425. And rather than set up works for absorbing this plentiful supply of labour in one district, it would be much better to transfer it to the district where there was work ready, would it not?—Certainly.

91426. Can you do that without a proper system of labour exchanges?—You must have the names registered, and you must know exactly what is happening. If you have the men who are unemployed registered, and if you have a record of the employers, and if you have a schedule of the work; that is all you want. Supposing, for instance, a man in Hull wanted 200 men, and there were 300 men out of employment in another place, and those 300 men applied to their local authority to put into operation the Act of Parliament and start work for them, then immediately your inspector from the new department would go down and he would say: "Really we cannot start this work here; there is an employer in Hull who wants 200 men; you go down there."

91427. But how would he know that the employer wants 200 men, if the employer does not say so?—I am assuming that the employer makes known his needs.

91428. Employers usually get their workmen in the best way they possibly can. If there was such a thing as a labour exchange where an employer could make application for 200 or 300 men for a special work, then the conditions of work generally might be rather improved providing that he applied to this exchange to get his labour?—I should think an exchange of that character would be exceedingly useful.

91429. It has been suggested that to have a register open for people out of employment would be rather a dangerous thing, but that it might be far more helpful if they put their names on the register with the object of having work found for them through a labour exchange?—I do not see any serious objection to it. What is happening now is infinitely worse. If a man goes and registers his name, he is asked, has he received outdoor relief; and if he says: "Yes, two months ago," then he is told: "You are not eligible to be taken on and to be recommended at this exchange for another ten months"—a wicked thing.

91430. (Mr. Nunn.) May we ask what exchange that is?—The local exchanges.

91431. Surely that is not so?—Do you mean to say it ought not to work like that?

27 Jan. 1908.

Defects in the working of labour exchanges. Proposed system of labour registers.

Difference between labour registers and labour exchanges.

Objections to present administration of labour exchanges.

Mr. William Crooks, M.P. 91432. Your evidence surely is not true of any employment exchange in London? That question may be asked in connection with a register of the unemployed which is being kept by the distress committee, but that is quite another thing. An employment exchange is surely quite apart from the distress committee's register? —But your employment exchange is run under the Central Unemployed Body.

27 Jan. 1908.
Objections to present administration of labour exchanges.

91433. It is run under the Central Unemployed Body, I know; but it is in different hands and under quite a different committee to what the distress committee is?—After all, you are all working one Act.

91434. We are working under one Act, of course, but what has that got to do with it?—Do you mean to tell me that all these men who are on the distress committee's register are not sent round to the employment exchange?

91435. No, they are not?—All right. I say they are—not in every case, for in cases that I know they have said, "You cannot go to an employment exchange; that is, we are not going to recommend you, because you have had relief within two months or within three months."

91436. Was it not your point that everyone who went to an employment exchange was asked whether he had applied to the Poor Law; and I asked you to give me a specific instance?—I have in my mind that they are both one thing—and both one thing they are.

91437. They are quite separate and are kept quite separate throughout London?—I hope they are, but in our case it is not so.

Defects of distress committees.

91438. (*Mr. Bentham.*) I understand you do not agree with having the two separate, that is, the labour exchange as a separate system apart altogether from the register of the unemployed?—I do not want to work on that line. Distress committees are working entirely wrong. It never was intended that they should sift, sift, sift, right down, and make men wait months before they get a chance. Naturally, they are driven to the Poor Law, anyhow.

Class of work suitable for relief works.

91439. Now with regard to the class of work that you have mentioned in Paragraph 5. First, the men who are accustomed to outdoor employment, men in the building trades and various other outdoor employments are most suitable for these kinds of work. The other class of persons who might apply would either do this work very badly for a time or they would be excluded by the rush, as it were, of those who were able to do this kind of work, because after all, these localities would not want to lose by this work if they could possibly help it, and the men who were accustomed to it would rather get the preference, would they not?—I daresay that is very likely, but does that not get over the trouble about men having work found for them and depending on it entirely?

91440. What I was going to say was this, that possibly this might become a sort of permanent profession for a particular class of workmen, and that another class of workmen who need quite as much consideration would never have any provision for them except in a distasteful way, because it would be distasteful to the latter to be making new roads, and it would not be distasteful at all to the man who was a builders' labourer?—That is so.

Agricultural training for unemployed, difficulties in providing workshops.

91441. And so it would be congenial to one class and uncongenial to another; and that would be unfair to the trade which was excluded?—That is how it appeals to you, but let me tell you how it appeals to me. Supposing the man is turned out of his work by improved machinery and the alteration of fashion—and you know both of those cause many men to be unemployed. He has got to look after something else rather than his particular calling, and he must turn his hand to something else. What I want done is to see that that man shall have an opportunity of learning something else. The only thing that occurs to me at this moment—and a hundred other things may occur as we gain experience—is that he should have an opportunity of being trained in agriculture or horticulture. We have got dozens of instances where men have turned, say, from a compositor or even a watchmaker, to that class of work; and they have taken very kindly to such work as agriculture or horticulture, and all the rest of it. Now that is not going

to be done cheap; that is going to be an expensive process. First, you have got to train the man and you have got to take him to a training college, as I prefer to call it; but some people think that you can say a nasty word about it and call it a farm colony. But you have got to train him, and in a very little time he will be a self-reliant man with plenty of openings for him at home—and if he cared to move there would be plenty of openings abroad for him; I would not tell him to go, but he could go.

91442. Should you like the absorption of these surplus-labourers, if I may call them such, in agriculture rather than by making provision in workshops of all kinds of trades? You do not go so far as that?—I should say you would not go on making things by hand that you could turn out more quickly by machinery.

91443. I mean rather than to set up workshops of that kind in order to provide the particular work that a man is accustomed to do?—I do not think you can do it, if it is proved that a number of men are thrown out. Your best illustration in the world is that of Leicester. At this moment, I am told, there are at least 600 men in Leicester for whom no work will ever be found in shoe-making again. The machinery has come in and it is turning out the work; the demand is as great, but it can be met with 600 men less. The problem you have to face is: What are you going to do with 600 shoe makers? The answer is the answer I have given: What is the good of my building boot shops?

91444. You prefer to absorb them in agriculture?—That is so.

91445. Even providing the work which you suggest here, there is a difficulty if the local authority has to suggest the work, which is rather likely to occur, because the central department when it is set up would not know in a particular district as well as the local people what was required. If there was to be part payment by the department from national funds, would there not be a danger of the local authority delaying work which they do in the ordinary way in order to start the work as a provision for the unemployed in order to get national grants?—Yes; and then your department would say: "No, friend, this is local work which you would have had to do under any circumstances; therefore our instructions to you are; since you have asked for it to be done, do it."

91446. You think the department itself would be able to regulate such a thing as that?—I hope it would.

91447. (*Professor Smart.*) May I ask in what trade you got your personal experience?—I am a cooper.

91448. Would you kindly explain what you mean in Paragraph 5 by Section (c)?—There is no compulsion about it; we need not trouble about the very poor employer, but as to men who have to deal, as they do deal, in thousands of men and millions of money, surely they would be glad enough to come to our help and give us this information, if only to help to keep up the supply of good men physically.

91449. Do I understand you want to know what are their slack seasons of the year?—Yes. Nothing positive could happen, neither would I allow it to be public. That would be unfair. But I think big employers might say: Our orders are falling off, and the chances are we shall be a thousand men short; or on the other hand they might say: "There will be so much more wanted here, and we shall probably want a thousand men on."

91450. I understand you think the machinery of some labour exchange in one form or other would be necessary?—Yes; if it is to be a permanent register—call it what you like—where every man may go. The present system of registration under the distress committees is simply appalling for raising hopes and dashing them down.

91451. I understand you entirely assent to the principle of labour exchanges?—Yes. In what has happened up to now our experience has not been good, namely, that it has been used by a certain class of employer to know the conditions of the labour market and to regulate their wages. You cannot expect a man like me to take kindly to a thing like that.

Agricultural training for unemployed, difficulties in providing workshops.

Proposed regulating powers of labour department.

Trade of witness. Desirability of co-operation by big employers.

Failure of present system of labour exchanges.

91452. I understand you are going to make a perfectly honest attempt to get all those into private employment who can be employed?—Yes.

91453. And this department is simply to take up the residuum, as it were?—Exactly.

91454. You have no thought in your mind of instituting a new Socialistic experiment to compete with private industry?—No, I have no such thing in my mind.

91455. But you could understand that a great many people are a little afraid?—I can. This is the thought that has been running most through my head during the last week. I said: "We seem to be running exactly on the lines of the Salvation Army, whom nothing can satisfy but Heaven; and the Labour Party upon the other hand are going to have certain things; so we shall all get there some day, when we are good enough; but in the meantime we have to live. We may get these beautiful things in the days to come, but people have to be fed now."

91456. (*Mr. Bentham.*) Do you know Mr. Beveridge's proposal with regard to labour exchanges?—No.

91457. (*Professor Smart.*) My difficulty is very much this, that, after the labour exchanges have done all their work, you will find a permanent body whom no private employer will ever employ if he can help it?—I see that as plainly as I see you. I see a mass of men whom no person can deal with but the State; and I say to myself: What is going to happen there? Then, I say, the State must step in and rescue these people. I will put as a concrete case Medland Hall, Medland Hall shelters 400 or 500 men every night in the week. They have gone through their pockets, I understand; and the biggest sum discovered amongst all the lot was about 3d. They get supper and something when they are turned out in the morning at six o'clock; and then they have to waste all day long; they crawl about the streets and then come back. I put it to any man: What is to become of them? No employer would give them 2d. an hour, and no one would be worried with them. Your State organisation could not deal with them, it could not put them to work. What is to become of them? I would turn them out on to the land. I say it should take them by physical force; it should put them into a barracks, if you like. It should cleanse them; give them clean clothes and feed them; treat them as though they were hospital patients; for a little while; and when the doctor affirmed that these men could now work, that they were in a physical condition to work, then I would make them work. But I see that army always dragging the rest of them down; and I am prepared to face them, and I am prepared to argue about the liberty of the subject, and all the rest of it. There it is. You have got to face it; and the unemployed are always kept back, and any attempt to deal with them is kept back, by this army. They say, What are you going to do with them? That is what I would do with them.

91458. (*Mr. Nunn.*) How long would you exercise powers of detention over such people?—There are some cases that would improve slowly; and I would leave to some person discretion as to whether this man was to be detained longer or not. My own feeling at this moment is that I would prefer quite an independent medical man for seeing to whether those fellows were fit to work.

91459. A magistrate and a medical man. You would have a magistrate, of course, to order detentions?—It all depends on the district. I am not keen on some magistrates, who might find a fellow a vagabond because he found a dead rabbit in the road, and all that kind of thing. I should keep an open mind about it all. I should prefer that a department should send out an independent medical man or a fellow from the department, and say: "Look here, the history of this man is so-and-so; very well, we will give him another fourteen days to stop, after which he will have to go and be dealt with properly."

91460. I am afraid a great many of these men would pass a medical examination except for sheer cleanliness?—Then you would have the history of the man for a few weeks before you, and you would know what was happening.

91461. Then it would seem, because I am assuming a medical man, that you would have to have some other authority?—You have heard me say before, the man who can and will not will have to be made; that is all. It is pretty strong to say so, but I feel it. I have to deal with all classes of men, and I know. *Mr. William Crooks, M.P.* 27 Jan. 1908.

91462. Then my point was: How long are you going to detain him; and are you going to trust his order for detention to an elected body or a magistrate?—I do not know. That will develop itself.

91463. You have not decided that point?—No.

91464. (*Professor Smart.*) I am afraid I go further than you; because I imagine after you have done everything to restore the men you will find a very large proportion who are still not fit for employment?—In the Bill we are introducing into the House we propose to deal with them if work is offered to them and they decline to do it; they should be dealt with under the Summary Jurisdiction Act, and be made to. *Proposed treatment of men who decline work.*

91465. I mean men who are not able to do work?—Then you will have to give them infirm treatment all the time.

91466. I do not mean to call them quite infirm. A man may be a little below the standard required by the private employer. I can quite understand the State as a matter of Poor Law, or charity, or whatever you like, giving a man employment under the standard rate; but I am perfectly certain you will have a very large proportion of that residuum who are never fit to earn the standard. You seem to think by putting them on the land you will make them able to earn their living?—Yes.

91467. I do not think you will?—After training?

91468. After training. Is agriculture such an easy trade to learn, and is it so profitable?—I do not think it is so easy to learn. I do not know where you get that idea. I think you would have to train a man for a considerable time, because there are so many branches. I do not expect him to be ploughing and reaping and sowing all the time. After all, agriculture, horticulture and flower-growing and that sort of thing, open a tremendous field. We have found perhaps a dozen or so of men who have been really quite unworthy of work from the physical standpoint who have done very well in that work. *Light work on the land for the partially unfit suggested.*

91469. But they must have exceptional brains to make up for the want of physical strength?—I am afraid you cannot class ordinary men with imbeciles; the mentally deficient you cannot expect to do it.

91470. I want to know why you are so strong upon putting the work on a new Labour Department? Would the Board of Trade or the Local Government Board not be able to take up this work also?—If you are going to develop the Board of Trade, do so; I do not want it to go to the Local Government Board. I want them to deal with Poor Law things entirely. I think, in a word, that while workhouses and infirmaries are necessary, and while children become chargeable, although personally I think children ought to be put under the Education Department whatever their conditions are, I would leave them there. They should not deal with able-bodied men and women at all. *Objections to the Local Government Board as authority.*

91471-2. (*Mr. Phelps.*) To take that last point for a moment, you must be familiar, as we all are, with the spectacle of children growing up habitually under conditions which are in favour of this class which we have been speaking of: have you any remedy to suggest with regard to that?—By taking the children. *Proposed treatment of children of tramps, etc.*

91473. Where you see children are growing up under conditions which are likely to throw them into the ranks of the unemployable, or whatever you call them, what remedy do you propose to meet that?—I would take the children entirely. I said that years ago.

91474. Take, for instance, a case which we happen to know of: Bermondsey. You would take all the children practically and put them out?—When a home can be maintained even under very poor conditions, I should let the children stop there. When I see these children—what has been running in my mind is the children of tramps and that sort of thing—I would take them away. I should not care what the father or mother thought about it.

Mr. William Crooks, M.P. 91475. Do you think the existence of this unhappy class you speak of in connection with Medland Hall is mainly due to physical or moral causes?—I should think both.

27 Jan. 1908. Physical and moral causes is a man falls out of work, and he lacks that moral fibre of unemployment-able class. to carry him on, and he drifts down, and the result is that he soon becomes physically incapable as well as morally incapable.

91477. I quite see in many of your proposals the effect upon the physical conditions of the men. Have you anything to suggest with regard to that moral condition of the men?—I think his morality has a tremendous lot to do with his fighting, a good deal more than you think. A man stopped me a fortnight ago. I could see he was trying to overtake me, and I let him catch up. He said: "What is going to become of me, Mr. Crooks?" I smiled, and said: "What do you think; what is the matter?" He said: "I was not in a bed last night: I am not likely to be in one to-night. I have been a teetotaler for seventeen years; I have done so long in the Army, and now I have been going up and down to the South"—he meant the South West India Docks—"The East and the Vic., and have had nothing now for four weeks." I said: "Where did you sleep last night?" He said: "On the Embankment." I said: "Why in the name of commonsense could you not find a doorway down here"—we were in Poplar at the moment. He said: "Because the Embankment is the only place where the police do not keep on moving you on; they let you stay and sit about there, but they will not anywhere else." That man had the moral character to fight: he keeps going, but the next man you may meet is without that moral force, and would simply knuckle up under it, and when he gets a day's work would not be able to do it at all.

Beneficial effect of regular employment and regular food.

91478. That I follow, but in the case of your colony and your system I see a great provision for reconstructing the physical powers of the men; have you any machinery you can suggest for dealing with the moral side of the question?—My own feeling always about that is that the man who is lax morally has not that backbone to fight. The moment his physique goes down he doubles up altogether, but if you get a man back to his health and to work, then it helps to strengthen him morally by the fact that he can remember what he has gone through through his own lack of fibre in fighting, and he will pull himself round. Take two men out of our twenty-four we sent to Canada. These men were real moral and physical wrecks. We had them down at Laindon and I went to see the twenty-four of them off at St. Pancras. These two fellows singled me out, and I walked along the platform in the dark with them, and one said to me: "How do you think I look?" I said: "You look like a changed man," and he said: "I am a changed man too." He said: "You know the last six weeks I have absolutely enjoyed working." There is a good deal in that. The other man said: "Mr. Crooks, you have been a friend to me once or twice, although you have made it rough for me once or twice, and I hope if ever you come to Canada I shall be able to put you up." He said: "You know how my arm used to be, now feel it." And I did, it is as hard as the calf of my leg, and his eyes instead of being like dead fish's were absolutely sharp. Here you get the men in the open. He would get his bath and his food regular and he had got different notions of life to what the workhouse could ever have given him.

91479. Do I understand you to think that regular employment and regular food is all that is needed in these cases. That is what I want to get at?—That is so.

Deteriorating effect of charity.

91480. Do you think it will restore moral fibre?—Take another case that has worried me for five years. This man was a coachman, evidently quite a smart chap. He came and spun me a very fearful story which I did not believe a word of. He did not look the kind of man, and I said, I am not having anything to do with it, so I put some sharp friends of mine on it. They came back and told me that the man's story was absolutely true. We fitted him up, looked after his wife in her confinement, bought a bed and one thing and another, but he has never done a regular job, and he has developed into a regular cadger now. He does not mind stopping you in the street and asking you for a shilling with all

the cheek in the world as though you owed him one. The man has simply deteriorated. If we had had a job of work to put him to it would have saved him.

91481. (*Mr. Gardiner.*) With regard to what you said a few minutes ago as to the condition of labour at the docks, I think you said it is as bad now as it was before 1889?—Yes.

91482. Have you any recommendation or suggestion to make with regard to the regularisation of labour at the docks?—It is very difficult to say what you should do. My own feeling is that if the big employers of labour would come to our assistance and just regulate their work for a permanent staff, you would get rid of, say, 75 per cent. of casual labour. I leave them a margin for fluctuations or urgent demands. That is to say, if 25 per cent. of their labour was considered casual. It would be very difficult; they may say it is only 25 per cent. now, I do not know. All I know is that at least 300 or 400 per cent. of people applying for work cannot get it.

91483. What steps would you take; would you go to the dock company?—I am afraid it would not be much use, but the organisation of work such as I have suggested might gradually wean these men away. I want to absorb the surplus labour.

91484. You want to take away from the docks those people who are practically unemployable?—And who are starving. If the agricultural labourer comes up and stands at the dock-gates, the foreman looks at a puny fellow and says "No," and he takes the agricultural labourer, and there is one more gone down.

91485. Your experiment is really that you want the bottom class removed from hanging round the docks, by showing them it is practically impossible for them ever to get a job?—Yes.

91486. Then you would want to deal with them in some shape or form?—Yes.

91487. Either by the means suggested here, or what is called a labour colony?—Yes.

91488. Have you anything to tell us about the age of school attendance. We have heard a great deal as to what you know perfectly well: the deterioration that ensues to boys who get jobs as van boys, newspaper sellers, and things of that sort. What steps would you like to see taken to prevent that which I suppose you would say ruins as many boys as anything you know of?—I have always been in favour of compulsory school attendance to help these youngsters between fourteen and eighteen.

91489. Continuation Schools?—Yes, Evening Continuation Schools.

91490. Would you just elaborate that a little bit from the point of view of the East End, that is to say, give us the hours you would recommend: seven to nine, or that sort of thing?—I should give them from eight to ten hours a week, I will put it that way.

91491. You would enforce that school attendance exactly as you enforce the attendance now?—Yes, I should be inclined to.

91492. You would not accept any excuse but ill-health or properly certified over-time?—Yes. What would happen would be this, that instead of the poor little van boy running to seed as he does (the remarkably clever little van boy is like the clever boy selling newspapers, he gets to the time when he develops into a hooligan or ruffian) he breaks down and becomes a consumptive or rickety boy, and he is a burden on you the remainder of his life, I know people who would make a useful man of him in the other way.

91493. With regard to one further point in this direction, taking the other class of boy who is not exactly apprenticed to a trade now, and does not get a better sort of employment than a van boy or a boy selling newspapers, he would be, through making attendance at a continuation School compulsory, given a chance?—I think his chances in life would be greater and better.

91494. Would you extend the half-time system?—No, I would not have the half-time system under any circumstances.

No half-time system under any circumstances.

91495. Not where a boy has begun to go to work at, say, fourteen?—No.

91496. They must work the whole time in the factory or office as well?—Yes, either be all a schoolboy or nothing. I want to develop him when he gets to work; a normal boy creates a demand as it were. I will give you an instance. I know a lad, whose name I do not want to mention, he is an orphan boy, his grandfather kept him; when he was fourteen he came and asked me what should he do. I said: "I cannot tell you, Tom, but if I were you I should join the classes at the People's Palace, and learn shorthand and typewriting." He had several common jobs—packing at the Mazawattee Company, gate-boy at an engineers' yard, and he worked at the post office. About three years ago I met him in the City, with a roll of papers under his arm, and I said: "What are you doing?" "Oh," he said, "I am working," and he named a firm. I said: "You do not know anything about that." "Oh, yes, I do," he said. "I have just designed an engine, and it is going fine." I said: "Since you have been to see me, what have you been doing?" He said: "I was secretary to an American commercial man, and I have been out of work several times," and he said: "Here I find the advantage of your advice; I took up shorthand and typewriting, and whenever I am out of work I drop down to Remington's, who send me off to a job and I get my £2 a week there at that work; if they have a casual job offered to them, they send me off to it." That is only one case in which the chap has made something for himself—created a demand for his casual services which pays him, and does not interfere with his development. In the last paper he has sent to me he is marked as an Associate of the Institute of Mechanical Engineers.

91497. That is to say, he has developed a subsidiary employment?—His shorthand came in for it; he has been in and out of that with the knowledge that he gained.

91498. (Mr. Chandler.) Shall I be right in assuming that the recommendations in your Statement here are practically endorsed by the Labour Party in the House of Commons?—Yes, they were considered and passed unanimously.

91499. Then they believe the success of these recommendations will largely depend upon the establishment of this Labour Department that is mentioned here?—Yes.

91500. With a President of Cabinet rank?—I do not think they would stand solid to any Department, but it appeals to them that that is the way out.

91501. Do they feel that the Board of Trade and the Local Government Board have sufficient to do without the Labour Exchange?—They think they have more than they can do, and this important work simply gets neglected in consequence, or regulated under old-fashioned regulations.

91502. Is the idea of the Bill that the collection of statistics by the Board of Trade may be taken from them?—Yes.

91503. (Mrs. Bosanquet.) As to these boys of fourteen to eighteen, is it not rather severe on them if they have to work long hours and do their schooling in addition?—I do not think it is; one has to remember that frequently at home in your own house the boys will want to escape going to school; if you make it that they need not go to school in the evening they probably find some recreation outside which is not going to do as much good, so you must regulate him or he will regulate you.

91504. You would not like to see it made by shortening his hours of work?—I would rather, but I cannot get into my head anything like sympathy with half-time. Some years ago we went down to Hoxton and met a number of employers in the cabinet trade, and what we did there was to persuade some of the employers to let their boys have half-days to go and get some technical instruction in cabinet making.

91505. It might meet it if one could get a regulation that people employing boys from fourteen to eighteen must let them off for this purpose?—It would be nice if they could, but my problem is the idle hours of the boys and how they can be usefully employed.

91506. You wish to see the boy occupied every moment really?—He may do a hundred things. I want to keep

him from the corners of the streets. He may go and play football, but I want to keep him from all the temptations that loafing about the streets leads him into.

91507. Do you think another way of doing that would be to have public playgrounds. A boy needs his recreations?—Yes, but then you would want organised and organised games.

91508. Would not they organise their own games, if they had the place?—Yes, they do to a limited extent, but what we are always troubled with is not the well organised boy, but the unorganised boy, who gives you endless trouble.

91509. To turn back to the men you sent to Canada, have you had any reports of them since they got there?—Yes, we had an exceedingly bad character about some of them, which was not justified. We made a further inquiry. You might ask Mr. Lansbury on that; he has the latest information.

91510. (Miss Hill.) I gather that you are anxious if this Government employment or municipal employment is provided, that the people should as far as possible get back to private employment, that they should not linger on at the work which is specially devised for people out of employment?—In every case I lay down here it is work that could be taken up and dropped.

91511. I was thinking about the effect of it. I gather from what you said to the Chairman you thought there was no fear that the men would stay on at that work if there was employment for them elsewhere?—I do not think they would, but supposing they were inclined to stay on, then I would simply turn them out.

91512. There were two questions I wanted to ask you about with regard to that. Supposing your 300 men whom you imagine coming to the municipality, and saying they were out of work were men on strike, what course would you take with regard to them?—I do not think you are called upon to interfere. I do not think you are called upon to start State employment, or to organise them as unemployed, where there is a dispute on between master and man.

91513. It would be difficult for the Department to judge between the parties to a trade dispute, would it not?—If you mix up a trade dispute with the unemployed, then I do not think you will ever get a solution. You must keep yourself quite clear of that.

91514. So you would not advocate this for men on strike?—No, but I would not like to bind myself down to saying such a thing was not possible, or it would not happen. I should think it was very improbable, because men on strike have no inclination to turn to other work, their feeling is they want to beat this man, and, of course this man is anxious to beat them. If they could only get absorbed in their own particular calling elsewhere they would be, and you must also remember strikes invariably happen amongst the skilled class of men.

91515. If they got permanent work under Government or under the municipality at market rates of wages, would they not remain there, or will they not at any rate remain there sufficiently long to give a very considerable impetus to the success of the strike; it will take them off their trade union?—Will a man register himself as an unemployed man under this scheme if he is on strike? You may frame regulations barring people on strike from registering.

91516. I was wondering whether that was your view, that those regulations must be framed, or not?—I should have to deal with that circumstance as it arose. I cannot bind myself to say now under no circumstances would I allow a certain thing to be done. Let me give you another case of what did happen. There was a lock-out that happened in a colliery district, and the masters ended by showed no sign of giving way, they locked the men out, the men were not inclined to go back and the men started relief works by making roads, and whether the men were right or wrong the colliery proprietors had to pay for it, so it ended the lock-out; they were paying the men to make a road they did not want.

91517. You have no definite scheme before you how the supply of work should deal with the question of men on strike?—I do not want to touch men on strike at all, but I do want this, that an employer who feels inclined to cut wages down should not have a large army, back on.

Mr. Wil'am Crooks, M.P.
27 Jan. 1908.

Playgrounds and organised games.

No intention of relieving when private employment is to be had.

The proposed Labour Department not to interfere in trade disputes.

Instance of a lock-out lock-out that happened in a colliery district, and the masters ended by showed no sign of giving way, they locked the men out, starting relief works.

The employer not to have a reserve of men to fall back on.

Mr. William Crooks, M.P. as he has now, march in to starve another lot out. I think you will agree I am right there ?

27 Jan. 1908. 91518. I was only wondering how this scheme was going to deal with this problem which is pretty sure immediately to arise ; there will be a strike somewhere and men out of work in consequence, and the authority will have to take one line or the other?—The authority would not be called on to interfere one way or the other.

91519. If the men want work would not they ask for work?—They might, then the Government Department would have to make up its mind what it was going to do about it. They might say: These are not *bona fide* unemployed workmen, therefore we are not called on to interfere.

91520. Any Bill you would propose would not lay down a regulation with regard to that, I gather?—I am afraid they will not let me lay down regulations anyhow, whatever the Department is.

The problem of the man who prefers casual labour. 91521. Then, secondly, I may illustrate what I have in mind by what I know happened: A friend of mine in the country was very much distressed about the account of the dock labourers and she got one of them transferred to the country who had some little knowledge of agriculture and put him on to her garden to work there. He worked a certain number of days, and then he said he preferred going back to the dock labour. He said he could work on and off when he chose and take a holiday when he chose, and off he went. It struck me that the same thing would happen; you would get people who were not prepared for the quiet work they were wanted for, which was perhaps done in not very exciting surroundings, and they would prefer to work with a large gang of men. How would you deal with that?—If you allow them to get into that state of moral deterioration you would have to put up with them. You will always find men and women like that. Why are people always changing their servants, or those in any position? Exactly for the same reason. When they get a gem they make much of it, but they do not want to frame Unemployed Acts on their experience of their servants.

How to deal with agricultural labourers. 91522. Are you not providing what would rather increase dependency, a certain amount of work altogether with great regularity; and if municipal bodies are responsible for work they are apt to provide concerts in the evening and exceptionally cheerful conditions; will not that be rather an attraction, we will say, to the agricultural labourer who is in the village?—I would keep him on the land, he would be dealt with in a proper way.

91523. But they do not stop there?—Take the other side; supposing you do not do anything and you just leave them alone; very well, what is the condition, as we know it to-day, in London and every big city? Moral deterioration going on as well as physical deterioration by men and women, and because of the possibility that something such as you suggest may happen, therefore leave them alone to the misery they are in at the present moment. Whatever you do must be an improvement upon present conditions.

Danger of injuring self-reliance. 91524. I do not think we need pass entirely from an elaborate scheme of provision for everybody out of work to doing nothing at all, because we feel that a large system of universal supply of work will be a difficulty. I do not think myself that it will stimulate self-reliance, I doubt it, and I think you will have the difficulty that it will be an attraction to the people who have not very exciting surroundings?—Supposing it is so, then they leave vacancies for other people to fill. You have got a surplus number of men and women to deal with. What are you going to do with them? Are we always to have the argument that you have no business to attract people to this because it will make it more difficult for them to have a selection? Why should there be five men praying and beseeching one person to give one of the five a job, and that one can only get it by accepting starvation conditions?

91525. Some of us may think it is because the five persons are not using their best endeavours.—Well, what are we going to do with them? You have to keep them.

91526. That will be a question for afterwards.—The point is that this Commission is sitting to find out what it is going to do.

91527. The Poor Law, as certainly most people will agree, has improved in its way of dealing with the young and the sick and old; at any rate there are certain improvements, but where it appears most unaltered is with regard to the able-bodied? Is not that so?—Yes.

91528. Have you thought at all that the difficulty of employing them was in consequence partly of the grave fear of competing with other employers if anything was introduced into the workhouse which was sold, the idea of the old Poor Law people was that these people should work, and yet it is very difficult to find them work; is that because they are forbidden from entering into any productive industry?—Nobody cares to think of anything except breaking stones and oakum-picking. That is as far as the imagination of guardians has gone. When we tried to introduce something new we were held up to ridicule and scorn. We were the only people who dealt with the able-bodied in a proper manner. We found the man was an adept at picking oakum and we gave him stones; if he wanted stones we gave him oakum. We simply did our level best, and the proportion of able-bodied, in spite of all reports, as far as Poplar is concerned, is in our favour in comparison with other unions in the matter of increase in twenty years.

91529. Do you agree with the assumption which has been made for a great many years that no Poor Law institution should take up work which was done by independent workers outside?—I do not think it ought.

91530. You mean you think that was a right assumption?—I do not think you ought to subsidise labour, and this Commission certainly ought not to be in favour of it. What right have you to subsidise labour to give men keep and shelter and to enable them to produce a commodity which cannot be made outside for the price. You are subsidising a few people at the expense of the ratepayers.

91531. You are subsidising agriculture, are you not, by the labour colonies; surely that is the same?—I have not heard of it.

91532. It seems to me you are?—I understood the last Government subsidised agriculture by letting them off with half rates.

91533. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) I am not quite sure whether your statement is intended to be practically in a different form the Bill that was introduced last session by Mr. Ramsay Macdonald, or does it modify that Bill in some respects?—This was a proposal put before the whole thirty-one Members of the Party in the House and unanimously agreed to.

91534. It is not quite the same as the Bill, is it?—No. What we are anxious about, as you know, is that we should get a second reading of our Bill in the House, and then whatever modifications the Government propose on the Act (which will have to be renewed this year or dropped) the two things should go up together, and the Committee should thresh out any of the points. We do not swear by the Bill as introduced.

91535. I thought that this statement in some respects was not on quite the same lines. For instance, the Bill does not propose a new Government Department?—No; what we felt was that if we could get a Second Reading of the Bill and send it to a Committee, it would be threshed out very largely on this thing that we have.

91536. Take a more important point where there seems to me (perhaps I am mistaken) not to be entire agreement between the statement and the Bill. The Bill does not confine itself to exceptional distress, does it; it takes rather, does it not, the right of the worker to work?—Yes, to work anyhow.

91537. You have not gone into that?—That of course is a tremendous subject which will be threshed out as to whether the mere application for work carries with it the right to be employed immediately, or whether, on the other hand, it should be under conditions of absolute need of employment. Take, for instance, transfer of work; a man wants to transfer his job; should he have a right to come and transfer himself from one thing to another. In my own trade if I do not like one master I go to another, but if the other master gets wind that I am leaving to come to him, he probably will not have me; it works that way.

How to deal with the able-bodied unemployed? How they were treated at Poplar.

Danger of subsidising labour through the Poor Law.

The Bill introduced by Mr. Ramsay Macdonald. Its terms. Questions raised by the Bill.

91538. Practically under the Bill anybody might go and register himself as desirous of work?—Yes, the argument there remains rather that a man offering himself for employment was a proof that he needed employment, which could only be tested by employment being given him.

91539. The Bill goes on to say that thereupon when he is registered it shall be the duty of the local authority to provide him with work, or if they cannot, to maintain him in the meantime?—Yes.

91540. Therefore you would, under that system, be likely to get a man registering himself because he would lose nothing by registering himself, and he might gain something?—I should think there the Bill would want strengthening, or rather a definition as to what is meant; whether he shall be a *bona fide* unemployed man, or whether he may register for the sake of changed employment.

91541. Otherwise there would be the danger of overwhelming your authority by a number of people who would not need work at all?—That is so.

91542. Coming to the operation of the Unemployed Workmen Act, you remember the way in which it started?—Indeed I do.

91543. The object of the Act was, was it not, really to meet times of temporary distress, such as winter distress?—Yes.

91544. The object of the Act, whether rightly or wrongly we are not going into just now, is not to afford permanent employment?—No, but the failure came in through no well organised schemes being submitted, or no well thought out schemes, and then it was only such persons as the distress committee sent on. You know what happened; they sent up the most distressful cases, and with all respect to them they might have been dealt with honestly under the Poor Law, while on the other hand you might have rescued many a man from going to the Poor Law at all. The intention was to save these men from recruiting the ranks of the permanently unemployed—to tide them over.

91545. The Act did not say anything about that, did it?—No, I wish it had, but all the speeches ran in that direction.

91546. Nor did the Regulations. It was not destitution that was the test; it was really, was it not, that of being a deserving case, a man who could not obtain employment from circumstances not under his own control?—That is so.

91547. Therefore, in judging of the Act itself, ought we not to leave out the notion of destitution?—That is so; that is where they have administered wrongly.

91548. I thought you a little suggested that the Local Government Board was responsible for that?—I thought you were, and I do now. You never stepped in once. You were critics, you were not advisers. You are not obliged to be, I wish you were. You never started in once to point out what the Government or the Act wanted, but just let these people shape this thing in their own way. The result was that the Act itself was of no earthly use for the people we wanted to help. It was: "How long have you been out of work; how many children have you got? have you ever received parochial relief?" which is purely a Local Government Board groove; it ran in that groove, and we never got it out of it.

91549. You agree it was right to investigate the particular cases, as I understood from what you said before?—The modification did real good. I took the trouble to see a man who was registering names, and he said: "Of course now the enquiry is excellent," but see what happened by having this whole army of regularly in and out men on the list; you shut out the decent fellow; you did not give him a chance at all, unless he got so low that he had to go for relief as well. That is where they have killed the Act. The Act had all the makings of a good Act. That might have served for an excellent Bill, but it seemed to me, and I say it with a full sense of responsibility, there seemed no other desire from start to finish but a desire to kill it.

91550. The difficulty, of course, is in the investigation, is it not?—But we could have had an investigation which is quite right, but the distress committee took

the most distressful cases, which they had no right to take. One has to help distressful cases every hour of the day, but you are not rescuing people from poverty; that is what we want to do, and what the Act started to do.

91551. That is not the fault of the Act or the Regulations, but a matter of administration?—Yes, for which I blame the Local Government Board for not holding a firm hand over its administration.

91552. The Regulations the Board have laid down did not say anything about destitution?—I think the Local Government Board has got fixed ideas as to everything it touches. It is not sufficiently elastic to deal with this question of the unemployed outside Poor Law. Supposing I had been trained like you I can quite understand my doing worse things than you. I do not think I am as genial as you are, and probably I should be worse, but the fact remains you are not the people to deal with it.

91553. But what I am rather anxious to bring out is, and I think we are agreed on the point, that neither the Act nor the Regulations make destitution the test?—No, it did not, it was the means for employment being found.

91554. The case being a deserving case?—That is true.

91555. Any difference between us is as to the extent of the investigation necessary to determine whether it was a suitable case?—Then they began at once to use it in the way I have said, and pick out the bottom men instead of saving the top men from getting to the bottom. Now you have got into such a muddle you will never be able to get out of it. I do not know what Mr. Nunn thinks about it, he probably will not agree, but of all the delightfully chaotic committees I have ever had anything to do with, commend me to the Unemployed Committee.

91556. You have suggested that amongst other arrangements, employers should send their order books to some central authority?—I would not go so far as that, you would only raise tremendous opposition. I do not think I would attempt that. What I should probably do would be to persuade them, or get their sympathetic support for the effort you are making, telling them that you did not intend under any circumstances to publish their communications to you, but that it would enable you to deal with sudden cases of emergency from unemployment, etc., and I think they would do it, and have always thought they would do it.

91557. I quite agree you could not publish it; do you think they would send the information?—I think so. There is a tremendous difference in the feeling about the country now to what there was, say, twenty years ago. A man feels that after all it is part of his duty to keep up the moral and physical calibre of the people of the nation, and if he can help a Government Department in a just and proper manner, I think he would do it.

91558-9. (Mr. Gardiner.) Would not he be glad also to use the machinery you suggest, in order to keep together a body of workmen who would be suitable for his trade?—What has happened is this: I cannot believe that some of the big employers who fall back on casual labour now are in the end much in over it; they would have to regulate their work to keep a permanent number of people on.

91560. (Mr. Nunn.) With regard to the Central Unemployed Body, we are agreed, I think, that the Local Government Board laid down that the men who were to be preferred for the work were men of good character and thrifty habits, who had been in regular employment and had lost it; that was the case?—Yes.

91561. Was it not the Labour Party on the Unemployed Body who did their utmost to enlarge the borders of the men who were to get relief, by trying to abolish the test of destitution. The Local Government Board had laid down that men who had applied to the Poor Law during the twelve months previous to their application should be disqualified, but it was the Labour Party, was it not, on the Unemployed Body who tried to remove that, and let in the paupers?—Will you tell me who they consisted of?

Mr. William Crooks, M.P.
27 Jan. 1908.

Defects of the Local Government Board in dealing with unemployment outside the Poor Law.

Destitution was the means for employment being found.

Wrong methods adopted by the Unemployed Committee.

Desirability of co-operation by employers. Greater feeling of responsibility now.

Rules laid down by the Local Government Board.

Question as to the action of the Labour party on the unemployed body.

Mr. William Brooks, M.P. 91562. There was a deputation of several members, most of them representing the Labour Party?—There was a very small deputation which you could easily have over-ridden if you had liked; but what we wanted and what we most want now is—I know men may be obliged to go and get a medical order, and things like that—

91563. Medical orders were not included, because they do not disqualify?—Not now. There was the question of destitution which we wanted struck out—perfectly true.

91564. Does that not at once lower the standard? While a certain party on the Unemployed Body was trying to keep up the standard was not the other party trying to drag it down?—No, but even if that was so it does not convince me. What we wanted was to help the best of the men.

91565. Why did you try to include the men who had applied to the Poor Law during the past year?—I do not remember having done so, that I remember.

91566. I remember it very well?—You cannot remember me doing it.

91567. Not you, but the representatives of your party?—We had a lot to do with the carrying of this Act.

91568. (*Chairman.*) You do not agree with the members of the Labour Party who attempted to do what Mr. Nunn has said?—I will stick to what I said, that what we wanted to do was to rescue the men before they got low down. The distress committee have taken the men at the bottom instead of at the top.

91569. (*Mr. Nunn.*) Mr. Keir Hardie was the man who headed that deputation?—There is a good deal to be said for it, but it does not work out in the method I suggested.

91570. They dragged down the standard which the Local Government Board set up?—As to the question of destitution and twelve months' relief, I am against twelve months' relief now—a man having had relief within a year. I think a man might have relief quite easily. We gave it at the time of the unemployed difficulty down there.

91571. Is not the answer to that—I am afraid I must put it in the form of a question—that if you are going to have a lot of paupers come to apply for employment for relief you practically exclude the highest class of working men?—Yes, that would be so. I am not now complaining about that test of destitution being put in, but personally I want to help the man at the top, but supposing it happened that the man at the top had a bag of bread or meat given him, he is immediately outside the Bill.

91572. Is not the answer to that question that the man at the top hardly ever does go to the Poor Law. My experience of Benefit Society men is that.—You are a lucky man.

91573. My experience of the men we tried to get the Act for is that they do not apply to the Poor Law. With regard to the Bill I do not think there is anything in the Bill, is there, that contemplates that when a man is supposed to have had enough work he is to be dismissed. There you part company with them. You are dealing with exceptional distress in your paper, and you provide when the exceptional distress is over the man shall be sent about his business to seek employment on the market, but there is nothing in the Bill to that effect?—That may be. You heard what I said about it.

91574. The Bill offers employment to practically everybody, does it not?—Yes.

91575. Is it not your experience (I know the men come to you a great deal on these subjects) that amongst the lowest class of men who occasionally seek for employment a municipal job is just the sort of job they prefer. If they can get on to the road they prefer it to any other job where they may not have the same continuous employment?—That only happens about once in a lifetime. You soon fill up with them.

91576. Is not that what they all desire?—The general idea of men is to get a regular job, but after all, apart from the working man, is not that what is the matter with most people. Do not pick working men out.

91577. The more it extends through society the more we ought to set our faces against it?—Not at all. Supposing a man renders to you value for your money, whether he is on the road or doing anything else, I do not see what you have to complain about. Let me give you a case which has happened within the last two or three years. The Government have employed forty-two extra men in the Estate Duty Office—forty-two. They have only increased the Estate Duty in six years by £400,000, which is very little indeed, and taken £9,000 odd a year to pay these men. It would give 750 men 5s. a week for a year. Might I not be arguing: What right have these men to go there at all; by what means do they monopolise a Government Department and get employed? and all the rest of it. Why only apply that kind of thing to the men who want to get work.

91578. I might answer that these men are required for a special job?—I say exactly the same thing about the men who are on the job; somebody has got to do it.

91579. The point was that when once these men have got a municipal job under the Bill there is nothing to prevent them from keeping to it.—You heard what I said about the Bill. It is a second reading Bill: we want it discussed in the House where criticisms such as you are offering will certainly be heard.

91580. Perhaps it is not fair to criticise the Bill now, so I will go to one or two less contentious matters. You spoke of abolishing casual labour. Have you any suggestions to make. You said: "when we have abolished casual labour." You did not say how that was to be done?—I do not know; I have not come here with a panacea for all the evils, but the Government having called this Commission together do not expect even when you have finished your labours you will have found a way out. We agree that you will very largely help us to solve that problem of casual labour, because many men, many minds, but I am strongly of opinion that casual labour can be reduced to a minimum. We want to get that minimum as soon as we possibly can. The pioneers of your country, the pioneers of your Empire have been the men who did not like a permanent job—casual workers if you like. They have been men who could not rest anywhere, so they have pushed abroad and so that characteristic is not to be condemned in everybody because it happens to be amongst the poor as well as the well-to-do.

91581. Not at all?—Whatever the reason is, let us reduce it to a minimum.

91582. There is only one other point, and that is this training for agriculture. Are you proposing to train them to take agricultural jobs under farmers who rent their farms, or with a view to take small holdings? Which would you favour?—I am speaking with a limited experience, but I am in favour of small holdings. But you know how limited my experience on that is.

91583. Then, with regard to training people for this, is it not really better supposing you take a long view of things? Would it not be better to take the boys as they leave school and give them their training in agriculture, rather than wait until they had made a mess of London life, and then put them on to the land?—I think very largely you are right. There again you cannot tell the bent of a lad until you have given him an opportunity.

91584. Supposing you had the chance by means of legislation to give boys continuation evening schools, about which several difficulties have been suggested which I feel the full weight of myself, but supposing you could keep boys and girls at school until they were sixteen, would that not have a very beneficial effect on the labour market to begin with, by keeping out a certain amount of competition and giving boys an opportunity for their first start in industrial life by a thoroughly good technical education?—I should think that would be likely, but then you would be met with a very large margin of boys who show no capacity up to a certain age.

91585. The State has to turn out good citizens, and that is the whole object of elementary education. Would it not be a good thing to prevent a certain number of these defective boys going out into the world at all?—I do not agree with you, unless they are absolutely mentally deficient. You must know there are men, and women

Question of relieving men who have applied to the Poor Law.

Question of reducing casual labour to a minimum.

Training for agriculture. Small holdings favourable.

Terms of Mr. MacDonald's Bill.

Popularity of municipal jobs because more continuous.

Effect on labour market of raising the school age.

Problem of defective children.

too, who have been sadly behind in ordinary education who still have done excellently well in the world. We have a man (you may have heard me speak of him before) who cannot read or write and never could; he takes a boy about with him to dot down anything that happens during the day.

91586. Is it not a question for the State to consider if it cannot detain boys even beyond the age of sixteen, supposing they do not show any likelihood of earning their living in any department of life, and put them on to a farm colony for years?—Take the other side of the mentally deficient; we are at the present moment at the pleasure of the Local Government Board detaining mentally deficient boys and girls till they are twenty-one.

91587. Might you not apply that to the work of public elementary education?—I think it is a much bigger question than the mere dealing with the unemployed, such as we are discussing now. It is worth thinking about.

Mr. ROBERT VICTOR BROODBANK, and Mr. A. EVAN THORP, called; and Examined.

91592. (Chairman.) I believe, Mr. Broodbank, you are General Secretary of the Poplar Borough Municipal Alliance?—(Mr. Broodbank) I am.

91593. And you have prepared certain answers to questions on compounding which have been submitted to you by this Commission?—That is so.

91594. If you will kindly hand those in we will treat them as your Evidence-in-chief?—Very well. (*The Witness handed in the following Questions and Answers.*)

Question I.—Is composition by owners for the payment of rates the rule in your district?

Answer I.—Composition by owners for payment of rates is the rule in the Borough of Poplar, the abatement allowed to owners being as follows:—

Without agreement to pay rates whether property is occupied or not, 15 per cent.;

With agreement to pay rates whether property is occupied or not, 25 per cent.;

The maximum rateable value of properties of which abatement is allowed being £20.

The total number of private houses in the borough in the year 1905-6 was as follows:—

Houses rated at over £20 - - 3,259

Houses rated at under £20 - - 19,866

Total - - - 23,125

The total amount of abatement allowed during the year 1905-6 was £37,648 18s. 3d., which is equal to about 11d. in the £ on the rates. The rate levied for the year was 12s. in the £.

Question II.—Is direct payment by occupiers (a) possible, and (b) advisable? If, in your opinion, it is impossible, would you kindly say on what grounds?

Answer II.—My opinion is that it is not only possible, but advisable that all occupiers should pay rates direct.

My committee instituted the Modern Rent Card, for the weekly collection of rates with the rent, by the landlord or his agent, and it is urged that this method is a sound one, seeing that the tenant is called upon to participate in all fluctuations of the rates. I desire to draw the attention of your Commission to these rent cards, twenty sets of which I have pleasure in furnishing herewith, and further supplies are at the service of your Commission should you require same. (For specimen card see *Appendix No. IV. (A)*). It will be observed that each rateable value in the rent card has its individual tint of card for ready identification by landlords owning, or agents controlling, properties of various classes, and it will be found that the table on the back of each distinct rateable value varies with each change possible in local rates. These tables were found necessary owing to the difficulty of the tenant and landlord agreeing as to when minor variations in rates should take effect.

The argument used against direct payment has been the difficulty of collecting rates quarterly from the ordinary weekly tenant, and the great cost that would

91588. It is one of the preventives?—I do not think you could include it in any unemployed scheme. *Mr. William Crooks, M.P.*

91589. You advocate the reclamation of older people by putting them on farm colonies?—I do not think that is quite fair. What I said was, there may be men who had been out of employment in consequence of improved machinery or alteration of fashion, and things of that kind, who were obliged to learn some other occupation to that which they had been trained to. *27 Jan. 1908. Question of farm colonies*

91590. Do you not intend farm colonies for people who have made a mess of their lives?—It may be an abject failure, but it is worth trying.

91591. You are prepared to try it at that time, but you will not try it before?—I will not say anything of the kind. You may do what you like, but I do not think it comes within the purview of what we are talking about.

Mr. Robert Victor Broodbank and Mr. A. Evan Thorp.

be involved in securing payment in such circumstances, together with the premium that would be placed on weekly tenants vacating their premises when pressed at the final period for the payment of rates. Further, the cost of legal proceedings to enforce such demands would be great, and the exemptions that would have to be made by justices would cover every person in receipt of relief, and specially in the case of the casual labourer whose earnings are difficult to confirm, and to whom a quarterly charge for rates amounting to, possibly, £2 10s. in one item would be overwhelming.

At present a tenant paying, say, 10s. per week, including rates, pays the agent or the landlord this amount, which includes rates and taxes, and it would appear feasible that the landlord or agent should collect the rates on account of the Borough Council at the same time as the rent is collected, receiving an ordinary commission for doing so. The contention that the cost of direct collection of rates would be excessive, is met by this method, as there is no reason to suppose that the agent, acting at present for landlords, would not also be prepared to act for the Borough Council.

At present the rent includes rates and taxes.

Question III.—Do variations in the rates affect rents where composition is the rule?

Answer III.—Variations in the rates do affect rents to a very large degree in Poplar, where compounding is the rule, but this is entirely a matter as between each individual landlord and his own particular tenant or tenants. There are cases where rents have been increased repeatedly owing to the rates, but against this there are others under our notice where tenants have had no change made for some years, indeed since first occupying their premises, and it would appear that with the better type of landlord it is not usual to increase the rent to an old tenant, but this rule only seems to be the case where the landlord acts as his own collector.

How far a rise in rates affects rents.

Generally speaking, rents have increased materially through the rates being raised so abnormally, with the result that tenants previously occupying whole houses have had to let off part. Others occupying four rooms have reduced their accommodation to three rooms, and so on. Unfortunately, whereas rents are so often raised when the rates go up, the reverse is not general, but I am glad to be able to say that a good number of instances have come to my knowledge where the landlord has reduced the rent sixpence per week owing to the recent welcome fall in the rates in Poplar.

Result of rise in rates rents.

The point as between landlord and tenant is just what variations in rates justify any addition or reduction to the weekly rental, but the adoption of some such means as our rent cards prevents any large variation, or change, beyond a penny or so per week.

Effect of our rent cards.

Question IV.—Can you trace any effect of the direct payment of rates by occupiers on the interest they take in local government, and what attitude do the occupiers of small properties take towards local government when they do not pay the rates directly?

Answer IV.—The effect of direct payment of rates by occupiers was clearly shown by the storm of protest

Mr. Robert Victor Broodbank and Mr. A. Evan Thorp.

27 Jan. 1908.

The occupier who pays rates direct takes an intelligent interest in borough affairs.

Belief of some tenants that they paid no rates.

Position of limited liability companies.

A testimonial to our rent cards from Miss Octavia Hill.

raised by the ratepayers under the auspices of this Alliance when the rates in Poplar reached the high-water mark of 12s., and which protest resulted in the Poplar Inquiry held by the Local Government Board. Generally speaking the occupier paying rates direct, watches the call for rates, and takes an intelligent interest in the affairs of the borough.

My association, the Poplar Borough Municipal Alliance, in its efforts to endeavour to educate all classes of voters in the Borough of Poplar as to their duty and responsibility in the election of representatives on the Borough Council and Board of Guardians, was much struck by the statement repeatedly made by weekly tenants that they paid no rates, they knew nothing of rates, and cared nothing about rates, not realising the fact that the increases in their rents were mainly due to the abnormally heavy rates in the borough. This expression of irresponsibility on the part of this section of the electors caused my Alliance to consider whether direct collection of rates would not bring home to the weekly tenant the necessity for taking more interest in local affairs, and, seeing that there are 19,866 houses in the borough rated at and under £20, and the total number of electors on the register for borough elections is only 27,338, it can easily be imagined how seriously the question of compounding affects the well-being of this borough.

I am directed to call your Commission's attention to the unfortunate position in which all limited liability companies are placed in having to contribute so heavily to the expenses of the borough without having any voice whatever in the election of those responsible for its administration.

Question V.—Have you any experience of a weekly collection of rates from occupiers? Would such be possible?

Answer V.—I have had no personal experience in the weekly collection of rates from occupiers, but would refer you to a letter of recent date from Miss Octavia Hill, who manages the property of the Ecclesiastical Commissioners:—

(COPY.)

190, Marylebone Road, N.W.
Dec. 18th, 1907.

Dear Sir,

We have found your rent cards readily understood by tenants, and have found no difficulty in introducing them.

I have no suggestion to make as to alterations therein. I consider their use should be advocated and made as widely known as possible. They would teach weekly tenants, who form the bulk of the electors, what a rise in rates really means, and would teach them to advocate such expenditure only as is necessary. They secure this most desirable end while giving the local authority and the landlord the advantage of compounding, and the tenant that of paying weekly. —I am,

Yours faithfully,

(Sd.) OCTAVIA HILL.

To R. V. Broodbank, Esq.

Miss Octavia Hill has had many hundreds of the rent cards from us, and is best qualified to speak of the result of using the cards, while Miss Lumsden, who co-operates with Miss Hill, has also found a most delightful interest evinced by weekly tenants in local affairs through the use of our cards.

Question VI.—Assuming a weekly collection, would the cost be greater than the allowance now made for compounding?

Cost of compounding in Poplar. The same agent could collect rates and rents at the same time.

Answer VI.—The cost of compounding for the year ended March 31, 1906, in Poplar was £37,648 18s. 3d., and the cost of a weekly collection of rates on this class of property could not possibly approach that amount. If the landlord or his agent be utilised to collect the rates, when collecting the rents, the saving would be very considerable, and in either case, the borough would have the advantage of all electors directly participating in every fluctuation of the rates, and that in itself would make for proper and economical administration. Any agent at present collecting for a landlord would probably agree to collect for the local authority, and the one call would be sufficient for both purposes. This is, in fact, what happens now, when the weekly rent is collected. For instance, on a 10s. a week house, approximately 7s. 6d. goes to the landlord, and 2s. 6d. to the Borough Council, through the landlord; there should be no

more trouble in the agent remitting the 7s. 6d. to the landlord and the 2s. 6d. direct to the Borough Council.

Question VII.—Has the system of compounding any effect upon the value for rating purposes of the property compounded for?

Answer VII.—The system of compounding has no effect upon the value for rating purposes of property compounded for in Poplar.

Question VIII.—In the event of occupiers paying their rates direct, should an allowance be given for payment in advance?

Answer VIII.—I am of opinion that an allowance for payment of rates in advance is neither necessary nor advisable.

Question IX.—Does the practice of demanding payment of rates considerably in advance tell unduly on occupiers paying direct?

Answer IX.—The practice in Poplar is a quarterly payment of rates, and these rates are not usually demanded till the third or fourth week in the quarter for which the rate is required, and payment is not pressed for till about the eighth or ninth week of a quarter, so that it cannot be said that payment is made considerably in advance of the need for them.

91595. (Chairman.) The upshot of your answers I gather, is that composition is general in Poplar; but so far as you know you do not see any insuperable difficulty to abolishing compounding?—(Mr. Broodbank.)

I see no insuperable difficulty. Of course, whenever one makes a change that is radical difficulties always do crop up, but nothing that absolutely cannot be dealt with. The question is with the tenement householders, not in the county council dwellings, but in ordinary weekly houses in Poplar, now, tenants are letting off one or two rooms out of a six-roomed house. That is where the difficulty would come in, the tenant pays only part on account of the rent, otherwise in principle there should be no difficulty at all, as far as I can see.

91596. We have had several statements from different authorities, and I think the collectors are almost universally against it. I think the answer is that they will be asked to collect weekly?—It would be impossible from my point of view to attempt to collect weekly through the borough councils.

91597. The only way it can be done in your judgment is to collect the poor rate with the weekly rent?—Collect the poor rate and the borough rate with the weekly rent, with the as is done every day. It is being done throughout the country where they collect the ordinary weekly rent; the rates and taxes are embodied in it.

91598. I saw some cards that you sent us; those cards are new, are they not?—They are twelve months old, or rather older.

91599. Have those cards worked well?—Miss Octavia Hill, who has been our best friend in trying them, reports in a letter to me, of which I have given you a copy in my statement, that they are not capable of improvement as far as she is concerned, and that they answer admirably. The difficulty has been to get the house agents to do a little more clerical work. It is the agent who will stop the way. I do not think the ordinary landlord would object, though the ordinary landlord would probably object to abolishing compounding; on the other hand, if he looked a bit further he would see it was to his advantage to abolish compounding.

91600. A borough council can always stop compounding if they choose?—Yes; but I do not think any borough council is sufficiently drastic to suggest asking the landlord to collect his own rates. The course has never been entertained by a borough council, as far as I am aware, of adopting our suggestion, which finds cordial support in every direction as to its feasibility. It is collecting as they do it now, only they would have to make two items of it.

91601. They collect the rate and the rent together?—Yes.

91602. Supposing that was universal, I assume that there would be a certain composition for the landlord the agent for collecting; but he would get less than he does under the present system of compounding?—Considerably less than he does now I suggest. Take an ordinary agent collecting for his landlord. He gets 5 per cent., and in

The system of compounding has no effect on the rateable values in Poplar.

An allowance for payment in advance not advisable.

In Poplar payment of rates is not much in advance.

Difficulties in abolishing compounding.

Impossible for borough councils to collect rates weekly.

Proposal to collect rates as done now.

Opposition of house agents and landlords to proposed change.

Extent of proposed change.

Position of the agent for collecting under proposed scheme.

some cases as low as 2½. Why should he get more for collecting it in future than he has done in the past. He collects, say, 10s. a week, which is typical; and when he collects it it is 7s. 6d. for the landlord and 2s. 6d. for the borough council. Why should he get more in this case, where he has only to make two entries on this card as against one in a book?

91603. Supposing he collects the rates, what does he do when they are collected; does he wait till the quarter is due?—I have left that an open point as between the landlord and the borough council. It is not impossible to suggest that 5 per cent. for collection and 5 per cent. for payment in advance could be arranged. What I am striving at, and what our association has been trying to get at, is to let the man who pays his rent weekly know how the rates fluctuate. At present it only fluctuates when the landlord puts on 6d. or 1s. a week. What we want to do is to let him feel the penny, a sort of pin-prick.

91604. When the landlord compounds does the tenant nearly always pay his share of the rate weekly or does he pay it quarterly?—He pays it in the rent; the 6s. a week or 10s. a week he pays includes every charge, even the water rate.

91605. There is no case where a tenant would pay so much weekly for his rent and at the end of the quarter pay a lump sum of whatever is due for rates?—Not to the landlord; there are cases, a few of them, where the tenant is a weekly tenant, and pays the rates as well, but the landlord has no grip on that tenant. He could wait till the ninth week of the quarter, or some convenient time when he did want to move, and then leave with his rates owing.

91606. There is a practical difficulty where there are several tenements in one house?—That means poverty, and where you get poverty you get casual labour; where you get casual labour you get spasmodic payments. The man who is a mechanic or workmen in regular work, pays two, three, four, five, six or any other number of shillings' rent, is ready with his money; it is the labourer who gets £1 one week, 12s. the next, and 35s. the next, who in the middle week pays no rent, or only 2s. or half of it on account.

91607. What I understood rather was, the difficulty would be if there were a certain number of tenants in a house each taking two rooms, apportioning it between them?—No, because their rent is the basis.

91608. Apportioning between them the whole rate they ought to pay?—That is not a serious point at all. If the rate for the whole house was 2s. 6d. a week, and it was a gross rent of 10s., there is the percentage as between each portion. If you got a separate tenement you would have to get a separate rateable value for each property. They are rating now separate floors and separate parts of houses.

91609. The difficulty you mention about the casual labour is a difficulty which applies, does it not, to the payment of rent?—Equally, absolutely; it does not bring us any new feature.

91610. So far as they are concerned you are where you were before.—Absolutely.

91611. Are those who have tried this and watched the effect of it pleased?—Absolutely satisfied. If you were to ask Miss Lumsden to come, or Miss Octavia Hill, they would give you some experience of their dealings with the tenants; some of them are amusing. It all shows that the tenant is alive to his responsibility even if he only has a 5s. a week rent.

91612. What is the effect on the tenant: do you think he takes a great interest in the expenditure of the rates, and the amount he pays?—Absolutely.

91613. Is the difference noticed?—Yes, the point is that when you get a weekly tenant you do not have him coming to a ratepayer's meeting, where you would get the ordinary man who is rated for his own property.

91614. It seems to me that if he saw that his rate was rising, the weekly tenant would be more concerned probably than the other tenant, because it increases far more to him?—Absolutely, and it would only come in pence, and the pence would be paid by the wife, who is the housekeeper, and she is keener on pennies than

the man would be. It is a reminder there is a 1d. more to pay this week than there was two weeks ago, or 2d.: it is the pin-pricks which tell most.

91615. Would you say the present system of compounding is bad in two directions, that the borough councils lose by it, and it destroys the personal interest of the occupier?—In both ways, absolutely. The borough council loses by it because the landlords would not use it unless it paid them, would they? and in the other way it is undoubted that the tenant does not take an interest: there is that irresponsibility: "Let us have a new park: we do not know where the money is coming from, but the county council will find it."

91616. Does the amount of rebate or commission which is allowed to landlords under the compounding vary very much throughout London?—I do not think so, but I am not prepared to answer that point.

91617. What is it in Poplar?—15 per cent. for collection and 10 per cent. for payment, whether empty or full. When the landlord takes the risk of empties, he gets the extra 10 per cent. (*Mr. Thorp.*) I have the figures here.

91618. It is 25 per cent.?—Yes, including both factors.

91619. The composition apparently is everywhere 15 per cent. and then with regard to the agreement relating to empties, the amount varies as it naturally would; the poorer the district, the higher the percentage?—(*Mr. Broodbank.*) Yes.

91620. What proportion of the owners in Poplar compound for rates?—The percentage is about 85.

91621. Would that be a very high percentage, as compared to the East and South of London?—I should think it is abnormal. I have not the figures of other districts, but I should certainly think it is abnormal.

91622. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) I think we had better get the exact state of the law applicable to Poplar clearly before the Commission. The case in Poplar is this, is it not, that there is an order in force there under which the owner of property of a less rateable value than £20 is bound to pay the rates; it is not voluntary with him, it is compulsory on him.—Yes, that is under Section 4, but that Section 4 can be rescinded.

91623. I want to take it exactly as it is now. Therefore it is compulsory upon the owners of the tenements to pay the rates?—Yes.

91624. But it is not compulsory upon him to pay whether they are occupied or not?—That is so. He is not obliged. He can renounce. If it does not pay him he does not do it.

91625. In the first case of his being bound to pay the rate, he is entitled to an absolute deduction of 15 per cent.?—Yes.

91626. In the second case, that is to say if he agrees to pay whether the premises are occupied or not, he is entitled to a further deduction which must not exceed 15 per cent.?—That is so.

91627. And the amount depends on the agreement between the owner and the council?—Yes.

91628. In Poplar it is 10 per cent., I think?—Yes.

91629. How far in Poplar do you find that the landlord agrees to pay whether the house is occupied or not?—It is practically universal.

91630. What is exactly the inducement to him to do that?—That he has not 10 per cent. of empties in his property, and the fact that while he is collecting the rent he may as well save himself that. (*Mr. Thorp.*) I think that goes to show there is very little empty property of that description in Poplar.

91631. It would pay the landlord obviously if his property was practically always let?—Yes, certainly it does pay him.

91632. Let us now come to the system that you work upon. Do I rightly understand that the agreement between the owner and the occupier is this, that the occupier pays to the owner a fixed rent, plus the rate whatever it is?—(*Mr. Broodbank.*) The occupier today takes it on a weekly tenancy at so much per week, inclusive of everything.

Mr. Robert Victor Broodbank and Mr. A. Evan Thorp.

27 Jan. 1938.

How the borough councils lose by compounding.

Amount of composition: (1) for collection (2) for taking risks of empties.

85 per cent. of owners compound in Poplar—Abnormal.

Compulsion on the owner to pay rates on property under £20.

Not compulsory to pay whether occupied or not.

Practically universal for him to do so in Poplar.

Little empty property of this description in Poplar.

The occupier pays a fixed weekly rent inclusive of everything.

Mr. Robert Victor Broodbank and Mr. A. Evan Thorp. 91633. Is it a fixed sum that he pays?—A fixed sum that he pays, subject to a week's notice on either side.

91634. Therefore, if the rate is altered the amount that he pays is not *ipso facto* altered?—No.

27 Jan. 1908. 91635. You have to make a fresh agreement with him?—That is on the system at present in vogue, so that if the rate went up 1s. the landlord would very likely say: We must put 6d. a week more on, but 1s. might only be equal to 1d. per week.

Practicability of an arrangement by the tenant to pay the rate. 91636. Would it be practicable, do you think, as an arrangement that there should be an agreement between the landlord and the tenant that the tenant should pay to the landlord so much a week for rent, together with the rate, whatever it was?—I see no difficulty in making it two amounts instead of one providing the total at the beginning did not exceed the amount then being paid.

91637. Otherwise you have this difficulty, have you not, that you have to have a fresh agreement if the rate is altered?—There is no agreement, it is taken by word of mouth.

Proposed that the rent be split into two parts. 91638. There is a verbal agreement?—Yes, to take the house at 10s. a week. We will take it at 10s. a week if that is agreed to be paid, in future we are going to split it into two, 7s. 6d. and 2s. 6d.; the rates are 2s. 6d. If there is an economical policy adopted by the borough council you may get your 2s. 6d. down to 2s. 4d., and the 7s. 6d. will remain. That would make the man take interest. (*Mr. Thorp.*) Inside the book you will see: Rent of premises as agreed; and: Borough rate as levied; so it would be an agreed rent, and an agreement to pay the rates and taxes, whether they fluctuated one way or the other.

Rent card system; how it works. 91639. What I understand from Mr. Broodbank is, that in point of fact there is an agreed rent with the occupier, which includes the rates?—That is so now. (*Mr. Broodbank.*) But not where these books are in vogue. I am talking of the ordinary weekly tenants case, where a woman goes and says, "I want that house." The landlord says: "Where is your rent card?" "Here it is." If he is satisfied she takes it, thereupon the rent is so much. With a card like this you would have to take it just the same as an ordinary tenant; instead of so much a year, it would be so much a week plus rats.

91640. That is where you have this card?—That is the plan that is recommended. What each individual tenant agrees with his landlord, I am not in a position to speak of.

Proposal that tenant pay net rental plus rates. 91641. I think what you are contemplating is that there shall be an agreement between the landlord and the tenant, that the tenant shall pay a certain rent, together with the rate for the time being, whatever it is?—Yes, that is so, a net rental plus the rates.

91642. And then he would get the benefit of any reduction in the rate?—Yes.

In Poplar the rates are made quarterly. 91643. In Poplar is the rate made for a whole year?—Quarterly. The board of guardians make their demand on the Borough Council half-yearly, but the borough council halve it for each quarter, and they make their own rate quarterly.

Amount paid by tenant would vary quarterly. 91644. Therefore under the existing system, if the tenant is really to pay the rate, there ought to be a revision in the rent every quarter?—Not of the rent. The amount he would pay weekly would vary.

91645. Not under the book, under the other plan?—Yes, that is so.

Under the card plan big variations would be avoided. 91646. You would avoid that under the plan for which this card is intended?—Yes, because it would not otherwise be clear to the tenant why he is being pushed up or down. Here it is clear, and further than that, to alter the rent 3d. or 6d. a week means a big increase in the rate. The practice has been for the landlord to put up with the increase till it becomes in his opinion intolerable, and then put the extra 6d. on.

The card system. Extent to which it is used. 91647. How long has the system with regard to these cards been in force?—Just about twelve months, it may be eighteen months.

91648. To what extent has it been used?—We have sent out a very large quantity of them. We are getting enquiries repeatedly for them. I had an enquiry on Friday from Portsmouth, where some house company down there was thinking of adopting them.

91649. Take Poplar, to what extent is it used in Poplar?—Practically not at all, the agents find it will be a little more trouble to them, and landlords do not find it worth their while.

91650. Who are the people who applied to you?—House agents and property owners all over the country; they were from Shields and Scotland down to Devonshire.

91651. (*Chairman.*) Why does the house owner want these cards?—Because he wants the rates in the district brought home to the tenant, because he finds it is becoming burdensome.

91652. And he contemplates I suppose that under the new system he may lose the present composition?—That is so.

91653. But he would run that risk provided the tenant will keep his eye open as regards the other?—Yes, I think it would pay any landlord to do it, because in Poplar it means 11d. to 1s. off the rates, straight off the reel. My view is we should never have had anything like a 10s. rate if the public had had a rent card like this, because they would have watched things as they went.

91654. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) I gather you are not in a position to say what has been the effect of the adoption of the policy to which this card relates, in any particular place?—No, I do not lay myself out to give evidence of that kind at all.

91655. You cannot say what effect it has had on the voting?—No, it has never been adopted in any district sufficiently widely to have any material effect.

91656. What would your plan be exactly with regard to the future? Would you say you would abolish compounding?—I should say so, but I am not prepared to lay down a hard and fast plan how it is to be done. The sense of responsibility is gone unless you pay direct yourself. It is like children with things that mother finds, they do not know that something has to be gone without to pay for them. The man who pays his rent on Monday, pays no heed to what the council is going to do on the Tuesday.

91657. Under the plan of these cards you get the benefit of the compounding now as far as the local authority is concerned, do you not, because the local authority would look to the owner and not the occupier for the payment of the rates?—Occupiers in East Ham I believe are rated direct without compounding at all.

91658. But under the plan of this card?—I should treat each occupier.

91659. Is it not included on this card that the owner should pay the rate to the local authority?—Absolutely.

91660. That comes to the same thing as compounding?—It does, certainly.

91661. The local authority would be in this position that they would much prefer getting the rate direct from the owner because they have fewer people to look to, and they are substantial people?—That is what they are doing now.

91662. Therefore, if you could have some method by which this plan of the card could be made compulsory, that would answer the purpose?—Absolutely.

91663. And be better than any other plan, surely?—Undoubtedly.

91664. Let me take one other point about which I want to ask what you say. It is this, it may be suggested that the collector of rents might be also the collector of rates, and responsible to the local authority for the sum so collected?—Yes.

91665. Are there not some difficulties in the way of that that means an army of collectors?—No, the men who do it to-day. It is done to-day; the landlord when he goes for the rent collects the rates.

91666. But he is not responsible to the local authority?—Yes, because he has undertaken to pay the rates.

91667. The local authority looks to the owner for the rates because the owner is the person who is rated?—I give this qualified expression of opinion, I think you will find in many cases the collector is rated as owner; he accepts responsibility on behalf of the owner and pays as the owner.

Advantage to house owner in proposed rent card system.

No evidence available as to the effect of the rent card system.

Moral effect of compounding.

Direct payment of rates in East Ham.

Difference between rent card system and the present system.

The rent card should be made compulsory.

Present responsibility of landlord for payment of rates.

91668. The agent does?—Yes. (*Mr. Thorp.*) I think that I am rather inclined to the belief that it would be a rather difficult matter to collect these rates direct, and I am inclined to the opinion that some law should be made by which this method, or something similar, should be made compulsory so that the tenant could be made to realise that he is paying rates and should take his responsibility accordingly. But in Poplar, for instance there are many more tenements now, that is to say one house that used to be occupied by one tenant is now occupied by two or three. That has been brought about to some extent by rents going up, and therefore the people have had to put up with less accommodation. That means that many more rate collectors would be necessary to collect the rates and I can see many difficulties, because if you authorised those agents to collect you would have to get them guaranteed, and if they collected to-day 5s. on account of rent and rates, it would be a little difficult perhaps to find out how much of that is rates and how much is rent and to remit the proper proportion to the local authority. What I would suggest now would be that this Rent Card or one similar should be made compulsory, and that the compounding should be modified. I think it is a great pity that the Maximum Rateable Value should be so high as £20 per annum. That means 16s. per week, and a tenant paying 16s. per week should assume a greater amount of responsibility than a tenant who is paying 5s. a week. I would suggest that the Maximum Rateable Value be reduced from £20 per annum to £15. I think that would help matters very considerably. Then I consider again that 15 per cent. abatement for Collecting (I think it was in 1869 that the law was made that you should be compelled to allow 15 per cent.) is very large, and I think it would be a good deal better if that were reduced to 5 per cent. and a compounding allowance, that is to say, pay whether empty or full, of any amount from 5 per cent. up to 15 per cent., to be left with the local authority to use their own discretion; if there were a lot of empties in one borough they could make it 15 per cent., but if there were not so many, 5 or 10 per cent..

91669. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Surely £20 a year is 8s. a week?—£20 rateable value is 16s. a week. (*Mr. Broodbank.*) That is rateable value against rental value. (*Mr. Thorp.*) £20 is the rateable value.

91670. (*Miss Hill.*) Have you the county council list because it will show the comparison between the weekly rents. Sixteen shillings to £20 seems extraordinary. Is it the arrangement in Poplar that a 16s. rent is rated at £20?—Yes, I have the figures here. Sixteen shillings a week works out at £41 12s. per annum, less a contingency allowance of 7 per cent., that brings your yearly rent to £38 13s. 6d.: rates and outgoings (that is reckoning the rates at 12s. and water 5 per cent.) £13 5s. 9d., that brings it down to £25 gross, and then there is an allowance of a fifth for repairs, etc.; that brings it down to £20. (*Mr. Broodbank.*) And the 16s. a week of course, includes rates. £20 compounded makes it 16s.

91671. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) Is not the difference between the gross value and the rateable value 25 per cent.?—Ours is 20 per cent. (*Mr. Thorp.*) My point was that a man paying 16s. a week should realise that he has a large amount of responsibility; and, therefore, I should consider it wise if that £20 rateable value were reduced to £15. It might interest you to know that in some of the other places it is lower. In Liverpool, for instance, it is £13, and, of course, I can understand a £13 house in Liverpool is not quite the same value as a house in London; and in Manchester it is £10, in Birmingham it is £10, and in the rest of the country £8.

91672. Are you aware that there have been proposals to raise those sums in the country?—No, I am not aware of that.

91673. There have been.—I should like to see it reduced from £20 to £15 in London.

91674. Under Section 4 if there is an order in force the owner must be rated?—Yes, the owner must be rated.

91675. And the local authorities, therefore, have no option?—No.

91676. What would you say to a proposal which enabled the local authority to determine whether they would or would not compound in those cases?—(*Mr. Broodbank.*) They can do it now by altering the section.

91677. In that case the owner is not bound to be rated?—No.

91678. Are you familiar with the provisions under the Public Health Act?—(*Mr. Thorp.*) No, I am not.

91679. That Act applies outside London. Under the Public Health Act in the case of small tenements the local authority may compel the owner to pay, but is not obliged to compel all the owners to pay. Have you considered how far that would be beneficial in London?—No, I have not.

91680. You see the difference?—Yes. (*Mr. Broodbank.*) The object I have in suggesting the reduction of the compounding is that I want to see every householder take more interest in what goes on in the borough, and let him have the responsibility; that if he is demanding that every man in the employ of the Council shall have 5s. a week more money, it would bring home to him that he is paying. Then there would be no objection to any scheme coming forward, so long as the man was prepared to bear his burden. One of the largest difficulties we have, of course, is the migratory character of the population.

91681. That is one of the objects of the compounding; that the local authority shall not lose the rate because the person goes away?—That is so.

91682. You know that compounding was absolutely abolished in 1867?—I believe so.

91683. And that it had to be re-established in 1869, because of this. The point we are rather discussing is how to get over the difficulty.—We get over the difficulty by making the weekly collection through the book.

91684. I think Mr. Thorp realises that the local authority would find some difficulty in treating as a person who is accountable to them each person who collects the rent?—(*Mr. Thorp.*) I do. (*Mr. Broodbank.*) Yes; but if you give them 5 per cent. for collection and compounding it is only what they do now.

91685. You would have to make each person collecting the rent accountable?—If you make him agent; but if you make him in the same position as he is now you would not.

91686. That is to say, if you made the owner still responsible for the payment of the rate?—Certainly, it is not so much the question of abolishing the compound as bringing home to the tenant his responsibility.

91687. Therefore you are inclined to the view that the most practical course would be to still recover the rates from the owner?—Reduce the compounding; but make the tenant pay the rate apart; and let it fluctuate.

91688. You are opposed to making any allowance to the occupier if he pays his rate in advance?—It is practically unnecessary. There is no payment in advance in Poplar with a quarterly rate. I will go this far and say that every borough should make its rate quarterly if that would help. (*Mr. Thorp.*) The tendency is all the other way. They want to make it yearly or half-yearly. (*Mr. Broodbank.*) Collectable quarterly.

91689. The reason for making the rate half-yearly or yearly is to save the trouble of making out the rate four times a year, and also the cost?—(*Mr. Thorp.*) Yes. (*Mr. Broodbank.*) In Poplar they make it quarterly. The rate paper does not get round for about three or four weeks, and it is four or five weeks before they start pressing, so that it is not paid until the ninth or tenth week. Where the injustice seems to come in is with regard to the large ratepayers. They seem to pay without any trouble at all. You go and collect ten times as much from them as from a landlord and they get no rebate or discount or anything, and they do not even get a vote.

91690. Are you thinking of limited liability companies?—Yes, the want of representation on their part, and the amount they pay without rebate.

91691. What is your suggestion precisely on that point?—That they should either have representation or else they should have the rebate; I do not care which way you put it.

Mr. Robert Victor Broodbank and Mr. A. Evan Thorp.
27 Jan. 1908.

Provisions of the Public Health Act.

Objects in view in reducing compounding

Advantages of compounding, and difficulties in the way of abolishing it.

Extent to which compounding should be retained.

Allowances for paying rates in advance unnecessary.

The collection in Poplar is quarterly. Position of limited liability companies.

Mr. Robert Victor Broodbank and Mr. A. Evan Thorp. 91692. When you say representation, you would give them a vote?—Yes.

27 Jan. 1908. Possibility of manufac- turers creating faggot votes. 91693. What would be the use of one vote?—It would not be any good. I do not know whether I am right, but it is quite possible that big manufacturers may have to resort to the subterfuge of letting each bench they have in order to get the responsibility of their servants attached to the rateable value of the place.

Extent to which rated property is unrepresented in Poplar. 91694. You mean split up the hereditament so as to get a number of votes, i.e., make faggot votes?—Yes.

91695. Do you know any case where that has been done?—No, I do not, but that is the only remedy that seems open to the big companies. Take a dock company with a rateable value of £50,000; it has not a single vote. (*Mr. Thorp.*) In Poplar it affects us to this extent, that out of a total rateable value of £839,736 there is representation for £511,294. In taking that I have only estimated one figure, and that is with respect to the factories. I have taken 50 per cent. of the factories in the borough as belonging to limited liability companies having no vote. That means to say there is representation for nearly 61 per cent. and no representation at all for over 39 per cent.

Difficulty in making the landlord's agent responsible to the local authority. 91696. (*Miss Hill.*) In your suggestion that whoever collects the rent should be agent also for the local authority and collect the rate, would there not be this difficulty, that the local authority would in that case not appoint the agent, and could not very well get security for him; he would not be in any sense their choice. It seems to me there would be a very great difficulty in making the agent of an owner collect the rates for a local authority?—(*Mr. Broodbank.*) It is done now under a different name. The agent, as agent for the landlord pays the rate, and, as agent for the landlord, he goes and collects the rate

91697. He has not to account for a number of small sums collected from a great number of people. If he compounds he pays the rates in full, but as you suggest, he would be paying only the rate he collected to the local authority. What check would there be upon him?—I do not suggest there should not be some allowance made for taking risks.

91698. I cannot help thinking that would be a difficulty still. The agent of the landlord is usually paid 5 per cent. for collecting rents?—In Poplar it has got down as low as 2½, but 5 per cent. is usual.

Difficulties in council appointing its own collector. 91699. Do you see any real difficulty in the council, if it so chooses, appointing its own collector at the same amount?—I do.

Useless to collect fortnightly. 91700. It is now allowing 15 per cent. to the owner; why should not it collect say fortnightly and pay its own collector 5 per cent.?—For one thing, you can take it really that the amount of rate in a place like Poplar is about 25 per cent. of the amount collected by landlords. You would have to go four times to get the same amount, and further you would never get two week's rate in one week; it would be useless calling fortnightly in Poplar.

91701. Such borough collectors would have a good deal of strength; although the amounts are smaller, you get a very large amount of property contiguous, and I think 5 per cent. pays very well where you have that. It is where it is scattered that it is difficult, but supposing you give your borough collectors 10 per cent. you have got your 15 per cent. to go upon. Would it be impossible to have it collected fortnightly?—I do not see why, if the landlord can do it, the landlord should not have a little benefit. You are paying for something in two calls that could be done in one.

91702. That really brings us very much more to the plan which is adopted in these cards; you give up very much by losing the direct contact between the tenant and the officials of the parish, and you lose the advantage of his getting the demand note with all its information on it. But you do get the variable rate?—I quite appreciate that.

Objections to direct payment of rates by the occupier. 91703. This may be better, but it is not as good as a direct payment.—I quite agree, but there are so many technical and practical objections in troubling everyone in the borough twice, where once would do.

91704. These cards have the advantage of combining the system of compounding which is certainly very convenient for a tenant for the landlord, and the local authority, and at the same time making the tenant feel the smallest rise and fall of rates?—Yes, then it is optional whether they do it one way or the other, but they think of it; but 15 per cent. for collection to the landlord is too much.

91705. I was not questioning the amount of percentage at all one way or the other, I was saying here you get the advantage I suppose of a fixed rent and a variable rate?—Yes.

91706. The tenant feels the rate going up or down?—Yes.

91707. And he feels every penny of it?—Yes, every movement.

91708. He has the advantage of paying weekly?—Yes, in one call.

91709. That is the great thing that is to be said for these cards?—That is so.

91710. And that they also save the collectors a very great deal of calculation in so far as they carry their own scale on them?—That is so.

91711. And that shows the tenant what he pays, and why he pays it?—I think a similar card would have been adopted years ago if anyone had happened to light on the idea of making a separate rent card for each rateable value, and putting a table like this. What has non-plussed many has been how to deal with it.

91712. You think it is very much fairer that the tenants who practically now vote the expenditure, should feel the rise and fall?—It is unquestionable they should.

91713. And decide on whether they really think it worth while to pay more, or think it worth while to save?—Certainly, and they would take a more practical view of the work of the borough, and certainly a keener interest in the conduct of its affairs.

91714. You feel very strongly that a limited liability company should in some way be given some representation?—Some representation I think. I am not prepared to say how I think it should be, but it is open to abuse. If the owner of a factory was to make each bench of £10 rateable value, and let it to his servants and charge that man with the rates off his wages, he would soon get a vote that way.

91715. Has it ever occurred to you that it is still more important in cases where large loans are contracted by local authorities, where payment is spread over sixty years, where weekly tenants are free to leave any week and can escape from all future payments, that in anything involving a loan specially some voice should be given to those who have some more permanent connection with the locality?—I quite agree. I think everything in the borough should be that way, that the payment should be the ratio of the influence.

91716. And that specially the larger owners should be brought in where it is a question of loans. If there is a difficulty felt in giving them votes about ordinary expenditure something should be contrived which would give them a vote upon that which goes on for a greater course of years?—One covers the other; I would rather see some representation. A man with a rateable value of £2,000, a managing director of a limited liability company, cannot even sit as a member of the council. (*Mr. Thorp.*) They feel the effect of a large loan straight away, inasmuch as loan repayments and interest become very much larger.

91717. They do to a certain extent?—Therefore they would feel that evil; that would affect their pockets to the extent of 1d. or 2d. a week.

91718. I suppose one real difficulty to the direct payment from the tenant is not only the question of the complication of the collection, but it is unpopular, is it not?—(*Mr. Broodbank.*) The very unpopularity of it draws attention to it.

91719. Sometimes the local authority is not too eager that the people should see the effect of what is being done?—Quite so. The people are deceived; the people are asked if they would like a free library, but they are quite amazed if they are paying their own rates, if it costs anything; they tell you: "I thought you said it was a

Advantage of making the tenant feel the smallest rise and fall of rates.

Question of giving a vote to limited liability companies.

Payment should be the ratio of influence.

Unpopularity of direct payment.

free library." I think with regard to swimming baths and the other adoptive acts, the public would still go in for them, but they would be satisfied with a less embellished building. They would buy something they themselves would be satisfied with, rather than what the architect cared to give them.

91720. Have you known instances in which tenants who have a variable rate are very keen about economies in the parish?—Yes, and I have heard Miss Lumsden give some of the experience she has had in that respect. They take a keen interest. You find if anyone has been a weekly tenant, and they take on new premises, and they get the quarterly notice of rates, they want to know all about it, and where it goes to.

91721. You are asked what the sweepers are doing sometimes, are you not?—Yes.

91722. For that reason, and also because no one likes the unpopularity of collecting rates from people, it is easier to go to a big man and get a big cheque?—It is, and yet he gets no discount for it.

91723. It is unpopular, it is not wholly a question of whether it would pay in certain localities?—That is so.

91724. (*Mr. Bentham.*) I notice on this card that you put the gross amount of the rate which the landlord is levied upon?—Yes.

91725. But he gets 15 per cent. off that, and in one of these houses where the rent is 10s. a week, it makes a difference of 6d. a week. Should not you put the lesser amount on the card?—The idea of this card was that the man should become the direct tenant at the net rent, not the gross.

91726. The man who is collecting the rates on his 10s. a week puts it down at 3s. 10d. per week?—Yes, that is the amount that is due from that house.

91727. But the landlord only pays 3s. 3d.?—The landlord is given 7d. for collecting it.

91728. He collects his rent at the same time, it cost him nothing to collect that?—Yes, but if this house were rated direct by the borough council and the collector came, he would collect 3s. 10d.

91729. But he would save the 15 per cent.?—Yes, but would not it cost the borough council more than 7d. to send an official to collect the 7d.?

91730. It might. I am not prepared to say. At any rate this is not the net amount that the landlord pays. He pays 6d. per week less than that in rates?—That is if he compounds.

91731. Yes, I am taking that?—We have to prove that the man has three houses to compound. If he has only one house he could not compound.

91732. That is, if he is living in one?—Supposing he had one house at Poplar and one at West Ham, if he came to the Poplar one to collect it, it would be 3s. 10d. he had to pay.

91733. There is another point that I want to put. I suppose the rateable value is arrived at in the way you state, after all expenses are taken off?—All possible expenses.

91734. If the rates go up that increases the expense and the rateable value should go down at the next assessment, you would get it reduced, would you not?—There was a case (I cannot give you the details of it) where there was an appeal against that very thing.

91735. The rent remaining the same and the rates going up, the landlord paying the rates is quite entitled to a reduction in the rateable value?—Yes, but unless he was a large house owner I do not think he would fight it.

91736. Why?—Because of the cost of appealing.

91737. Do you not circulate to all your members a scale upon which the assessment will be based?—The borough council have scales that are supplied to applicants duly accredited, but my Association does not touch property owners. We are simply there for the good of Poplar generally. The Association embodies all, of course.

91738. That shows that the whole of the increase of the rates does not fall on the landlord of a compounded house, does it not?—If he gets his reduction it does not.

91739. He is really entitled to a reduction if that is the basis of assessment?—Yes, but the general plan of the landlord is to increase the rent to meet the increased rate. One can find such contradictory cases that it is difficult to set any hard and fast line.

91740. If all are compounded for, the higher the rates go up and the lower the assessment, it is really annihilating the annual value by the increase of the rates?—Yes.

91741. You have not found it so in Poplar?—I have not gone into that point. The practice is if the rates go up that they increase the rent.

91742. Will not the landlord do both sometimes?—I do not think the rating clerk would allow him to get the better in that way. He could not get both.

91743. So he takes the easiest way?—Yes, to put it on the tenant, if he thought he could get it.

91744. If there is a plentiful supply of tenants they can put it on the tenant, it is the least trouble. If the house is empty, he would naturally appeal against the empty in assessment, and get it down?—Yes, the number of tenements empty in Poplar is not great. There is a tendency, as one sees, of the progress of things spreading eastwards, turning these houses into workshops and workrooms. There is a tendency to make Poplar of the Mile End character.

91745. You have given us the rateable value, and we have in your statement the number of compounded houses as 19,866. Do you know the rateable value of those houses?—(*Mr. Thorp.*) Houses rated at under £20, £259,140; that is about 31 per cent. of the total.

91746. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Your Association is made up of all kinds of people, is it not?—Every type.

91747. You have property owners there, have you not?—Some; they do not join as property owners.

91748. You have the agents as members, have you not?—There may be one or two, but not prominently.

91749. What is the reason why this rent card is not put in operation?—The agents, as I have mentioned look on it as a little more clerical work without any additional benefit to themselves.

91750. So you would propose that there should be a law passed to compel them to put it into force?—I should like to see it. Of course it wants fully threshing out to see that it is practicable.

91751. I understand from the answer that you gave to the Chairman that you only know of one place actually using the cards?—Where they are used freely.

91752. How many hundreds is "freely"?—Over the thousand.

91753. In one district?—Yes.

91754. Is that in London?—Yes.

91755. Will you give me the name of the place?—It is Miss Hill's property. I could not give you the details at the moment.

91756. You say that the rents have gone up in Poplar owing to the rates. Do you know anything about the last quinquennial valuation?—Not specially.

91757. Would you say that generally the rents have gone up in Poplar the last two years?—Gross rents have.

91758. And the weekly tenants are paying more rent?—That would be very variable; because if even the rateable values went up all landlords have not put the rents up.

91759. I am not talking about rates but rent. I want you to tell me the districts where the rents have increased?—I get reports in from all districts saying that rents have increased, and I get reports from the same districts saying that their rents have gone down.

91760. Is it not the fact that in the old Bow district from Malmesbury Road to Bow Road, where the rates are levied direct, as a matter of fact the rents went down, and the burden of paying the rates was actually put on the landlord?—With the result that now Malmesbury Road is being let in tenement houses, and they are raising the rent on that.

Mr. Robert Victor Broodbank and Mr. A. Evan Thorp.

27 Jan. 1908.

Not many tenements empty in Poplar.

Total rateable value of houses under £20.

The Association, of whom composed.

View taken by Agents of the rent-card.

One place where the cards are used freely.

Extent to which rates have raised rents in Poplar.

Mr. Robert Victor Broodbank and Mr. A. Evan Thorp. 91761. I was wanting to get whether it is not the fact that when the rates went up in Poplar the rents of the houses that were let to tenants who paid rates direct were reduced in proportion to the rates that were levied ?—I would not say in proportion.

27 Jan. 1908. 91762. Probably less than in proportion :—When the tenancies ran out the rates were up, the rates were frightening the tenants away, and the tenants said : If you do not reduce the rents we will go.

Question as to what govern rents. 91763. Does not that really prove that what really governs rents is the number of people who want to live in a certain district ?—No, I do not agree with you quite. It governs the class of people who live there, and the accommodation they put up with.

Conditions in Poplar. 91764. Will you tell me why it is that the rents are if anything, higher in the Stepney Union, where the rates are very much lower than Poplar, than they are in Poplar ?—Stepney to a large degree is getting a manufacturing district, and accommodation there is scarce.

91765. Exactly ; but that surely is what I said just this minute, that the rents are determined by the number of people who wish to live in a given district ?—I put it with regard to the class of people in such a road as the Campbell Road, if the landlord wants a tenant for the whole of a house he has to take less rent than he had before, because the neighbourhood is going down.

91766. You have hit on a bad road for your argument ; I have a tenancy there, and the rent is the same as it has been for some time.—If you want to get a single tenant in Campbell Road you have to reduce the rent. There are many houses empty opposite your place there.

Effect of increased rents. 91767. Not many, two or three.—There are four before you come to the Bridge. (*Mr. Thorp.*) I think it is more a question of the tenants having a good deal less accommodation than they had in the past ; it is not altogether a question of their paying more rent. It is a question of their paying the same rent with less accommodation ; the fact being that more and more tenements are coming about for weekly or monthly tenants in our borough.

91768. I was coming to that in a moment. You, however, assert that the rents are governed by the rates, and not by the people who want to live there ?—(*Mr. Broodbank.*) Not governed, influenced.

Extent to which rents are influenced by the rates the landlord pays. 91769. They are influenced by the amount of rates that the landlord pays ?—Certainly.

91770. And you cannot give us any evidence of your own particular cases where rents went up when the rates went up in that particular year that you spoke of ?—I could give you instances of weekly rents.

91771. It would be rather interesting, because the borough council has been trying to get some information about this. If you would put in a return of the number of tenancies where rents were raised during that particular year it would be useful ?—(*Mr. Thorp.*) I could get you some figures ; because I believe the landlords have been rounded on to that extent. The assessments have been put up because they have been getting more rent. (For letter received from witness, see *Appendix No. IV. B.*)

91772. I want that particular year when it came to 12s., because there may be other cases ?—I think every now and again we get complaints from tenants of the landlords putting up their rents.

91773. Of course, the rents now are supposed to be going down, are they not ?—Yes.

Tendencies causing people to move further out of London. 91774. As to these people moving out and fresh people moving in, is that not a tendency that has gone on in Whitechapel, Stepney, Mile End and Bethnal Green ?—(*Mr. Broodbank.*) Moving out and moving in ?

91775. People moving out of a big house, and the big house becoming either a workshop or let out in tenements ?—Yes ; that is partly due to the natural growth.

91776. Why should it be due to rates in Poplar and not in Whitechapel ?—It is the last straw. Bow up till recently has been residential ; and what has drawn the people out of Bow has been that they could pay their railway fare from an outlying district with the difference in the rates between that neighbourhood and Bow. It is the last straw that does it.

91777. You say that applies in Poplar and it does not apply in the districts round us ?—No. (*Mr. Thorp.*) There is this point ; it might not apply to Poplar where it might apply to Stepney and Whitechapel ; because Whitechapel and Stepney respectively are a good deal nearer the city, and people want to get to the city, and they live where they can get nearest to it and save expense and time.

91778. It is only one side of a street you are in Stepney and in the other side of the street you are in Poplar, so there cannot be all that difference.—Perhaps I was thinking more of Whitechapel than Stepney. Whitechapel is a far cry from Poplar.

91779. If you do not mind we will take the three boroughs that we run into, that is Hackney, Bethnal Green and Mile End. Do I understand you seriously to say that the tendency which you complain of in Poplar is due to rates, and in these other three parishes it is due to some other causes ?—I interposed just for that point. I do not know what Hackney's peculiarities are, or Stepney's.

91780. It is not the fact that with increased means of locomotion all kinds of people prefer to live just a little way out rather than in a district such as ours ?—I should say that is the tendency.

91781. And that they will do that whatever happens to the district. I suppose you are aware that Islington and Kensington, and practically all the inside boroughs are complaining of exactly the same thing that you are complaining of here this afternoon, namely, that their better property is becoming property that is let out in tenements. I suggest to you that the same causes that operate in these other places are operating with Poplar and the Bow district of which you spoke, and what are called the better-class residents are feeling that it is better for their children and themselves to sleep and be brought up in fresh air ?—That may be so. (*Mr. Broodbank.*) At the same time what has finally sent them away has been the rates. They may have used it as an excuse, you will put it, but it is a strong reason given.

91782. That is your opinion ? I put it to you as against your opinion that the same tendency exists, and has existed for a long period of years, in all these other boroughs. It has not been the rates, because the charge against Poplar is that their rates are higher than any other ?—(*Mr. Thorp.*) Some evidence of that I have in my office. One of my old clerks lived in Bow for many years with his mother. I think it was in 1904 the rent began to go up. It had then been 10s. 6d. for many years ; but it went up 2s. and then another 2s. The landlord of that house, you might know him, was Mr. Hall, a linen clothes manufacturer ; and he said : "I must put up your rent, because the rates are going so high." Then the rent was put up ; so now they have gone down to Chingford to live.

91783. Do you say the rates went up 4s. a week on that 10s. a week house ?—No, I do not suggest that, but the rent up from 10s. to 14s.

91784. It would be strange arithmetic that the rates went up to that extent ?—I suppose the rates had been going up all the time, and 10s. was the original amount of rent.

91785. It went up 2s. and then another 2s. ?—After one or two years. I do not mean in two consecutive years.

91786. Is that one of the houses in Armagh Road ?—I think it is.

91787. Was it not because those are better houses than the main houses in that street, and probably get a better rent ? I do not want to pursue that. I want to deal with the other point you mentioned. You are aware that Mr. Cahill first of all represented the London and India Dock Company on the Board of Guardians, when they were the Assessment Authority, and that he has liability been, and now is, Chairman of the Assessment Committee of the borough council ?—(*Mr. Broodbank.*) I remember he was on the Guardians when they were the Assessment Committee, but he is not there now by any right of representation. Question of representation of limited companies, whereby they may be represented.

Position of affairs in Whitechapel and Stepney.

Tendency now to live further out than our district.

The rates are given as a reason.

An instance of rents going up in Bow.

91788. He is there as their officer, and they are now trying to get him off to come and attend to his duties —I am not aware of that.

91789. You are aware that he is a servant of the Dock Company, and sat as Chairman of the Assessment Committee which fixed their assessment at the last quinquennial?—I did not know that.

91790. You do not know he was Chairman of the Assessment Committee?—No, I do not without referring.

91791. I am sorry your local knowledge is so bad. What is to prevent the Managing Directors of people who carry on their business there living in the borough?—That was not the point, that they could not live in the borough. The point I wanted to get at was that the property for which they pay rates carries no representation with it of itself.

91792. I suggest they can get representation just as those people get representation whose businesses are not limited liability companies, that is to say the manager of a given concern could live in Poplar and get his qualification in that way to represent his interest?—Yes, he is entitled by living in a place to his own personal representation, but he cannot represent two parties; he gets his own vote, but his personal responsibility is different from his firm's.

91793. So that, because of his dual capacity as an individual, if he lived in Poplar he could not represent his business concern?—I put it to you, take your own case; you might have a manager of your business voting for the company one way and for the other way himself.

91794. Certainly, but if a company wished to get representation, is it not the fact that they can manufacture and do manufacture methods by which they get representation?—That is so; it can be done. It is done, but the property does not carry with it, or the amount of rateable value and the rates paid do not carry with them, the right to representation. That is all I am thinking of.

91795. I am only trying to point out there is no reason under the law why every limited liability company could not arrange with their managers to live in the

district and so get the vote or the qualification which will enable them to sit on public bodies?—If he was under-manager and lived there.

91796. I am talking, if you do not mind, about a managing director who ought to be an agent that considers the interest of his business and the rest of it. What is to prevent him living in Poplar?—Nothing, but the managing director, as Mr. Brown, is entitled to his vote and not as a limited liability company.

91797. I only wanted to suggest to you that the limited liability companies, when they got representation, would have to suggest somebody to represent them?—Certainly.

91798. I suggest to you that the person they would be likely to suggest would be one of their managers or one of their under-managers, and I further suggest to you that there is no reason why they should not do that now by letting him live in the district?—I should suggest that that does not carry the right of representation with the responsibility for the rates.

91799. (Sir Samuel Provis.) Have you formed an estimate of how many agents for landlords there are in Poplar?—I should not care to make any estimate.

91800. (Chairman.) Is it very large?—Landlords collect for themselves. I cannot tell you how many landlords there are. There are perhaps about a dozen or twenty what you may call advertising agents, people who are property managers. There is Mr. Hooper of the Isle of Dogs; he manages a large property.

91801. (Sir Samuel Provis.) So there are a good many people collecting rents?—Yes, quite a number. There must be a lot. There are 30,000 properties to collect there.

91802. (Miss Hill.) Have you any arrangement in Poplar by which there is a different assessment on houses where the tenants pay their own rates and where they are compounded?—None at all.

91803. You do not know any parish in London where there is a distinct arrangement that the assessment is different, where the tenant pays the rates?—I have heard of it, but cannot trace it.

Mr. Robert Victor Broodbank and Mr. A. Evan Thorp.

27 Jan. 1908.

Number of agents for landlords in Poplar.

No different assessments where tenants pay the rates and where they are compounded.

Mr. CHARLES GEORGE DYE, called; and Examined.

Mr. Charles George Dye.

27 Jan. 1908.

91804. (Chairman.) You are Secretary of the Firewood Trade Association?—I am.

91805. You have been good enough to prepare a Statement, which I think, places your case very clearly. If you would kindly hand it in we will treat it as your evidence in-chief?—Certainly. (*The Witness handed in the following Statement.*)

1. I shall be glad if you will lay before the Commission this, the complaint of the firewood trade, against the continued and increasing evils caused by the giving of woodcutting employment by charitable societies, etc., as a means of supposed relief of distress.

2. As will be proved by the figures and facts contained in this complaint, such a system of diverting of employment from a class of hardworking workpeople (as the professional woodchoppers undoubtedly are) to provide tasks in labour yards, or homes for unemployed, tramps and other less deserving subjects, only results in a worse state of affairs being created, and the causing of unemployment and misery to the deserving ordinary woodchoppers.

3. For every day's employment of woodcutting given by a charity or a union means a day's employment less to the ordinary worker of the firewood industry—our contention being that, inasmuch the demand for firewood being limited any part of that demand being filled by the produce of charity or union labour, must lessen the employment and earnings of the ordinary or professional worker of the industry, and be the cause of such ordinary workers to be thrown out of employment, through the diverting of the means of their livelihood.

4. For years the woodchoppers have been complaining to certain charitable armies of the hardships they have been compelled to suffer through these institutions increasing encroachment upon their livelihood or industry,

and though one of the armies mentioned has discontinued the manufacture of firewood in its homes quite a number of mistaken benevolent persons have started, and are carrying on firewood making in mission or other labour homes, for the providing of "work" for the unemployed, "under the fallacious idea that destitution is being relieved by such means," so that the state of the ordinary wood-chopper is even worse than before.

5. In the summer season, owing to the use of gas and oil stoves, the demand for firewood is very limited, and the woodchoppers look forward to the winter months when the demand increases to provide them with full employment, with which they hope to balance this slack season—only to find each year more and more of the philanthropical societies opening firewood making homes, and boards of guardians opening firewood making relief labour yards for the presumed benefit of the unemployed, who, unlike the ordinary woodchoppers, are not asked to make any provision for slack times.

6. No relief for the "unemployed" woodchoppers in their (summer) slack season—yet when the winter comes and work in the firewood making trade commences, they must still suffer, in order that the shiftless or unthrifty may earn, or pretend to earn, the charity given them.

7. So largely have the Church Army, and other institutions, entered into firewood manufacture, and so great has, in consequence, been the distress caused amongst woodchoppers during the past ten years, that the Firewood Trade Association has been formed to try to combat the ever growing evil, and has made public the grievance in the press, remonstrating with the offenders, with, it is feared, little result—though in certain instances the association has convinced some boards with the result that their institutions have discontinued trading in firewood.

Wood-chopping a winter trade. Extent of interference by charitable societies.

Firewood Trade Association formed to combat the evil.

Mr. Charles George Dye. 8. A very large number of the woodchoppers have been forced out of the industry, and it is to be feared that a great many have had to enter the workhouse; also, the competition of the enormous output of Union and charity-made firewood put upon the market regardless of cost, has reduced the selling price very greatly, and the piece-work rates paid to the woodchoppers have also, through the low price obtainable for the manufactured article, fallen twenty per cent. on the average.

27 Jan. 1908.
Unemployment and diminished wages among woodchoppers due to charitable competition.

9. My association, with a view of ascertaining the extent of the mischief done by the competition complained of, recently circularised the London trade for figures, and whilst the statistics gathered can only represent part of the injury—"a large number of firms who admit of serious injury to their business, do not care to give figures, feeling that they would be disclosing secrets of their businesses"—we find that in seventy firewood firms a reduction of nearly 1 000 woodchoppers, or 75 per cent. in the ten years previous to 1906. The figures being :

In 1895	-	-	-	1,483	employed
" 1905	-	-	-	528	"

955 reduction in ten years.

Many small dealers driven out of business.

10. Also, I am informed that a very large number of small firewood dealers have been driven out of the business together with their workpeople, owing to being unable to compete and make a profit.

Serious grievance of the men forced out of employment.

11. That nearly a thousand self-supporting workpeople have been forced out of their occupation, is, we assert, a most serious grievance, and the fact that the employment which has been diverted from them, to provide farcical tasks on "Labour tests for inmates of Labour Homes not self-supporting but having to be bolstered up by rates or public charity," does not tend to make the complaint less serious.

The Church Army's methods.

12. It seems from the complaints of the majority of the firms that the Church Army is the worst offender—that the Army is said to be the most unscrupulous in its methods of trading—its numerous honorary or salaried agents seek orders for Army-made firewood, supplying at any price or size, at any sacrifice, to get the order. Where a shopkeeper has been paying, say, 3s. per hundred the Army will supply at 2s. 10d. or 2s. 8d., and still give a larger bundle.

13. Also, the buyer is led to believe that the Army is finding useful employment for the deserving and destitute, nothing is said of the plight of the unfortunate professional woodchopper who is being made destitute in the process.

Impossibility of ordinary traders competing

14. The ordinary trader has attempted to compete in order to keep his customer, but finds it utterly impossible to do so in face of a competitor which sells practically 4s. worth of material and labour for 2s. 8d., his competitor having the public purse to make up the deficiency from.

Examples of the methods of the Church Army and other bodies.

15. In order to prove how impossible it is to compete with the Army-made bundles of firewood, I would inform you that a trade made thirteen inch bundle of firewood, made from the cheapest material obtainable, costs 3s. per hundred to produce, of which 1s. 4d. represents labour alone, and on which price there is no profit, yet the Church Army sell 15-inch bundles at 2s. 8d. per hundred, and I am informed at even lower prices, the main object being to get rid of the enormous quantities made in their homes.

16. Another, the West London Mission, is selling fourteen inch bundles at 2s. 9d. per hundred, which cannot be profitably sold by a trader under 3s. 4d. per hundred.

17. I am aware that the Church Army also sells to householders at 3s. 6d. per hundred, thereby depriving the shopkeeper of his customer and profit. Even at this price the Church Army admit being unable to make firewood pay.

18. As I have already pointed out, the woodchoppers who are displaced are deserving and industrious workpeople, who do not ask for charity, but the employment which is rightly theirs. On the other hand, we find that the inhabitants of the Army labour homes are mainly recruited from the worst characters in workhouses, etc.

The class relieved by the Church Army.

19. I understand that the Church Army bargain with board of guardians to take such men who are incorrigible in workhouses, with the intention of offering such characters employment, if they leave it to return to the house (for any reason) the Church Army assists in the prosecuting and convicting of such men.

20. The Church Army homes are for criminals, inebriates, tramps, and unemployed, and for such the wood-chopper is deprived of his livelihood and compelled to suffer privation.

21. Information of Charitable Army or Union balance sheets, is practically unobtainable as regards the truth of

their trading, but it will be perhaps interesting to the Commission to know the results of two at least of guardians' experiments in firewood labour test yards for the relief of unemployed.

Financial results of experiments by guardians

I.—Bromley Union.

22. Bromley Union, Kent, which in 1904-5 expended £3,000 in the purchase of wood, which was made into bundles of firewood by the unemployed and which realized by sale £1,500 only—a loss of over £1,500 on the material alone, not mentioning what was paid to the unemployed for labour.

Disastrous experiment of the Bromley Union. Its effect on the trade.

23. This union's trading was done at such cut-throat prices that several ordinary dealers employing numbers of workpeople were driven out of the district, and almost ruined—one, a Mr. C. Green, of 9 Prince Street, Deptford, losing hundreds of pounds through the competition, and at the present time is still suffering from the results of the Bromley Union trading in firewood.

24. (It is satisfactory to note that this union's disastrous year's trading has satiated it, and I believe the Bromley Board of Guardians has no further desire to trade so largely in firewood.)

(II.—Parish of Leicester.)

25. The second instance is a balance sheet of the Leicester Board, wherein I find that the bundles of firewood made by the Leicester labour test, cost, to produce, 10s. 0½d. per hundred, and are sold at 2s. 9d. per hundred, at a loss of 7s. 3½d., which loss falls upon the poor rate, under the guise of out-relief.

Leicester Board's balance sheet. Heavy cost of labour. Effect on firewood dealers.

26. Further, I find, that the labour cost of making was 6s. 10½d. per hundred, or seven times as much as what the ordinary woodchopper receives.

27. A Mr. J. Hefford, of West Umberstone, Leicester, who was, until the union became a competitor, a large dealer in firewood, informs me that his business is practically ruined and he has been compelled to dismiss the greater part of his staff of workpeople.

28. These are two glaring examples of the fallacy and evils of union labour tests as applied to firewood, and we are assured that in every instance of union or charity firewood manufacture similar losses are the result.

29. Before leaving the question of union trading in firewood, I should like to place before you the case of the Paddington Union, which has a relief yard for "unemployed," where seven woodchoppers, who had become unemployed for the reasons complained of in this letter, were set to work at firewood making, thus placed in the position of pauperising their industry and themselves. Their employer had been competed out of the market by the Church Army and was unable to find them work, yet the Paddington Union put them to woodchopping and sold the produce of their labour on the market at a loss and thus still further restricted the self-supporting employment of woodchoppers. (For list of woodchoppers known to have become inmates of workhouses, etc., see Appendix No. V. (A).)

Woodchoppers as inmates of workhouses.

30. In the Westminster Union it was found that aged men of from seventy to ninety years of age were being put to woodchopping, and that board having considered this fact, together with our protest, decided to discontinue trading in firewood.

Woodchopping discontinued by the Westminster Union.

31. "A guardian supporting the resolution said that public bodies should not do the work which helped to swell the ranks of the unemployed."

32. A number of encouraging notices have been given to the grievance by the Press, and I enclose a short reprint of some.*

Sympathy has been aroused.

33. A deputation from the trade waited upon the Right Hon. J. Burns, President of the Local Government Board, on July 6th last, and received a most courteous and sympathetic hearing.

34. The question as affecting the evasion or offence against the Truck Acts by charitable institutions has been placed before the Commission sitting upon those Acts, but it seems that the unfortunate firewood trader and workpeople has no redress except publicity of his grievance which, in face of the influential support the charitable institutions have, is very hard to obtain.

35. I have been in communication with M. C. Jackson and Mr. T. Jones, investigators to the Commission, and have endeavoured to put the grievance, which is shortly that Peter (the woodchopper) is being robbed to pay Paul (who is perhaps a wastrel or otherwise undeserving clearly before them, and I believe both these gentlemen have been greatly interested.

Grievance of the woodchoppers.

* Not printed in Appendix.

36. Therefore I hope that the reports of these two gentlemen and this statement may sufficiently interest the Commission and be the cause of some relief being given to the unfortunate firewood trader and his workpeople.

91806. (*Chairman.*) Speaking broadly, the contention of the Firewood Trade Association is that they are subject to an unfair competition from the various religious societies, notably the Church Army?—That is so.

91807. Do you state anywhere in your Paper whether there has been a great reduction in the amount of firewood sold to the public since these charitable associations have been in operation?—The bundles of firewood produced by the Trade have naturally decreased owing to the increased production of bundles by the Church Army and other institutions.

91808. Have you been long connected with the firewood trade?—I have relatives in the firewood trade, I am not connected with it myself, except as being Secretary of the Association. I have taken a very close interest in the business for a number of years, through having relatives in the business, and I have been Secretary of the Association for this past two and-a-half years.

91809. Does that industry employ a large number of persons?—The manufacture of bundles of firewood still finds employment for many hundreds of workpeople, but self-supporting employment could be found for a very large number more if the output of charity firewood was stopped. The Secretary of the Woodchoppers' Union informs me that his members do not number as many hundreds as they, ten years ago, numbered thousands.

91810. I suppose the wood-choppers are scattered about?—Yes, the majority of them, I think, now are forced to earn very precarious livelihoods running about with barrows.

91811. I suppose the profit is very small?—The profit is practically gone. The bundles of wood are being sold at the present time at a loss.

91812. I suppose the profit was small, and the people were limited in the amount that they sold?—The profits were so small that the large merchants have given up manufacturing largely, their work-people have gone out to get a living, and are practically giving their labour away to the shops, owing to competition by the large bundles that are placed upon the market.

91813. You mention in the appendix to your Statement (*See Appendix No. V. (A)*), a number of persons whom you have known, who have become inmates of workhouses. Were they what I may call master woodchoppers?—These were cases that were given me by a number of our members, as to their own work-people; instances in which they have known where such work-people have gone.

91814. These various associations contend on the other hand, that they do not cut into or sell below the market price. Your allegation is that they do, by increasing the size of the faggot?—Yes, and also in the price too.

91815. You have two samples before you; are those supposed to be the same sort?—This one is the largest bundle that can be made in the trade at the present time, the standard size. It is practically a 13-inch bundle, though it is really 12½; they have to thieve half-an-inch to sell it at the price. That bundle is 3s. per 100, the net cost of the material and labour. It is 1s. 3d. per 100 for labour; that is 9d. to the woodchoppers for chopping and tying, 2d. for sawing, 3d. for the carter and the cartage, and ½d. for the boy that carts the wood to the mill.

91816. (*Professor Smart.*) Nothing for resin?—There is no resin; we are not allowed to use resin in London.

91817. (*Chairman.*) What is that sold for?—For 3s. per 100. That is being sold at the present time by a large merchant. This bundle is sold in the shop, for ½d. The shopkeepers sell it also in large quantities at 3s. 6d. per 100, and as shopkeepers insist on having a profit, and we are compelled to sell them at 3s. in order to give them a profit. In many instances the trade is compelled to sell at less than that and lose money by it. This large bundle I have here is being sold at the present time by a union at 3s. 3d.; it contains more than half again as much wood as the other article, it is a better quality of material. Of course, it is made by pauper labour, and that represents the size that the Church Army is selling to householders at 3s. 6d. per 100.

91818. Would you mind repeating what the proportions of material and labour are on the trade bundle?—The material in it costs about 1s. 7½d., because they have

cribbed half-an-inch out of it, and the labour is about, say, 1s. 4d. to 1s. 6d. per 100.

As to this, the witness subsequently sent the following note of explanation:—"The cost of wages, labour, &c., varies according to the distance delivered. Delivery costs from 4d. to 6d. per 100. The material in a full 13-inch bundle will cost at the present time 2s. per 100, but by reducing the girth ½ to ¾ of an inch the cost is reduced about 4d. per 100."

91819. How long does it take a man to make 100 bundles?—There are generally three people employed making them. One is chopping, one is picking up, and another is tying. Usually the pickers-up and tyers are girls or women, and a number of women are now chopping owing to the reduced wages now ruling; they would make in a full day of twelve hours' work, chopping, picking up, and tying, 900 to 1,000 bundles, so that 1,000 bundles at 9d. per 100 is 7s. 6d. to be divided amongst three people, and that is paying full rates.

91820. Is the complaint general amongst the Firewood Association?—Yes, it is general amongst the whole of the members and outside, I am afraid.

91821. You give two instances, one Bromley and the other Leicester where the Leicester people employed a large number of persons who came under the head of unemployed, and gave them this class of work?—Yes.

91822. Therefore your complaint is that this particular business is being unfairly competed with by a number of agencies, which are subsidised by public funds?—That is so.

91823. (*Professor Smart.*) Has your Association any connection with the Scottish Firewood Manufacturers' Association?—It has no connection whatever, but we have been in communication with them from time to time.

91824. How long have the present houses in the trade been in existence?—The large merchants have been in existence for a great number of years, but the small men I am afraid are come and go.

91825. What do you mean by a great number of years?—One man I speak of has been in the business for forty years, Mr. Davies, who used to employ 200 work-people, and has now twelve at work.

91826. You know the answer that is made by a good many charitable agencies;—that they were first in the field, and the private employers came in and cut the prices, and they were forced to go further?—I cannot admit that.

91827. It has been often said that this was one of the original manufactures of the Poor Law?—That may be so with regard to country unions, but I believe in London the firewood industry is a very very old one indeed.

The witness subsequently added the following note:—"I am informed that manufacturing firewood was carried on by the trade more than 100 years ago. There are old men of over sixty years of age chopping at the present time whose grandfathers did woodchopping. The Church Army has not done woodchopping more than 12-14 years."

91828. What wages do you pay?—That is part of the complaint we make that the wages that are being paid at the present time are much under Trade Union rates, the material has increased in price; the merchant is unable to reduce the cost of his material, and to compete he has to reduce the cost of labour, and so sweating has been created.

91829. So it is a sweated industry?—Yes at the present time, through the competition in the market.

91830. Is the demand unlimited?—I am thinking that the demand is very much restricted, from year to year it is becoming less and less, owing to the continued increasing use of small gas and oil stoves, so that the merchants are still worse off, by having a less demand, though I will admit that in the winter the demand should be equal to previous years on account of the very great increase of population.

91831. The fire-lighters have come into force too?—I do not think the fire-lighters interfere very greatly.

91832. Do you find the reduction in price has increased the demand?—We have not found that so.

91833. You spoke of the price as ½d. per bundle?—Yes.

91834. Last Tuesday night I heard these bundles being called in a London street at ½d. a bundle by a private dealer.—I suppose they were small bundles made to catch the public.

91835. They seemed to be about the same size as that. So I think there is as much cutting on the part of the

Mr. Charles George Dye.
27 Jan. 1908.

The complaint is general.

The Scottish Firewood Manufacturers' Association.
How long the present houses in the trade have existed; before the charitable agencies.

Sweating in the firewood industry.

Lessened demand and reduced price.

Mr. Charles George Dye. private individual as there is on the part of the Church Army?—That we admit, and we contend we have been forced to cut one another for the limited market that is left to us.

27 Jan. 1908. attempts to negotiate with charitable bodies. 91836. Have you tried to come to any agreement with these charitable bodies?—We have written repeatedly asking them to see us or to cease it. They have refused to be approached by the Masters' Association, though I believe they have met the work-people.

Extent to which the Church Army cuts prices. 91837. The experience is the same in Scotland. I have been assured very often by the Church Army in other places than London that the price they charge per bundle was higher than you?—We contend it should be higher still. In some instances it is higher, for instance this bundle here represents the size of their 3s. 6d. per 100 bundles. We contend that that should be 4s. 6d. If, in the trade, we had to make a bundle that size with that length of stick, and that size round and the same quality of wood, we could not make it profitably for 4s. 6d. They sell it for 3s. 6d.

91838. I gather the price is not really higher?—Not on account of the size.

91839. Not higher than yours is?—Higher in price in some instances, but not generally. Where they sell to the trade, such as shopkeepers, their price is lower.

Restrictions on using resin. 91840. You say resin is forbidden in London?—It is not forbidden so much, but the restrictions placed on its use by the London County Council are such as to make it prohibitive.

Methods used by the trade to compete. 91841. (*Dr. Downes.*) When you speak of a 13-inch bundle or a 15-inch bundle, do you speak of the girth?—Yes, not the length of the stick. The length of the stick varies. In consequence, in the trade, they have tried every means possible to compete with these bundles. You will see that the trade bundle is half an inch less in stick length. That makes a greater production from a fathom of wood, and enables the trader to come still further to a lower price, but even with all these advantages we are unable to compete.

Methods of work in the trade. 91842. In the trade is the chopping and bundling done by different people?—Usually.

91843. Do not they work in gangs?—Yes, in gangs of three. There is usually a man, though I am afraid the men are fast leaving the business and women are replacing them (owing to the sweated wages allowed a man for chopping), a young girl for picking up and a woman or an older girl for tying.

Amount turned out by a gang of three. 91844. How many hundreds can a gang of three turn out on an average in the trade?—I was speaking of figures given me last week by a large merchant, Mr. Lillie, of Deptford. I think the average for twelve berths was 4,800 in a week, some had done more, some had done less. The most one berth had done was 6,200, that is sixty-two nines.

Hours worked. 91845. Do you know how long they worked for that?—The man in that berth that had done the largest quantity had come in practically every morning at six o'clock in the morning, and did not leave until eight o'clock at night, having no time off for meals, he would actually sit and eat his meals at the block. The women come in at eight o'clock and leave at eight. We are compelled by the Factory Act to do that with regard to women. They work twelve hours a day, excepting Saturdays, when they finish at four, so that the women had done fifty-seven hours I think, and the man had done about seventy-five to seventy-eight, for which they had earned between them £2 6s. 6d.—between the three.

91846. That is the highest?—At trade union rates. In most yards they would not earn anything like that sum.

stances of men going to the work-house and firms ruined. 91847. With regard to the table in your appendix (*See Appendix No. V. (A)*), where do you get the information from as to these wood-choppers who are in the workhouse?—These were instances given me at a meeting of the association by the different members when I asked them for instances they knew of that had been actually forced into the Church Army or the workhouse. They gave me the names of the men who had worked for them as to whom they had knowledge of where such men had gone; the merchant had been compelled to discharge them on account of the work leaving him, and the men had gone direct to the workhouse.

As to this the witness subsequently added the following note:—"I have four instances furnished me of master Woodchoppers (or firewood dealers) who have been ruined by charitable competition.

i. Messrs. Daniels Brothers, of Bow.

ii. Mr. Graves, of Homerton.

iii. West London Firewood Co., of Wandsworth.

iv. Mr. W. Jones, of Hammersmith.

Many others have had their business seriously injured."

91848. Was it known if they had been in the work-house before?—That I am afraid we did not go into as to wood-choppers who have gone to work with the Church Army. I might say I have information from the Firewood Choppers' Association with regard to the men that went to Paddington. I have also information here in writing from one of the members of the association, Mr. Watts, of his men Mills, Fowler, Stevens, Tydeman, Smyth and Hare, who all went to work with the Church Army at the Walmer Road branch, when he discharged them through slackness of trade. Four of them are still there.

91849. (*Chairman.*) They went direct from employ?—Small wages of wood-choppers. They went direct from his work. Their wages are so small, that the moment the work is discontinued they must either go into the workhouse or sell matches, or adopt some other precarious livelihood of the same sort.

91850. They practically were competent workmen who went and were put to the same class of work they had previously been doing?—Yes.

91851. (*Mrs. Bosanquet.*) You speak in Paragraph 12 of the numerous honorary and salaried agents. What are the honorary agents of the Church Army?—I think I saw in an article in the Press that some lady of title had been awarded an article of furniture (a cabinet, or something like that) for her proficiency in gathering Honorary and salaried agents of the Church Army. In orders for Church Army firewood, so I take it she would be one of the honorary agents, not exactly a salaried agent. Their salaried captains and their col-porteurs travel from house to house with a lot of literature. They see the householder, offer their literature and ask for a contribution. The householder may give something, but as a rule he says that he will read the literature that is given him; then finding that they get no cash they ask for an order for firewood; and they invariably get it because they offer a larger bundle than the trade bundle.

91852. It is the honorary agents that interested me. How do you suppose they get the orders? Does the titled lady go to the shops?—No, I do not think that, they travel from shop to shop; I think their orders are mostly got by their influence among their friends.

91853. And the Church Army offers a reward?—I do not say they offer a reward; but they rewarded a lady of title by giving her a cabinet for her proficiency in gathering orders.

91854. We have had a document submitted to us on behalf of the Church Army in which it says two officials of the Firewood Choppers' Trade Union waited on the Church Army last August; they were asked whether they complained of the society for under-paying its men, or under-selling the trade; the answer to each question was in the negative. Would you admit that Statement?—I am afraid I cannot admit that. I was not with the officials of the Woodchoppers' Union, but I have a letter from the Secretary giving a history of what took place at that interview and he mentions nothing of that at all. I rather think that that would be just one of the points that they would complain of: that the wages paid by the Church Army are not the wages that should be paid; and that is part of the cause of the cheap bundle. (*See Appendix No. V. (B)*).

91855. Possibly we ought to have the other Statement put in, as this is a definite statement that no complaint was made?—I might say on behalf of my Association, which is the Association of Masters, we do complain bitterly of the wages they pay. We complain that they pay for this work in truck, and they get a greater amount of labour for the small amount of truck they pay. I was informed verbally by one of the labour home captains of the Church Army that they pay a price of 8d. per 100 for making these 15-inch bundles, the trade union price of which should be 1s. 3d. 1d. per inch girth is the recognised price, the Church Army paid 8d. per 100.

91856. (*Chairman.*) When your evidence is sent to you will you add that statement of your Association as to the interview with the Church Army?—I will see the Secretary of the Woodchoppers' Union myself, personally, and take his view of the matter.

Draft of Memorial submitted to Church Army by Woodchoppers' Union subsequently sent. (*See Appendix No. V. (C)*).

ONE HUNDRED AND FORTY-FOURTH DAY.

Tuesday, 28th January, 1908.

AT SCOTLAND HOUSE, WESTMINSTER, S.W.

PRESENT.

The^r Right Hon. Lord GEORGE HAMILTON, G.C.S.I.,
etc., etc., etc. (*Chairman.*)
Sir SAMUEL B. PROVIS, K.C.B.
Mr. F. H. BENTHAM.
Dr. A. H. DOWNES.
The Rev. T. GAGE GARDINER.
Mr. GEORGE LANSBURY.
The Rev. L. R. PHELPS.

Professor WILLIAM SMART.
Mrs. BERNARD BOSANQUET.
Mrs. SIDNEY WEBB.
Miss OCTAVIA HILL.
Mr. FRANCIS CHANDLER.
The Right Rev. The LORD BISHOP of ROSS.
Mr. R. H. A. G. DUFF (*Secretary*).
Mr. J. JEFFREY (*Assistant Secretary*).

Mr. JAMES THOMAS HELBY, called; and Examined.

91857. (*Chairman.*) You have been kind enough to prepare for us a Statement which, if you will hand it in, we will take as your evidence-in-chief?—Yes. (*The Witness handed in the following Statement.*)

1. I have been a member of the Metropolitan Asylums Board, nominated by the Local Government Board, since May, 1898, and after occupying the chairs of the Finance, Works and Hospitals Committees, I was elected Chairman of the Board in May, 1907.

My previous experience in Poor Law work and on other public bodies was as follows:—

April, 1893—September, 1898. Member of Camberwell Board of Guardians (Chairman of Finance and Workhouse Committees).

May, 1893—September, 1898. Representative of Camberwell Board of Guardians on Board of Management of South Metropolitan School District.

May, 1893—December, 1896. Member of Camberwell Vestry (Chairman of Public Health and Assessment Committees).

November, 1885—November, 1891. Member of late School Board for London (Chairman of Works Committee and of various sub-committees).

April, 1884—April, 1886. Member of Wandsworth Board of Guardians (Vice-Chairman of Board and Chairman of Assessment Committee).

2. While serving as a member of the different authorities mentioned I have had considerable experience in connection with contracts of all kinds. I formed the opinion quite early that the system generally in vogue under which tenders were obtained, contracts made, and goods received, was most unsatisfactory, and this opinion has been confirmed and strengthened as my experience has increased.

3. So far as the Metropolitan Asylums Board is concerned the procedure with regard to entering into contracts is governed by an order of the Local Government Board, dated June, 1867, and I believe that the procedure of boards of guardians is subject to similar regulations. Where any difference exists the guardians are probably confined within even narrower limits than those which affect the Asylums Board. Though the regulations have been modified in particular points of detail from time to time yet in the main they still stand in the original form.

4. It is very desirable that regulations framed so long ago should be completely revised. They were doubtless drafted to meet a condition of things which has materially altered. Contract requirements, which forty years ago were comparatively small, have increased with the growth of institutions in size and number until with a central

authority the turn-over is equivalent to that of a large modern stores. The Asylums Board alone now spend on goods supplied under contracts some £300,000 per annum, and enter into about 800 such contracts annually.

Mr. James T. Helby.

28 Jan. 1908.

The theory which seems to underlie the existing regulations, viz.:—that the supplies required by a Poor Law authority would be so small a matter and so easy to deal with that they could be obtained by the unvarying rule of advertising for tenders, and that the tenders could be opened and completely dealt with at one sitting, has therefore ceased to hold good for many years past. Such regulations were apparently devised, first to ensure the obtaining of the best or most suitable article at the lowest price, and secondly as a security against malpractices.

5. The uniform application of the rule as to advertising for tenders does not necessarily secure the result desired, indeed it may lead to an exactly opposite one. The authority is precluded from obtaining tenders from selected firms, a course which it is agreed is desirable in many cases, and from taking advantage of the state of the markets. The rule is also an obstacle in the way of free dealing between the authority and manufacturer or producer of the goods required.

I believe it is recognised that in open competition many of the best firms get tired of tendering, while manufacturers who would readily enter into a limited competition, especially if it were known to be confined to their own class, refrain from coming in where the competition is open to both manufacturers and retailers alike. This is understood in government departments where open tenders are not the rule, but under existing regulations Poor Law authorities have not the same freedom.

It is not easy to lay down a rule which would cover all cases, but, speaking generally, I consider that the best results would be achieved by limited competition and by having selected lists of firms to tender for each class of goods.

There would be no difficulty in the way of determining whether manufacturers only should be dealt with for any particular class of goods, and of inviting applications by advertisement from firms desirous of being placed on the selected lists. Any enquiries as to the *status* of firms would be made before they were placed on the list, and one source of the delay which now often occurs between the date of tendering and that of notifying the result would be avoided. The existing regulations, moreover, as they stand, do not admit of any exception, such, for instance, as when it is desired to carry out works by the direct employment of labour and purchase of materials, or when something is required which can only be supplied or performed by one person.

Mr. James
T. Helby.

28 Jan. 1908.

Opening of
tenders.

Relative
position of
Poor Law
and other
authorities.

Metropolitan
Asylums
Board
practice.

Preparation
of schedules.

Estimated
quantities.

Extension of
purchase in
bulk.

6. Since it is no longer possible in a great number of cases to open and deal with tenders for supplies, some containing schedules including hundreds of items, at one meeting, there can be no reason for continuing a regulation which requires a formal meeting for the opening of tenders. Tenders such as those referred to require careful collation and tabulation before they can be discussed by a committee or board, and sufficient safeguards can be provided by means other than those which the regulations seek to enforce.

7. While the Poor Law authorities are subject to such regulations as those mentioned, the great number of municipal and county authorities, who obtain supplies by means of tenders and contracts, as well as the government departments, are subject to no similar restrictions. At the same time it is a matter of common knowledge that while these regulations are in some respects obsolete and in others tend to hamper the action of the authorities, they have not availed in the case of Poor Law bodies to prevent irregularities of a kind and on a scale which have not been apparent in cases of non-Poor Law authorities. While I have no desire to see the ultimate control of the Local Government Board removed, I know no reason why a competent Poor Law authority should not be free, within certain limits, which should be much wider than they are at present, to arrange for the supply and delivery of each class of goods, and for the performance of each class of work, in the manner which is found by experience to be most suited to that class.

8. I should like to point out here that the views I have expressed above have been adopted by the Metropolitan Asylums Board. It should also be mentioned that during the last ten years a great advance has been made by that board in the system of obtaining supplies. Detailed evidence with regard to the present practice of the board has already been submitted to the Commission by the clerk to the board, by whom particulars were given of:—

(i) The establishment of a central stores for the reception of manufactured non-perishable goods.

(ii) The re-arrangement of the forms of tender by the thorough sub-division and re-grouping of the large numbers of items contained in the schedules, and the comparison of tenders received, item by item.

It was also pointed out that the board, with the approval of the Local Government Board, have in some cases applied the principle of direct purchase and of the purchase of goods in bulk from manufacturers and producers.

9. Taking first the preparation of contract schedules I would lay stress upon the following points:—

(a) The carrying out, as far as possible, of the policy of sub-dividing the lists of items contained in schedules, the goods being thoroughly separated into the different trades.

(b) The omission from the schedules of those goods of which the quantities required are very small, separate arrangements being made for the purchase of such goods.

(c) The omission from the schedules of goods and materials which have to be specially made, in all cases in which stock patterns and stock materials can be found to answer the purpose required.

(d) The settlement of standard patterns to be used for the same purpose in all institutions of one class, thus preventing the inclusion in the schedules of many different patterns of the same article.

10. I question the value of the insertion in many cases in the schedules attached to periodical contracts of the quantities of goods estimated to be required during the period, especially, when they are prepared, as is generally the case, by institution officials.

In cases where estimated quantities are necessary it would be better to leave this work in the hands of the accounting staff at the central office. In many cases, however, and especially in those of such articles as fish, meat, fruit and the like, detailed estimates are of little value.

11. It would, in my opinion, be very desirable to extend largely the system of making contracts for quantities, and not for periods, *i.e.*, to extend the principle of purchasing goods in bulk. This course is rendered simple by the establishment of central stores. The quantities to be purchased would be fixed with some regard to the nature of the article, to the need for keeping a

stock sufficient to obviate the necessity of continually inviting fresh tenders, and to storage capacity, but as a rule a six months supply could be contracted for. Where articles are bulky or are produced slowly, or for any other sufficient reason, arrangements would be made for deliveries to be spread at intervals over a specified period, but the quantities to be taken would be none the less fixed.

12. In cases where samples are necessary, I think more expert attention should be paid to their selection, and to changing them when required, than is generally done at present.

13. Tenders for goods received at central stores would be invited from time to time as required. I think that it is unnecessary to pay strict attention to Poor Law half-years, and that the tendering should be spread over the whole year. It might be objected that two sets of prices would make more book work and would render comparisons of cost by half-years less easy to make, but the gain would quite counterbalance any such drawbacks.

I have mentioned the great desirability of reducing to the smallest amount possible the time taken between the date for the reception of tenders and that for announcing the result. The state of the market may change considerably, and tenderers may not be able to keep an advantageous offer open for the time required, and generally it may be said that a long interval opens the door for the withdrawal of tenders for reasons both good and bad.

The question of greater promptitude applies also to the payment for goods received, and it would, I believe, be an inducement to tenderers if they knew that all goods would be paid for within, say, a month of acceptance.

14. Passing to the general question of the arrangements to be made for the reception of goods and for determining that the article received is the article contracted for, I believe it to be a sound principle that the consumer and the contractor should be completely separated. By consumer, I mean the institution officials responsible for the actual use of the goods. There will always be a certain proportion of goods, chiefly articles of food, which must be delivered direct to an institution, but I think that the more the principle of receiving goods at central stores can be extended the better. The Metropolitan Asylums Board have for years rented central stores in South London, and they are now replacing these by a new building of their own. In any extension of the principle of central control and supply, it might well be necessary to have at least two such stores in London, one on the north and one on the south side.

15. The advantages of these stores to a public body controlling a large number of institutions are, I believe, generally recognised, and have no doubt been put before the Commission. *Inter alia* they afford the best way of securing first, that the goods supplied are in accordance with the contract by providing one examination of these goods, and that an expert one, and secondly, that the quantity and value of the stock in hand is reduced to a minimum by keeping it mainly in one place and not scattered over many institutions.

It is quite impossible to secure for each institution officials who are qualified to judge of the merits of every class of goods used therein. Moreover, the fault-finding, often vexatious, which here and there amongst a number of institutions inevitably follows the introduction of a new contractor, is evidence of the need for finding in the larger use of central stores a means of keeping the contractor and the consumer from direct contact with one another.

I would not lose sight, however, of the safeguards which are necessary in the management of a central stores. The control of the central authority over the stores, as exercised by a committee appointed for the purpose, must be complete, and the appointment of permanent experts to deal with the goods received should be avoided. It seems to me that it would be quite feasible to keep lists of qualified judges in each class of goods and to have the various deliveries examined by persons selected as occasion requires from these lists, and paid by fees.

Due provision should also be made for the examination of goods in course of manufacture, and sufficient time should be allowed after the reception of goods for their proper examination. Goods not up to standard in some non-essential detail might be taken at reduced rates.

16. I believe great differences exist in the manner of furnishing institutions of similar character when this work is undertaken by different bodies. It is obvious that great saving can be effected, not only in the original outlay, but also in the upkeep of institutions if the question of furnishing is approached on business-like and practical lines.

The Metropolitan Asylums Board originally attempted to deal with it by establishing standard samples, but have found it much better to settle standard patterns by means of working drawings and specifications. In furnishing, as in other branches of contracting, the larger the field of operations, the easier it is to employ the best skilled advice and assistance in preparing the contracts and examining the goods in course of manufacture and on delivery.

17. The question of the arrangements for the examination and condemnation of articles worn out and unfit for further use, and for requisitioning for fresh supplies is one which needs careful attention. I believe the practice in these matters is very varied in Poor Law institutions. A form should be used for each ward or separate portion of an institution on which the officer in charge should enter the number and description of articles to be repaired or condemned, and this should be checked and certified by a responsible officer, such as the matron or steward. The articles to be repaired should be sent to the workrooms or shops and subsequently returned and receipts would be exchanged. The articles to be condemned would await the decision of the Visiting Committee, who, by themselves or by delegated members, would inspect them and certify the summarised list submitted with the goods. On the summary sheet would be columns for issues which when totalled would be carried in total to the appropriate stock book. The stock book would show a full quarter's receipts, issues, stocks in hand and valuation at end of each half-year compactly in one opening. With modifications this system could be applied to most of the stock accounts, and would effect a considerable simplification in the books, would tend to reduce the possibility of fraud, would enable the staff to work readily on any book of account, and would give a better basis for checking. Regulations should be laid down for the proper disposal of articles when condemned.

18. With regard to the authority for the issue or orders the general practice, I believe, is to insert the requirements in a requisition or requirement book which is submitted to a visiting committee or sub-committee for approval. This was done in the case of the Asylums Board institutions until 1903, when the question was enquired into. It was felt that the control of members over special items of expenditure was obscured by the necessity for looking through a large number of items over which no real control could be exercised by them. For instance, in the case of provisions, the issues are really determined when dietary and rations scales are laid down for patients and staff, and the expenditure when contracts for supplies are entered into.

The checking of the quantities issued must be a work for the accountant's staff at the head office, and the issue of orders may well be left to the accountant, subject to his being satisfied as to the reasonableness of the requirements and to their being within the scales prescribed. This arrangement has been adopted by the Asylums Board and has resulted in clearing the requisition books in all of thousands of superfluous entries per annum, with the result that the remaining items being so many fewer, doubtless receive a much closer scrutiny. The principle may well be extended to many other classes of goods, the issue of which is based upon regulations and scales and the contracts for the supply of which have been settled by the managing authority.

Dealing with requisitions within an institution I think it is important that there should be a written requisition for all issues, and a receipt for all goods passing between officers. Slips might be used, for it is not necessary for a requisitioning officer to know what he received in the past, but what he requires for the immediate future. It is likely that the use of books invites officers to make comparisons between themselves, particularly when a requisition is reduced, thus tending to an accumulation of goods. A fixed equipment should be settled for each place and no additional stock issued unless in specially approved circumstances.

19. The question of stocktaking is another important item in the administrative machinery. It is very desirable that as short a time as possible should elapse between the last day of a quarter and the stocktaking, and for this purpose too many stocktakings should not be thrown upon one person. I think that exhaustive stocktakings of all goods need not take place at each institution more often than annually, and that such a number of institutions should be taken each quarter as would distribute the work equally among the four quarter days. At the central stores the stocks should be taken by an outside stocktaker, but at many of the institutions, at any rate, the stock might be taken by members of the accountant's staff, while occasional visits might be made between annual stocktakings when the whole or specified portions of the stocks at any institution might be taken.

20. In addition to the audit by the district auditor appointed by the Local Government Board and the continuous examination throughout the year by the accountant of the whole of the books and accounts of accounting officers, there should be visits of inspection, test examination and enquiry, without notice, by a travelling officer deputed for the purpose.

21. I believe that a great many of the improvements I would like to see in regard to the arrangements for contracts and supplies for Poor Law institutions, especially in London, can only be secured by bringing the institutions under a central authority. This authority, while under the general control of the Local Government Board and subject to regulations made by that Board, would be in a position to deal with the matters referred to in a way which is not possible for a large number of small and independent units. Take the instance of central stores. I consider it absolutely essential that the body controlling the contract and stores arrangements should be the body controlling the institutions in which the goods are to be used, and that without this complete central control any arrangement for central supply would be unworkable.

These remarks as to central control hold good, in my opinion, with special emphasis in connection with works and supplies, in regard to which, as recent events have shown, there is so much scope for extravagance and waste. I believe, however, that the need for more uniform administration, both in regard to outdoor relief and indoor relief, is very pressing, and that this can only be met by removing the determination of general principles and rules from local authorities, and I would like to close my statement with a few suggestions on this subject.

22. In my opinion it would be extremely difficult, if not impossible, to place the administration of outdoor and indoor relief in the hands of independent bodies. If this is so, it would be necessary for a central authority to work, so far as outdoor relief is concerned, through local committees, and there seems to be no reason why the visitation of institutions should not be left in large measure in the hands of such committees.

This would give a central body of workable size, which might be comprised of elected members, with a large addition of members nominated by the Local Government Board, to ensure the inclusion of persons who would be chosen for special knowledge and experience rather than for party reasons.

Such a body could deal through central committees with the different branches of its work, very much on the lines of the Metropolitan Asylums Board, with its hospitals, asylums, children's, finance, works and contract committees.

It could define the general regulations under which outdoor relief should be administered; make all arrangements for works and supplies; prescribe wages, uniform and dietary scales, and the necessary staff regulations for each set of institutions; reserve to itself the appointments of chief officers and determine the rules under which those of lesser rank should be made.

It could settle the arrangements for visiting institutions, deal with the reports of the visiting committees, and generally undertake all the work which might properly be kept in its own hands.

The local committees could be appointed by the central body. With largely reduced functions they could be materially smaller in number than the present boards of guardians. They would have a divisional office with a divisional correspondent acting under the central body.

Mr. James
T. Helby.

28 Jan. 1908.

Stocktaking.

Auditing and
examination
of books.

Central
control.

A central
Poor Law
body.

Mr. James
T. Helby.

28 Jan. 1908.

I believe that the Poor Law institutions, now controlled by the guardians of the poor, numbering roughly 130, with accommodation in round numbers for 70,000 could be satisfactorily and economically governed on some such lines as I have suggested, nor do I think that the scheme would require material alteration even if some or all of the existing institutions of the Metropolitan Asylums Board were added to the number.

Moreover, I think that such a scheme would make sufficient provision for the necessary element of popular representation, and for enlisting the sympathy and co-operation of the large number or persons of capacity who would bring voluntary service to assist in the administration of the Poor Laws.

Experience
of witness.

91858. (Chairman.) From your Statement, I gather that after occupying the post of chairman of the finance, works, and hospitals committees of the Metropolitan Asylums Board, you were elected chairman of the whole board in May, 1907?—That is so.

Procedure of
Metropolitan
Asylums
Board
governed by
Local
Government
Board
orders.

91859. Your evidence, I think, mainly or largely relates to the question of contracts. The procedure under which you act is governed by an Order of the Local Government Board, dated June, 1867, you say?—Yes, that is so. There have been one or two amendments, I think, since, but they are merely of a minor character.

The Local
Government
Board orders
out of date.

91860. You think those regulations are so antiquated as hardly to be applicable to an authority as large as yours, which has to obtain articles on so very large a scale?—They are very antiquated—like a good deal more of the work of the Local Government Board.

Tenders.

91861. The theory which governs you is that you must always advertise openly for tenders?—Yes, unless we have the sanction of the Local Government Board. On certain occasions we ask them to be allowed to go to selected firms.

91862. Do they allow you to do that?—Occasionally.

91863. But, as a rule, you have to purchase under unlimited competition?—The orders are to the effect that we are to advertise a certain time before the tenders are received.

91864. Is there any rule as regards those who tender? Must they be manufacturers, or may they be brokers?—There is no limit of that kind at all.

91865. I suppose your experience is that it does not necessarily follow that the lowest tender is always the one which it would be advantageous to take?—Certainly not. Unfortunately the rule is to accept the lowest tender, but it is not at all times advantageous to do so. In the advertisement we always lay down that we do not bind ourselves to accept the lowest or any tender.

91866. I suppose that it sometimes happens that it would be an object to a person tendering to get the contract?—I should say so.

91867. Independent, I mean, of pecuniary considerations?—Quite so.

91868. Do you not find that is done frequently?—I do not say it is very frequent, but I say there are cases of that character.

91869. It is done as a matter of reputation, in order to be able to say that they are contractors to the Metropolitan Asylums Board?—Yes.

Running
contracts.

91870. Are you allowed to have running contracts with the big firms?—There are occasionally contracts of that kind for instance, for stationery and printing. Those contracts have run for three years. But it is not the rule by any means and our contracts are generally six-monthly or twelve-monthly contracts.

91871. Then you are practically precluded from obtaining tenders from a limited number of firms selected in advance?—That is so.

Lists of
selected
firms from
whom
tenders are
invited.

91872. Of course, all systems are open to some disadvantages, and it is sometimes alleged that under this system favouritism is shown to firms, and that they are selected sometimes on account of the political opinions of the leading members of the firms, and so on; but in your judgment, does that system, if it is properly worked, answer as well as having only a limited number of selected firms?—It all depends upon the circumstances of the case. In large contracts, especially in contracts for building works and that kind of thing, my experience

is that it is a very great advantage indeed to have a List of selected list of tenderers. My experience when I was chairman of the Works Committee of the London School Board, if I may refer to that, was this: We went for selected lists of men, and we obtained them in this way: we advertised for those who were desirous of tendering for works between certain amounts, say, from £500 to £1,000, from £1,000 to £3,000, from £3,000 to £5,000, and so on. Then all the details were gone into and the particulars—for instance, the references were referred to, the financial position of the individuals was obtained, and their works were visited to see how far they were capable of undertaking the work. By that means we obtained a very excellent list of contractors who were able to do the work under those conditions. We found that we got far better men to tender, that is, men of good reputation, whereas before there was a difficulty always to get the better class of men to tender, because after a time they found they had no chance of getting contracts, and so they would not take the trouble or expend the time in having their quantities valued by their own quantity surveyors. By these selected lists we got a far better class of tenderers and we got our work far better done. I think the same thing would apply to all large classes of work of that character.

91873. In the case of the school board tenders, I assume there were only a limited number of persons who supplied the particular class of articles that you wanted?—I speak especially of building works. In those cases, the list is taken in rotation; you take a certain number off the list and you ask them to tender. You would not have the slightest hesitation at all in accepting the lowest tender because you had made sure, your man being on the selected list, that he was a man capable of doing the work. I may say the same would apply with regard to works of a large character, and even to manufacturing firms in the same way. With regard to large tenders, for instance, instead of going to the retail people it would be a great advantage to go direct to the manufacturers; but of course now under the system of advertising anybody can offer.

91874. Then your experience is that some of the best class of traders after a time decline to tender?—Certainly. That has been my experience for many years past. You gradually get into a regular ring of tenderers; the system of tendering becomes practically an art, and it is carried out by certain firms, and so you get into the hands of a ring.

91875. This is rather technical; could you just explain to us how it becomes an art?—In this way: First of all, schedules are made out; the schedules show the estimated quantity in the first column, and in the next column, the articles themselves. Contractors who are in the ring obtain information as to certain articles of which more or less would be required to be supplied, and they naturally put their figures against those items in accordance with the quantities required. I know of instances where a certain number of articles have been estimated to be supplied, and perhaps a low price inserted, and another article estimated at fewer in number inserted at a much higher price. When you come to the end of the year and make inquiries, you find that the number supplied of the articles estimated for at the lower price has not been anything like the number supplied of the articles estimated for at the higher price. By some means, they ascertain, and they go in for a system of valuing out their schedules and their tenders in accordance with the information that they obtain. The result is that we find, as far as the Asylums Board is concerned—and I know perfectly well it was so at any rate in connection with the boards of guardians I have been on—that the same firms practically get the contracts and that they are always the lowest tenderers.

91876. They get the contracts because they understand the principles of tendering better, not from any improper or corrupt influence?—No, I do not say that there is corrupt influence, but they obtain the information from those who are able to give it to them at the various institutions. They must obtain it in that way, as there are no other means of obtaining it.

91877. There is a rule about opening tenders, is there not?—The rule is that they are all to be opened in the presence of the Contract Committee. When you get schedules, perhaps in some instances comprising fifty,

Opening of
tenders.

sixty or a hundred different items, before you can deal with them they all have to be tabulated, and therefore they have to go into the hands of clerks to be tabulated; then they come up again afterwards to the committee.

91878. Where you have to get articles on the scale required by the Metropolitan Asylums Board, this opening of the tenders publicly becomes a mere useless form, does it not?—It is a perfectly useless form. I give you a case that took place not very long ago. The tenders were all opened and they were initialled by two members of the committee and then they passed out of the hands of the committee. Shortly afterwards a question arose with regard to one item which came to my knowledge and necessitated my going into the matter. I found that a letter which was sent with one of the tenders objected to a clause, Clause No. 5 it was, and this somehow got adrift—how I do not know; at any rate it did—and the committee and the Board knew nothing at all about it. They had supposed that they had accepted this tender subject to Clause 5, whereas Clause 5 was actually omitted by this letter which was embodied in the tender. This shows that the opening in Committee does not provide a safeguard that cannot be even better secured in another way.

91879. The large local authorities, such as the big municipalities, are exempt from rules similar to those contained in the Order of the Local Government Board of 1867, are they not?—I believe they are.

91880. The Metropolitan Asylums Board have by their practice of recent years to a considerable extent freed themselves, have they not, from the more irksome restrictions of this regulation?—No; the Order still stands good. What we do is that occasionally, for instance, with the sanction of the Local Government Board, we purchase direct some few items such as tea, coffee and wine and spirits. We purchase coal direct from the collieries, and some soft goods from the manufacturers in bulk. Take the question of coal. Some time since—some two or three years ago—we applied to the Local Government Board for power to purchase direct at the collieries. That has been of the greatest advantage. Of course it was met with a good deal of opposition from the trade, naturally, and few collieries sent in tenders for the first year, but the tenders gradually increased in the second year, until now we have any number of tenders that we require, with the result that we are getting coal of the value of something like £60,000 to £70,000 a year direct from the collieries, and therefore we are saving considerably on the profits of the middleman—something like between £2,000 and £3,000 a year according to circumstances. I may say that that does not interfere at all with the employment of the people, because the same men are employed in London for the conveying of that coal and the carting of that coal, as though it were done by the middlemen—that is, by the coal merchants. But of course, the benefit is to the rate-payer by our getting this coal at considerably less cost. Not only do we get it at considerably less cost, but we get the coal that we contract for, and we know we are getting that coal; therefore we are saving in consumption as well as in price.

91881. I put the building repair contracts for the moment on one side. I assume the great mass of the articles which you have to purchase are perishable articles, such as provisions and clothes?—A very large quantity would be probably—I should say much more than half.

91882. As regards the non-eatable things such as clothes or stuffs or drugs or instruments, I suppose you have in those cases, as a rule, a standard pattern of some sort?—In some cases. In many instances you cannot have a standard pattern, but wherever we can have a standard pattern we have one.

91883. Do you think that that works well?—Yes. Much depends on the working of it—how often, for instance, your pattern is selected and whether you are going to have an antiquated pattern, or whether you are going to have a new sample each year or every other year.

91884. I suppose patterns a good deal affect the tenders, because certain manufacturers can supply one particular pattern easier than another?—Yes. Even there you may make mistakes with regard to the patterns. It is a

mistake—as we have found out—to select a pattern which has specially to be made, because then you are bound by that one pattern; whereas if you can go into the market and buy almost anywhere a large quantity of one pattern which will answer just as well as another, you will thereby save considerably. Otherwise, you will have to wait and you will have to take whatever is made.

91885. Now with regard to your stores supplies, most of them being perishable items, I presume there is no stock taken of that class of goods?—You cannot keep a stock of those goods as a rule. Of some few things you can, as you can buy them of course in bulk. Take articles of this character—currants, raisins, and things of that kind; they generally have those in considerable stock, lasting perhaps three or four months. Those are the things that certainly might be bought in the season when they come in, if we had the opportunity. You must remember in regard to those articles that the new season stock remains in the stores of the retailer or the contractor during perhaps six or eight months or even twelve months.

91886. Of the non-perishable things, have you periodical stock-takings?—We have. There are stock-takings every half year, and I do not think the stock-taking is worth, I was going to say, the paper it is written on as a rule. The Local Government Board Orders lay down that the stock-takings shall be done every half-year, in the week which ends on the Saturday nearest to the Quarter-Day. Take the Asylums Board. We have one stock-taker who gets £200 a year. I believe that he is also the stocktaker for many of the workhouses of the unions in the Metropolis. He has to take the stock of all the large institutions of the Board numbering twenty-four, thirteen of which are around London while eleven are in various parts of the country. The consequence is that the taking of the stock is delayed for from one to ten days after the day on which the accounts are closed. It is not by any means an uncommon practice for the stewards to take their own stock and make their books agree with the stock. To enable the stock-taker to take the stock when he visits the institution he sends a form to the steward to be filled up showing the receipts and issues since the day the accounts were closed, which, of itself, is most unsatisfactory. In taking stock, many articles of clothing are made into parcels, with the numbers stated on the outside. These are taken as correct although there may be fewer in the parcel than the number stated, or the parcel may contain rubbish. Therefore, to my mind, the regular stock-takings, when they know when you are coming and can prepare for you, are a great mistake. Furthermore, the sixth-monthly stock-taking to my mind is unnecessary. If it were taken regularly once every twelve months, and there was a surprise visit made at any moment during the year, and the stock taken then (which can always be done) you would do a great deal more good, because then the man who has to keep the stock would not know but that at any moment he might be pounced upon to prove that his stock is correct.

91887. So that you are in favour of stocktaking, but you would alter the system?—I would alter the system certainly for stock-taking. I would have the stock-taking once a year, but as for the sixth-monthly stock-taking, in the way it is done I do not consider as a rule that it is worth the paper it is written upon, and I would not trust it, from what I have seen.

91888. Just following up that point—I am not taking in any sequence the different paragraphs of your State-ment—I will deal next with the question of the inspection of goods as delivered. Have you experienced any difficulty about that? It is sometimes represented that those who accept the goods are necessarily persons in receipt of a comparatively small pay, and that there is sometimes a difficulty in getting them to do their duty?—My own opinion is that the system for the reception of goods is most defective. For instance, you place the steward in charge of the stock at an institution, but the greater portion of the work is done by the stores porter. Unfortunately the steward is looked upon and is classed as a principal officer, and therefore he considers himself a very big man, and he delegates a great deal. Although the Local Government Board orders do not permit any delegation of his duties, still it is done invariably, and in very few cases that I know of does the steward accept the goods, although he may accept the meat. In fact,

Mr. James
T. Helby.
28 Jan. 1908.

Mr. James T. Helby. 28 Jan. 1908. Inspection of goods on delivery.

in my inquiries, I have over and over again found that the stores porter practically receives the majority of the goods. The stores porter is a man with about 24s. or 25s. a week and his board and lodgings. I do not suggest that he is dishonest, but there is a possibility of his being able to square matters with the contractor's representatives. When one sees from time to time that goods are tendered for at prices at which you know perfectly well that they cannot be supplied, one feels that there must either be some means of getting goods received of an inferior quality or that the quantity must be short. If you place matters in the hands of a man of that standing, you cannot expect otherwise. Furthermore, you cannot expect a stores porter, who perhaps has been simply a labourer just brought in, to be able to understand whether the goods are up to sample or not. I believe in having a central stores under certain conditions, and those conditions should be that the officers receiving the goods should be of such a standing that they would be free from any suspicion. I do not believe in putting a man on £2 or £3 a week to say that these goods are up to contract or not. Only a few weeks ago—I am not giving any secrets away—I had a case of this character, where it was brought home to me. Three tenders were brought in for goods wanted urgently, and the suggestion was that we should accept the medium priced one. I immediately asked, Why the medium price, and why not the lowest price? That led to my having the individual who suggested this before me. I asked him at once, Why do you suggest this? On going into the matter he had to admit at last that actually the lowest priced one was the better one; and it was accepted. There is a case in point where you have a man of £2 or £3 a week to pass things which is open, I say, to strong objection. If you have work of that character, it must be done by men who are capable and who are in such a position that they are free from all bias of any kind. That applies to the whole of your various institutions throughout London.

List of qualified judges to inspect goods.

91889. That is a difficulty which, as I dare say you know, is experienced by the Government departments in just the same way?—That is so, and I know it perfectly well. I am an old Admiralty official, and therefore I know something about it.

91890. You are against appointing a permanent expert, but you think it would be advisable and feasible to keep a list of qualified judges in certain classes of goods who should examine them?—Exactly so.

91891. For instance, when it is a question of material it becomes a matter of touch, does it not?—Yes.

91892. No porter or labourer can possibly decide there?—It would be impossible. You want a man who is accustomed to it. What I say is, you want a man who knows nothing at all about any of the individuals who supply, but who knows perfectly what the character of the goods required may be. If you have a list of specialists of that character, you could put the goods before one of them without his knowing whom they come from, or anything else, and he would be able to say which is the best article.

91893. If the tendency is on the part of the Government to increase the areas of concentrated authority in the hands of central bodies, the amount of stores they purchase will become larger and larger, and therefore it is very essential that there should be qualified persons to accept the stores?—Yes.

Central store.

91894. I assume you would put the two together, and that if you have a very large central store purchasing on behalf of a public body controlling a very large area, you would say it is absolutely essential that there should be experts to test the quality of the goods?—Quite so. I say there is no reason at all why we should not centralise all that work and carry on that class of work, the same as a big firm would. Take, for instance, a large co-operative society; surely if they can deal with these things—and they do deal with them to the amount of £3,000,000 worth of goods in a year, and goods of a similar character in all respects—there is no reason why, if this work were consolidated, it should not be done by a public body on somewhat the same lines. We should thereby save an enormous amount of money over the middleman's charges, and we should also ensure—and this is a great point—that we should get the goods that we contract for, both as to quality and as to quantity.

91895. You make the suggestion in your Statement that it would be desirable to extend the system of making contracts for quantities and not for periods, that is, to extend the principle of purchasing the goods in bulk will you please explain exactly what you mean?—You have it in regard to what we are doing now in tea. We go into the market and we buy tea in bulk. We practically do the same with regard to coal. We enter into a contract for coal, and although it is a contract, still we are practically buying it in bulk, that is, we are making a contract for so many tons of coal per month. When you come to the question of soft goods, of which you want a very large quantity—I am speaking now on the supposition that you centralise your work, and, therefore, you know that a certain material is required in enormous quantities—you can go into the market and buy those, in fact you can do that with numerous things which are required for pretty well every-day use. Take the clothing, for instance; instead of buying your clothing made up, you can go into the market and you can buy the cloth and have it made up afterwards, which is much more satisfactory.

91896. Then as regards requisitions, you think that the quantities required should be checked by the accountants' staff?—Yes; they can do it much better, because they can take the average quantity. What you want to do is to get all that work away from the consumer and keep him apart from the contractor. That is the great point to go for; keep them separate, and let there be no contact between the contractor and the consumer in any shape or form.

91897. That is, you would have your contract, and deal directly with the contractor, and then you would bring in a separate lot of persons on behalf of the user who would see that the article is up to pattern?—That is so. Then, if you have a central store you have a double check, because you check on receipt into the central store, and then you issue to the local institution and the receiving officer at that institution would very soon see if the article is wrong, and he would complain if it were not up to the mark. So practically you would then get a double check.

91898. Going on now to that part of the work of your board which consists in the distribution of stores, you practically equip, furnish and feed all the asylums connected with infectious diseases, imbeciles and children suffering from ophthalmia and ring-worm?—Yes; we have about forty-eight to fifty institutions altogether.

91899. Have you found, as a central authority, any difficulty in meeting their daily wants?—None whatever. Sometimes you might get a little delay in getting their goods from the manufacturers, but that would be one of the things that we should avoid by adopting the suggestion I make as to centralisation.

91900. I was referring to the daily supplies?—We should have no difficulty there. The only difficulty that we have, and that is one which I have now got in hand and which I am very strong about, is on the question of the milk. The milk is not delivered in sufficient time in the morning but that, as I say, is a matter we have got in hand now.

91901. As regards machinery, there would be no difficulty, would there, in so developing the machinery that it could supply all the institutions?—None whatever. It is purely a matter of organisation, and, of course, of administration.

91902. If you were able to deal as a central authority with the supply of all these other institutions, you would probably be able to do it cheaper and more efficiently, than it could be done by a large number of scattered authorities?—Certainly; there is no question on that point.

91903. You have, no doubt, had great experience?—I have gone into it very closely indeed, and I have not the slightest hesitation in saying that it could be done with the greatest of ease. Of course, you must have the proper organisation, and you must have the right committee—and the smaller the committee the better.

91904. In your experience, has a contractor in one district ever broken down suddenly, and then have you been able to make good his deficiencies through the other contractors?—I do not know of any case of that

kind occurring. Of course, that may be done without the knowledge of the contracting body, and probably is.

91905. Assuming you had to deal with difficulties which contracted and expanded as regards numbers, a central body would be able to cope with them much better than a small body, would it not?—Yes. The more you centralise work of that character the better it is—as I say, again, subject to proper organisation.

91906. Really what your Statement wishes to point out is that there are certain difficulties in existing regulations and certain improvements to be effected; but a central system does unquestionably give to the public a much better return than if it was carried on by a large number of separate local authorities?—Distinctly. Think of the mass of red-tapeism that takes place now before even the supply reaches the institutions, when it all might be done direct. Think of the sub-committees and the committees.

91907. You make this further suggestion, I think, in your last paragraphs, that assuming there was a central authority so far as supplies were concerned, it would be inconvenient to place the administration of indoor and outdoor relief in the hands of independent bodies; does that mean two separate bodies?—No; I do not mean two separate bodies.

91908. It is not that you wish to point out the impossibility of one set of people undertaking indoor relief and another set outdoor relief?—No not at all.

91909. Now, as you are here, I should just like to ask you one or two questions outside your Statement. How many does your board consist of?—Seventy-three, I think it is.

91910. That number, I suppose, has been fixed, not so much for the purposes of business, but more in order that adequate representation might be given to the different boards of guardians in London?—Yes. The board was established in 1867—forty years ago. Then there were sixty members—forty-five elected by the Metropolitan Boards of Guardians and fifteen nominated by the Poor Law Board. In 1886 this was increased to seventy-two—fifty-four by the boards, and the order is that in addition one-third of that number should be nominees of the Local Government Board; that made it seventy-two. Then there was one additional member added since, making seventy-three in all. So that three-fourths you may say are elected by the boards of guardians, and the other fourth are nominees of the Local Government Board.

91911. You were a good many years on the London School Board, I believe?—I was six years there.

91912. As regards the numbers on your board, supposing you had a free hand, would you for business purposes diminish or increase them?—If you ask me my opinion how I would do it, I would prefer far to have commissioners—that is the idea in my mind. But if you come to the question of numbers, I should say that for a central board I think about eighteen or twenty people would be quite sufficient, with a large element of Local Government Board nominees. My experience has been that those are the members practically who do the work, because they have little else, most of them nothing else, to do. They give the whole of their time to the work of the Board. But when you come to deal with these representatives of the boards of guardians, they have a very great deal of work to do and their work has been done most inefficiently. I know it is done to the best of their ability, and I am not complaining of them—but they have no time. I may refer to one member, for instance. He is a member of the county council, he is a member of the Metropolitan Asylums Board, he is a representative on the Thames Conservancy, he is a representative on the Water Board, he is a Chairman of his own board of guardians, and he is a member of his borough council. What can you expect from that gentleman? Then, again, a majority of the representatives of the boards of guardians are members of the boards of guardians and they are members of the borough council, as well as being on the Metropolitan Asylums Board. I do not hesitate to say for one moment that if a man is to do his duty to the Asylums Board he must give a great deal of time to it. I know this much, that I have been there now nearly ten years and I give at least four or

five days a week to the work. I was a member of the School Board, and I gave four days a week to that work. Where you deal with matters as they are dealt with and have been dealt with, the waste of time that takes place is something dreadful. You have a sub-committee, for instance, for a hospital. There are four members, and a rota member who makes a fifth. What happens? They go down there, and they have an extremely good lunch, which is the principal part of the work done. The actual work that is done is a mere nothing. Between the two meetings there are visiting members, and two of them go down and visit. I am bound to say that they do that to the best of their ability; and when the meeting of the sub-committee takes place the suggestions of these two members are brought up; the requisition book is there and it is signed, and so on; but all matters are perfunctorily dealt with. Then it comes up to the committee, it passes through the committee, and in nine cases out of ten without a word; then it comes to the board, and so the whole thing is done in the most perfunctory way and it is not properly looked at. At our board you will find a question of giving 10s. a week to a man discussed for over an hour—I have known that to happen; and the next item that comes on, an expenditure of £60,000, passed without a word.

91913. What was the 10s. in connection with?—It was some man's wages. That is the kind of thing you get. I have no hesitation in saying that if we had at the Metropolitan Asylums Board a commission of five or six men, we should save £50,000 to £60,000 a year at once—I have no hesitation in saying it. I can give you an idea. The minutes of our sub-committees run to 600 pages a month. Imagine the work of the clerks in making out the minutes of those sub-committees; and what they are worth?

91914. Your printing bill must be considerable?—It is very considerable.

91915. Now going away from the administrative work, there is the visiting work; I gather you are not satisfied quite with the way in which that work is done—what would you suggest?—My suggestion would be to place one member in charge of a hospital who should report to the central committee. You have your medical superintendent at the hospital; put him really in charge. You are bound practically by him, and you cannot interfere. No member of a Board can; I, as Chairman of the Board, cannot interfere with the medical superintendent in regard to the treatment of the patients. Therefore the principal work is the question of going into the supplies and seeing that the patients are properly attended, by visiting and going round the various wards. There, again, it is a very difficult thing for the men who come upon the hospitals committee, for the simple reason that men do not like going into the infectious wards, and so it becomes very onerous upon the few. Those few, having not enough time to give to the work, you can understand that the work is done in a very perfunctory way.

91916. Then your scheme would really be purely an official scheme?—Quite so.

91917. And you think that the class of visits and the work of inspection is such that nobody other than an expert or a trained person could do it effectively?—Quite so. There is, of course, the business part of the work, but that is another matter. You want business men to look after the supplies, and so forth.

91918. Now we will just turn to the suggestion that Central Body you make about the Poor Law. It has been suggested for Poor Law sometimes that the whole of the administration of the Poor Law in London should be put into the hands of a central body; do you think you could work that purely by officials?—Yes, under a very strong central committee or central Board.

91919. Would you have to bring in the elective element?—That is the point. Unfortunately that always comes in, and there is the difficulty that you have to face. You must, I suppose bring in the elective element. If so, I should do the same as we do at the Metropolitan Asylums Board—let us have a large contingent of Local Government Board nominees.

91920. We have had a good deal of evidence from abroad and elsewhere, and what strikes one as the essential difference between the English method of managing English and foreign methods in managing local affairs.

Mr. James T. Helby.

28 Jan. 1908.

Waste of time.

Visiting work of Metropolitan Asylums Board.

Elective element and Local Government Board nominees.

English and foreign methods in managing local affairs.

Mr. James
T. Helby.

28 Jan. 1908.

Retired
official as
Local
Government
Board
nominee.

Applications
for relief.

Status of
guardians.

Advantages
of central
body.

local affairs and the foreign method is that foreigners put an expert at the top and bring in the amateur and the elective people underneath, but in co-operation; and here that is rather reversed?—Yes, I know it is so.

91921. Do you think that a better blending of the expert and official elements with the elective element is possible?—I think it is possible. We had, some time since, Dr. Bridges, who had been one of the officials of the Local Government Board, as a nominated member. We found him of the very greatest use upon the Board. He gave an immense amount of time to the work, and his advice and assistance were of the greatest advantage and he was always listened to.

91922. You were a Poor Law Guardian, I see?—Yes. I have been a Poor Law Guardian for the Wandsworth and Clapham Union and also for Camberwell since soon after I left the service—in 1883, I think it was.

91923. The most difficult work that Boards of Guardians have to do is in hearing the applicants for relief, is it not?—Yes.

91924. Supposing that you had a central authority, how would you manage that?—To my mind the central authority should put certain local people to deal with those questions and report. When you deal with a question of relief my experience is that that is where the mistake is made; and where the fault lies to a large extent is with the relieving officer. I had great cause of complaint when I was in the chair of these relief committees, because we did not get the information from the relieving officers that we ought to get. My view is that the relieving officer ought to have a form in which the information that is required from him should be filled up and signed, and that his reports should not be made *viva voce*. I will give you an instance. I was in the chair at a relief committee and a woman came in for relief. She had had relief for some time. She came there, and the case was adjudicated. We found it was not a case at all where she ought to have relief. She had two sons and daughters in our opinion doing extremely well, and living in a nice little house. When I told her this, she turned round upon one of the guardians, and she said: "You are a nice fellow! You promised me to get my rent paid for me if I voted for you." That is not an individual case; I am only mentioning it as one instance. That is a kind of thing in my opinion that goes on to a very large extent. The point to my mind is that the guardians do not get the information that they ought to obtain from the relieving officer. If the rules as laid down by the Local Government Board were adhered to, I say that a great many people who get relief now never would get it.

91925. Illustrating the defects of the system by your story, I assume I may take it that you think it is a wrong principle that an elected person should distribute relief to the persons who elect him?—Certainly, to a large extent. But let me say this—that I am one of those who believe in every class being represented on public bodies; on the other hand, I do object to those giving relief who are practically themselves in want of relief.

91926. Your idea, therefore, would be as regards the work now done by the relief committees, that there should be persons specially appointed in each locality to do that work?—Quite so; and that the information from the relieving officer should be of such a character that it could be depended upon, and that it should be in writing. You can then bind the man to it. You know what it is—in fact I have had experience of it. I have said to a relieving officer when he has come up next time: "You said so-and-so before." "No, Sir; you misunderstood me." That is the kind of thing that takes place. Now I say, pin them to it. The Local Government Board orders are so-and-so; there are the questions printed, and let him put the information on in reply. If you have got that before you, you do not want to ask a lot of questions, and the relief business then would not take half the time.

91927. Assuming you could get over the electoral difficulty, and the natural desire there is that the people in the localities should have some voice in the manner in which their funds are distributed, would you see any administrative difficulty in the way of carrying out the Poor Law in London from a central authority?—Not the slightest; and I believe that an enormous saving might take place and that the work could be done in a much better way.

91928. You would get efficiency, economy, and more uniformity?—Quite so. You would not hesitate then, if you had that done, about having a general rate. Advantages of central body.

91929. You have had a very exceptional experience, because you have been on two central authorities and you have also been a guardian. You are strongly in favour of some central authority?—I am very strongly in favour of it. The more and more I see of the work the more and more I am satisfied, so far as I am concerned, that it is the right way.

91930. (*Bishop of Ross*.) The Metropolitan Asylums Board consists of seventy-three members, and you have about fifty institutions under your charge, I think you said?—Yes.

91931. You take the contracts for the supply of all these institutions?—Yes.

91932. With regard to milk, vegetables and other articles of that sort, I presume the contract must be given locally in the neighbourhood of the institution?—No, that is not by any means necessary, and they are not given locally either. Local contracts.

91933. Do you take one general contract and distribute the stores to the various institutions?—No. Perhaps one meat contractor may contract to supply half-a-dozen or eight institutions, another three or four, and so on. It is distributed in that way. It does not follow that the contracts are given to men residing in the immediate neighbourhood of the institution.

91934. I can quite see that in regard to clothing, coal and other things, but in regard to meat and vegetables and commodities of that sort, I should have thought it would have been different?—No. All the meat practically comes off the meat market. Central supply of food stuffs.

91935. Your institutions of course are scattered over a considerable area?—Yes. But even outlying ones, such as the imbecile asylum at Caterham and another at Leavesden and another at Darenth, are supplied with meat from London.

91936. Are all the contracts regulated by a single committee?—Yes.

91937. What you call the Contracts Committee of the Board?—Yes. Of course each contract is approved of by the board, but that as a rule is simply a formal matter. committee.

91938. Do all the supplies come before that single committee?—Yes.

91939. Whether for food or clothing, or furniture, or coal, or any of the other necessities?—Yes. In a case of urgent need, some are accepted where there has not been an advertisement for tenders. Small things, urgent matters, are simply accepted and reported to the committee.

91940. Does the Contracts Committee find the work heavy on them?—They ought to—you can understand that—but I am afraid they do not give the time that they ought to.

91941. They take it with a light heart? If all the Poor Law work of London were under one central authority, do you think that one committee of the central authority would be able to deal with all the contracts?—I do not think there would be the slightest difficulty. I think if you put the whole of it into the hands of three or four who did the work, it would be very simple. It is much better to put it into the hands of three or four who will do the work, than to put it into the hands of a dozen who do not do the work.

91942. Would the doing of it mean that each individual would have to devote four or five days a week to it?—Certainly, they would have to give the time; that is my point, and that is the whole of my point. You must give the time. Amount of time required by duties of committee.

91943. So that membership would be incompatible to a man who had private business to do, such as a manufacturer, or a professional man who had his own private work to attend to?—He could not do it satisfactorily. I see that every day, and I have seen it for the last twenty-four years. I see a man come into a committee when it is half over, stay five minutes, and go. I see it all the way round with every Board that I have been on.

91944. Consequently, you desire to have a strong nominated element in order to find men of leisure?—That is so.

91945. Do you find that electors will elect, not men of leisure, but busy men?—Exactly so.

91946. Do you find that the busy men are not efficient?—Unfortunately, it has come to this, and it is a complete curse to my mind—that all these public bodies are made now political bodies. That is the worst of it all. If Party were entirely out of it, there would be no difficulty; but as it is there is the difficulty. But these institutions have nothing whatever to do with Party.

91947. The inmates belong to all political parties?—Quite so. I am thankful to say that we at the Metropolitan Asylums Board do not know Party, but I believe we are about the only institution in London that does not believe in Party.

91948. (Mrs. Webb.) With regard to the hearing of applications in the different parts of London, you are not in favour of an elected committee for that?—No, I am not.

91949. Are you in favour of any committee?—Yes; I think that a committee should be appointed by the central authority, and I think it would be a very good thing if occasionally they were changed.

91950. How would you secure uniformity of decision against the various committees? Would you have any officer of the central body present?—Of course, the central body would have an officer to attend. The question of uniformity arises, I think, upon the instructions that are given. As I have pointed out, if the relieving officer replied to the questions in writing, by that means you would get uniformity, because you would have them all upon exactly the same lines then.

91951. But it is very difficult to draft questions or to draft regulations which secure uniformity if the persons concerned who have to make the judgment are not really anxious to secure uniformity, is it not?—Of course, that is a matter that would have to be watched, and it would come under the administrative part of the work.

91952. Have you visualised what would be the officer of the central body who would go round and see that these committees were acting on the proper lines?—Certainly, you should have an officer who should report to the Board. If you look to Section 22 of my Statement, you will see I say there, "They would have a divisional office with a divisional correspondent acting under the central body."

91953. Would you mind telling us what kind of person you visualise; would he be a man of the £800 a year type?—Not as much as that.

91954. You would want rather a superior person, would you not?—Yes, but I should not commence at £800 a year, because I think you could get the class of man that you want for less than that.

91955. Would you have a man with legal knowledge? I rather want to get at the type of person you have in mind?—I am not at all sure that you would require legal knowledge, but, of course, if you could get a man with legal knowledge, the better. It does not necessitate having a man with legal knowledge, because the orders and instructions that are laid down are very clear, and if you have got the questions which have to be asked clearly stated, then if this committee did its duty, there ought to be no difficulty in arriving at decisions mostly upon a uniform basis.

91956. The difficulty is that you want the sort of man who would impress the various committees, do you not?—Yes. I should have a man with some experience of the Poor Law.

91957. You want a man of some social standing?—Certainly.

91958. Who would have some influence with these various committees?—Decidedly. You have a similar thing occurring now with regard to the Education Body of the London County Council.

91959. You have inspectors there of considerable standing, have you not?—Yes.

91960. And paid rather highly?—Yes. You want want something of that class.

91961. The County Council delegate perhaps too little as they delegate almost nothing to the managers; but you are going to delegate a good deal to these local

committees, are you not?—I should not be prepared in my view to delegate as much to these men as the London County Council would. I think it is a mistake to delegate too much. Let them report. If this man saw anything going on in the ordinary way and well performed in every way, there would be nothing for him to report, and he would simply say that that was so; but if he saw anything outside of that, he would report it to the central governing body.

91962. You would rather look forward to a superior *Status* and type of officer, but not so superior as £800 a year?—Salary of No. You should have a class with a maximum and a local minimum salary, the salary increasing according to the length of service.

91963. (Mr. Bentham.) Would you think it advisable to have on all these local committees a member of the central body?—If you had sufficient. On the old London School Board we had fifty odd members, and each member had charge of so many schools and that member recommended the managers who attended that school. There never arose any difficulty in any matters that cropped up; they had certain rules laid down, and the member in charge whenever he possibly could, would attend his schools. You should have a somewhat similar thing here to my mind.

91964. It would tend rather to keep the local committees in close touch with the central body, would not?—If you do something of this kind, yes.

91965. And the members might rotate; they might not always be on the same committees?—Yes.

91966. In that way you could get a certain amount of uniformity of administration?—Yes.

91967. With regard to contracts, do you advertise for tenders?—Yes, we are bound to advertise—the Local Government Board orders us to advertise.

91968. It is only particular kinds of goods that you deal with by selecting the firms?—That is right, and then we have to obtain the sanction of the Local Government Board before we can do that. Take electricity; supposing we were fitting one of our hospitals up with electricity, we should ask—and we have as a rule asked in that case—that we might ask half-a-dozen or a dozen perhaps of the best firms to tender instead of advertising for tenders.

91969. Have you to get permission for every separate contract, or once you get permission for a certain kind of goods does that hold good for all time?—You may take it that in the case of some goods it is a sanction for twelve months and then it has to be renewed. But there are very few things that we deal with in that way.

91970. Have you got a list of them?—Tea, coffee, and wine.

91971. You do not advertise for those articles?—No. For tea we go to the market; then there are coffee and wine, and those are really the three things where we continue to do that. If we want anything else, then we have to apply in each case to the Local Government Board for permission. Coal we advertise for, but we get it from the collieries. I will not say that things do not crop up occasionally where we think it advisable in the interests of the board to ask the Local Government Board to allow us to go to selected firms.

91972. You suggest in your Paper that open advertisement might open the door to rings being formed by those who tender; but by adopting the other system and having selected firms do you not also leave it open to the same temptation?—I do not think so.

91973. It would necessarily be a smaller list than the lists of firms tendering because of an open advertisement in the paper which everyone interested in the trade might see?—Those that we generally go for are important matters—matters where really and truly you can only get the work done well by a few and they would be firms who would not be open to anything of that kind. In fact, we have never found it so; we have always found that we get very fair competition indeed. Of course, by you always have the fear with regard to the rings that if you have got a selected list the lowest man may go to the next man and say: "Look here, I am the lowest, if you give me so and so I will withdraw." That has

Mr. James T. Helby.

28 Jan. 1908.

Mr. James T. Helby. been urged, but we have never found that, because we have gone to firms who would be above anything of that kind.

28 Jan. 1908. 91974. But these firms like to make as much profit as they can?—Quite so.

91975. And if they can see their way to get their heads together, they usually do?—Yes; but there are those who would be above that, I think.

91976. At any rate, judging from your experience you think so?—I have never found in my experience a case of that kind. My experience on the London School Board of what we did was that we had these lists, and we took the names in rotation—so many, six or eight or ten and asked them. We never had anything of that kind occur.

Opening of tenders.

91977. Now with regard to the opening of tenders. You say in one of the paragraphs of your Statement that it is not possible to deal with all the schedules on one day; is it necessary under the Order to deal with them all on one day?—You have your committee once a fortnight, and your difficulty is in getting the men together again. You cannot do anything in a committee without a quorum of five, and it is a difficult thing to keep a quorum with men who have other business to do, or indeed to get them together.

91978. How do you do it?—I say this is the way it is done. These tenders are all opened and they are rushed through and passed round the table and two members initial them; then they go down to the office to the clerks and they are tabulated; and then they come up to the next committee meeting. Then it is a purely formal matter and it goes before the Board to be accepted.

91979. That is all within the order, is it not?—That is within the order of the Local Government Board.

91980. And there is no objection to that, is there?—Yes. I think myself that it would be far better and more preferable if, for instance, the opening of these tenders, which is such a formal matter, could be done by the Chairman of the Board, the Clerk of the Board, and the accountant, and then dealt with; then when they get the full particulars, the tenders could go before the committee.

91981. If these tenders are opened at a full Board meeting, they can be relegated to any sub-committee, consisting of the Chairman and of the officials, for classification?—Yes, they could do so.

91982. And they would deal with them in exactly their own way?—Yes.

91983. So the order is no hindrance except that in the first place it forms a safeguard against getting a certain tender from a particular party who has not tendered as he might have tendered; for instance, it leaves it open, does it not, if the Chairman and the officials have these tenders to open that before the committee meets you might find that a second tender had come in from a firm asking the committee to accept the second tender, which was based upon information that had been received?—You close your box at a certain time. The tender box is closed up at 10 o'clock in the morning and no tenders are received after that time. The box is opened and taken away, so that you could not send in a second tender.

91984. Such things have been done, and we read of cases where such things are done, where for instance, the chairman of the committee takes a tender away in his pocket, and then by and by another tender comes in and the committee is induced to accept the second tender, because a mistake has been made in a certain item?—Then all I can say is that the committee are not doing their duty in permitting such a thing.

91985. It leaves it open to that sort of thing, does it not?—I do not see how it leaves it open to anything of the kind. If these tenders were all initialled by two members of the committee I do not see how any second tender is coming in afterwards, because they are all numbered and a record is made of the number. You must understand this—you can never do anything in this world to my mind to prevent fraud, but you can detect it. That is the only thing. You cannot prevent it, but you must do all you can to detect it.

91986. You do not use that as an argument against Opening of the abolition of all regulations, do you?—I do not suggest tenders, for one moment that you should abolish the regulations I think what you want is regulations, and to see that they are adhered to. Your suggestion is that the regulations are not adhered to, and that they go outside of them as they must do if anybody could take a tender away in his pocket.

91987. I was not speaking of the Board of Guardians who are under these regulations, but of other local bodies, who are not under such regulations; that was my instance?—Then where does the Board itself come in, not having made regulations? They are at fault; the administration there is at fault.

91988. Possibly I admit; but is it not necessary to have some such public method of opening the tenders, and then leaving it to the committee to deal with them in whatever way they think proper afterwards in the best interests of the Board, and on strict business lines?—Certainly.

91989. In the first instance there can be no tampering with the tenders, if they are opened in the presence of the committee?—There is no objection to that, but I think the same object could be secured in another way and time saved.

91990. I thought you suggested that they should be opened by the Chairman and two officials, say?—I think if that could be done, it would save a good deal of time. But it could be done in that way even in the presence of the committee. You see there is a great deal of other business, and it all resolves itself into this—a question of the time that the members can give.

91991. With regard to condemning the goods sent to the institutions, the largest items will be clothing and bed clothing. will they not?—Yes, clothing and house linen are the principal things. Inspection of goods sent in.

91992. It is rather a difficult thing for a committee to supervise that, is it not?—It has been so, but according to what we have done now, I see no reason why it should be. I think a book comprising all the articles to be condemned should be kept and submitted; but of course, you must put the responsibility upon the responsible officers, such as your medical superintendent and matron.

91993. Decidedly, but I thought you rather suggested that the committee should see these things?—The committee are seeing them now under this new system, but it is not only a question of seeing them, it is a question of what becomes of them after they have seen them, and making sure that they do not come back to be condemned again.

91994. There is no object in seeing them unless the committee comes to some decision whether they ought to be condemned or not?—Quite so. One member of the committee is sufficient for that purpose obviously but as I say—and here we come back to the old story again—the difficulty is to get the men to give the time to it.

91995. (*Mr. Phelps.*) I have listened to your experience with regard to London, but I speak rather from country experience. The difficulty we always find is the great objection to going outside the local firms; but you make nothing of that objection, I gather?—That is so. Local contracts.

91996. You do not think that it is worth considering for a moment?—No, I do not.

91997. Take the case of London; supposing that you contract with a central authority for any particular article; the contract for the whole of London would go to one firm ordinarily, would it not?—No, it does not follow that it would go to one firm; it may go to two or three. Contracts with central authority.

91998. How would you manage that?—You would send out for your tenders or your prices for certain quantities of goods. One man might say I can supply £500 worth or £1,000 worth; and there is no reason if the goods are of the same character—and we will suppose that they are, and of the same quality, and the price is practically the same—why you should not accept the tenders of three, four or five, if you like.

91999. Supposing, for instance, you had to supply the same commodity in Wandsworth and in Highgate, you might send the contract for Wandsworth to the south of

London, and for Highgate to the north of London, might you not?—Yes.

92000. But supposing you found one firm was cheaper for both?—If he could provide goods of the same quality for both, I should give it to the one.

92001. However, the effect of it is this, is it not, that you would tend to create a body of firms who live on contracts almost entirely?—Unfortunately that is the case now; but I should go beyond that, because I want to go to the manufacturer. The manufacturers have few opportunities now.

92002. Do you not think the same thing would repeat itself, and that you would have manufacturers who would make contracting their principal business?—No, I do not think so. If you go up to the north, into Derbyshire and Yorkshire, you will get such an enormous number there that you will find they will compete one with the other.

92003. You would rather tend to take your contracts entirely out of the hands of what we might call tradesmen or dealers and put them into the hands of the producer?—With the enormous quantities that you consume why should you not go to the producer? Although you might say perhaps a tradesman in London could supply them, on the other hand if you get them cheaper the whole of the ratepayers of London benefit by it.

92004. I did not realise that you would go as far as that?—It is not only a question of price—it is a question of quality. If you get a good quality of material it is going to last considerably longer, and therefore it is economical.

92005. I quite agree to that, but you will find it extremely difficult in smaller areas than London to get people to act on that wide principle?—That, of course, is a matter that you would have to consider in each place, how best to do. When you come to deal with an enormous area like London, with its 5,000,000 or 6,000,000, people, it becomes a different thing. Not only so, but there is a great idea now, especially in London, for the equalisation of the rates and so forth; if you are going to deal with that you can only deal with it from a central body, and then you must deal with all those questions from that point of view. I think your great point with your provincial bodies is to keep these things in mind as far as you possibly can, and to keep the consumer and the contractor away from one another—bring your line of barrier between the two. That is your secret.

92006. Do you not foresee difficulties, not necessarily economic but partly political, from the growth of a series of firms whose main business it is to supply the Government?—I do not see any difficulty at all about it.

92007. You do not see that political difficulties, I will not say in the nature of trusts, and so forth, might arise?—I do not see why they should.

92008. You do not believe in that?—I see no reason for it at all. You may get one firm of one way of thinking and another another; and so competition goes on.

92009. With regard to a central authority for London for Poor Law purposes, supposing we substituted that for the present system what rules would you lay down with regard to finance? Who would be responsible for making the rate?—The central body.

92010. Supposing you had local bodies which administered outdoor relief what would be the financial relations of those to the central body?—If you get a central body they would look after the financial arrangements all the way round, and I take it the central body would have a general rate.

92011. My point is this: Would you allow a local body to administer money which the central body had to raise?—You could not help that. The central body would take care to supervise it. That is one of the points the Chairman and Mrs. Webb asked me about—uniformity.

92012. What would you say of a scheme by which the local bodies should send in an estimate and should be more or less tied to that for the coming year?—I take it that one of the administrative duties would be to have these estimates sent in from the various parts. But on the other hand you cannot always bind them, because you may have perhaps a very hard winter when you will get much more poverty, and another winter

you may not get so much. It would be just the same as with us on the Metropolitan Asylums Board. We have just gone through a period with regard to fever which is the highest in the last forty years; of course, we did not anticipate it, and the expenditure this year will therefore be considerably higher than usual.

92013. I grant that exceptional circumstances must always be dealt with exceptionally. Have you any experience of the system of estimates in the sense I described, and do you know whether it leads to economy or the reverse?—Economy all depends upon the question, Is the central body keeping hold of the reins?

92014. That is to say, are they laying down stringent rules as to the limitations within which outdoor relief can be given, and are they seeing that those rules are adhered to?—Certainly. You cannot get uniformity otherwise.

92015. What power would you give to the central authority of enforcing its decrees and rules?—I take it the Local Government Board could give them authority to enforce then as they do now, when each individual board of guardians is acting under the special orders and general orders of the Local Government Board.

92016. That I understand with regard to the Local Government Board; but would you give the central board for London the power of surcharging, for instance?—No. You could not give that power to the central board; that is a power which can only be given to the Local Government Board, and it is given by law.

92017. Then how would the central body enforce its decrees or its rules?—The central board would be, if you may so term it, the paymaster.

92018. But then by your showing the local body is to say what sum it wants and the central body is to pay it over without demur?—The expenditure must come up from week to week, and so on, and if they watch this expenditure and they see it is going beyond what it ought to be they will call attention to the fact.

92019. In the background you must have some sanction to that, must you not?—I take it that in constituting that central body they would give it certain powers for dealing with all these things.

92020. But you are not prepared to say what form these powers would take? You see the difficulty, and it is a great difficulty?—Of course, it is like everything else. When you come to some new system there are always difficulties which have to be overcome; but I have never seen anything yet but what could be overcome. It all depends upon the individuals who have to do it.

92021. (*Mr. Bentham.*) Your local committees are formed by the central body?—Quite so.

92022. And if there is a representative from the central body on it as was suggested a little while ago, it would really be a part of the central body?—Quite so.

92023. And not an independent body?—Quite so; it would be part and parcel of the whole.

92024. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) Suppose the committee did not obey your instructions would you dissolve it and appoint another one?—Exactly.

92025. (*Mr. Phelps.*) Have you any experience of what is called the case-paper system?—Yes.

92026. Do you think that answers your requirements with regard to registration?—Not entirely.

92027. Do you not think it is definite enough?—My experience of the case-paper system is that it is not carried out. It is like many other things—your laws are quite sufficient if you carry them out, but they are not carried out, and that is the difficulty. That is where your central board would come in and see that these things are carried out.

92028. If it was well and properly carried out, do you think it would be sufficient?—I do.

92029. (*Dr. Downes.*) I see that you propose that the central body should reserve to itself the appointment of the chief officers, so you would have, would you not, the appointment of the chief officer in charge of each local committee?—Certainly.

92030. You would have control in that way?—Yes.

Mr. James T. Helby.

28 Jan. 1908.

Appoint-
ment of
officers in
charge of
local
committees
by central
body.

Mr. James T. Helby. 92031. Your experience is confined to London, I think?—Yes, principally.

28 Jan. 1908. 92032. And what you say in your Statement relates chiefly to London?—Yes.

92033. And, I suppose, other large urban centres?—Yes.

System applicable to London not suited to rural districts. 92034. But you do not propose that it should be applied to the whole of England?—I do not think that a system which applies to London would apply to the rural districts, by any means. It is the same with any other body. Take the educational question; it is quite a different thing to deal with a provincial district to what it is to deal with London.

Contracts. 92035. I gather that your experience of contracts is not confined to the Poor Law only?—No.

92036. You have found very much the same sort of thing all over?—I have found very much the same sort of thing all the way through.

Local Government Board orders. 92037. The Act of 1867 probably never contemplated such a body with such extensive operations as the Metropolitan Asylums Board?—No; I should think not.

92038. There are, as a matter of fact, smaller bodies still formed under that Act—sick asylums, for instance?—Yes.

92039. So you have really outgrown it?—Yes. In fact, we have not gone with the times. We have got rather fossilised in that way.

Tenders by selected firms. 92040. In limiting competition how would you proceed in detail? You are suggesting that the tendering should be one of limited competition?—I should go on something of these lines—that there should be no cause for complaint that certain tenderers and certain tradesmen were kept out; I should advertise first for all those who were prepared to have their names placed upon the list.

92041. So you would have to advertise in the first instance?—Yes. This is what occurred in regard to the London School Board: We put an advertisement asking that all those who were prepared to tender for certain items or for certain amounts, say up to £500 or £1,000 or £10,000, should send in their names.

92042. Would you repeat that from time to time?—I would repeat that from time to time.

92043. Would you retain all the names which came in in answer to the advertisement?—No. They would then have to go through the mill. Perhaps I may just state from my experience what took place, as it would be perhaps more explanatory to the Commission. We advertised; we got all these names in; they gave the names of certain architects and certain institutions and others for whom they did work; then they gave references as far as financial matters were concerned and they stated where their various works were. We got all that and then inquiries were made. The firms and others to whom they referred had a form sent to them asking some very deep questions. At that time I was obliged to have the replies sent to my private address for the simple reason that if I had not done so any rate-payer might have come in and seen those papers. So that part of it was sent to my private address and brought up afterwards at the School Board. We had an officer whom we sent round to see these manufacturers and their work-place and who saw what they were capable of doing. Then we sent to ascertain their financial position. Having done that, then, as I say, they were selected and put upon the list. Perhaps we should find a man capable of doing £500 worth of work, but he could not do £5,000 worth of work. The lists having been arranged they were taken regularly when a job came up. Say there was a £500 job, the list of those men was taken, the first six, seven, eight or nine names were sent to; and when the next £500 job came along, the next batch of names and so the list was run down. The same with all the others. That is the system, to my mind, that should be adopted. You should ascertain the capabilities of the people first and then put them on the list. You may find a man capable of doing £1,000 worth of work, and another man capable of doing £10,000 worth of work, but I should not put the first man out; I should let him come in on another list.

92044. Then you lay stress on the importance of the preparation of the schedules?—That I look upon as of schedules most important. The system I am afraid is not what it should be. It ought to be in the hands of a central body with your officials specially expert.

92045. You want expert assistance with regard to the schedules?—Yes.

92046. Have you considered whether there are any recognised trade associations that would assist in preparing schedules for public bodies?—No, for myself I should prefer it being done by your own experts. You might get one or two, but there are not many who do that kind of thing.

92047. With regard to the stores, both local and central, Accumulation have you found a tendency, unless there is very careful of stores.

supervision, for the accumulation of stores?—Yes. I may say even with the best of wishes that if you do not take care, the stores are not properly administered. We experienced that, I may say, in the Asylums Board some three or four years ago. I took it up. I found we had got an accumulation there. It resulted in the superintendent of the stores leaving the service. We got an accumulation of the stores there and at the various hospitals, which at that time amounted to something like £153,000, and is now reduced to £86,000, by checks.

92048. That occurred, I think, both at the local institutions and at the central stores?—Yes.

92049. Should you regard it as easier to detect and deal with at the central stores than at the local institutions?—Yes.

92050. Though accumulations may occur in both cases, yet it would be much better to deal with them at the central institution?—You would have things much more under control because then you would have the requisitions up and you could watch them.

92051. I think you have had some experience as to the importance of the safe custody of samples?—Yes, Samples. that is a matter which the central body would be able to do much better. On one occasion I was examining some clothing and I am sorry to say that the clothing was not up to sample. It was a sealed sample that was shown to me. Between that and the time of investigation, this superintendent had shifted the sample and put the seal on to make the cloth correspond with that which had been received. All that wants very careful administration, and it ought to be done by a central body with a special officer to look after those things.

92052. In the smaller places where they cannot carry out all the precautions which you suggest, do you think Disclosure of stock in hand to contractors. it would be beneficial if, in inviting tenders, they were to disclose to all who are concerned the quantities in stock, so that the knowledge of what they are likely to require would be shown to everybody, and not exclusively to those who chose to send through particular channels?—You mean to disclose to the contractors?

92053. Yes?—It would be a great convenience and advantage if these bodies did say at the time what they have in stock; but unfortunately in very many instances the tenders are for materials which they have to make, which to my mind is a mistake.

92054. Let me give you a concrete instance: supposing a board of guardians want boots, and they have in stock a large quantity of, we will say, number sevens, and a very small quantity of number eights. It is material to the tenderer to know that there is a small quantity of eights and a large quantity of sevens, because he probably would have to supply more eights?—Yes.

92055. If that were known to everybody, no one contractor would have an unfair advantage?—I agree that that is so. The question of the boots is a very difficult one because of the sizes, and you often get a stock that you really cannot avoid. My own view of the matter is that we lay in too much stock in boots and shoes, because of the different sizes; the stock is too great as rule whatever institution you go to. You get a large number of a certain size remaining in stock and doing no good. It is much better that you should go to the firm where they could tell you the sizes they have and keep them in stock.

92056. In dealing with a large number of institutions do you find that you are able to check expenditure by comparing their expenditure with the expenditure at similar institutions?—Yes, at the Asylums Board, we have the half-yearly accounts brought up showing materials and quantities and values at each institution. That I instituted some three years ago, I think, with one of the asylums, and now it is carried out throughout the whole. We have found that of the greatest advantage, because now we can send to the superintendents and say to them, Your institution has consumed so much, and another institution so much less, how is it? The result has been that the they are brought more into uniformity, and that has been done with the greatest advantage. Of course, that could be done all the way round because it is a very simple matter. It is simply taking off the information from the necessary books at the institution.

92057. Have you any system of checks on the quality of the materials, such as to compare with your stock-taking in regard to the quantities?—We have a check on the quality at the central store. There is a man there for soft goods and another for the ironmongery, and hardware, and another for the boots and shoes. I cannot say that it is as satisfactory as I should like it to be, for the simple reason that these men are men of £2 and £3 a week. I have nothing to say against their probity, or honesty, but I do not think it is a wise thing that men of that standing should be called upon to pass thousands of pounds' worth of articles. That is one advantage that you would have in having a very large store.

92058. Then you would provide an independent expert?—I should prefer to have an independent expert, and not the same one always.

92059. To whom would you entrust the appointment?—To the central body entirely.

92060. Would you apply that to the coal also?—It would be the same thing with coal. There your engineer-in-chief could help you. Our engineer-in-chief is our expert there. He sees the quantity of coal that is used, the returns are made to him, and he looks into the matter.

92061. I am told that is possible with comparatively few exceptions to tell from what pit a particular coal came?—There are experts who can do that.

92062. But your engineer will not be able to do that?—He will not be able to do that, but, of course, he can go into the consumption of the coal and the quantity of the smoke, a thing with which we have to deal so much in London.

92063. Would he be competent to see that you are getting the proper quality that you tender for?—In regard to coal, you can always tell from what colliery it comes—there is no difficulty about that, because it is on the truck. The point is, which is the best class of coal to use for certain work. He would be the judge of that, because he would go by experience. But if you were purchasing coal outside of the collieries, then it would be advisable to find out where the coal came from, and the engineer-in-chief could not tell you that—you must have an expert in the coal trade then.

92064. With regard to the constitution of your board, you spoke of the absence of party politics; do you attribute that to your constitution, and your mode of election?—Yes; I think that is an advantage. We have members sent us by the boards of guardians, and there is unfortunately in all boards of guardians a good deal of party spirit; and, of course, there it would be brought into operation; but so far as we are concerned at the Metropolitan Asylums Board, I do not know of any case where any party politics have ever been shown at all.

92065. Some point has been made as to the difficulty of finding men with sufficient leisure to do the work which is demanded of them on the Asylums Board; but in the case of London, is it not the fact that you are exceptionally well off for men who are business men but who have partly retired from business?—Yes, that is so. No doubt there are plenty of men who could give their time, but they will not offer themselves for election. They will not go into those fights that take place. They are quite willing to work, and they have got plenty of time, but they will not offer themselves for election in the manner that they are required to do now. That is one of our difficulties. I think if the

Local Government Board nominated men with a large amount of liberty who could give the time and who were retired business men, that would be of the greatest advantage, because they have got long experience. We have found in several instances where we have had retired business men that they have been of the greatest advantage to us in some things.

92066. And retired officials too?—And retired officials. I mentioned just now Dr. Bridges; his knowledge, and so forth, was of the greatest value, and he was always listened to.

92067. Then you suggest that the central body might be composed partly of elected members; would you elect them directly to that body?—I do not see how you could otherwise do it. The elective system is the difficulty. Our board at the present time is the only board with a qualification. I do not think there is any other public body, I was going to say in the world, but certainly in England or the United Kingdom, where there is a qualification. Ours is a £40 qualification. The stupidity of the thing is that you are perfectly powerless with regard to the qualification, because there is no penalty. Therefore, the thing has fallen by the board entirely. You have men there who are not qualified, and who is going to bell the cat?

92068. Would you retain that qualification on paper?—No, I do not think it is worth retaining. I want to get the very best men who will give their time and abilities to the work. That is what I want to see. I am sure there is a great deal to be done.

92069. Have you considered whether there should be any representation of the county council?—No, I have not considered that; but there is no reason why there should not be. There is no reason why the county council should not nominate members; they are an elected body.

92070. They might nominate members upon the central body?—Yes.

92071. Should they appoint them from their own body, or from outside?—I should give them power to appoint from outside. Of course, I would much rather have them from outside because the members of the county council have got quite enough to do themselves without any further work—too much in fact.

92072. Do you think they would get too far away from the elective principle in that case?—I daresay it would be, to a certain extent, getting away from the elective principle, but, as I say, I am not at all sure. It is a difficult question really to decide or to give an opinion upon. But what I should like to see—and I lay it down as a principle—is that they should have men who can give their time and who have practically nothing else to do but the work of this public body. It is quite as much as they can possibly do to carry it out in the manner in which it should be done. Taking my own experience I should say that I could not possibly take on the duties of another public body, and in point of fact I have refused over and over again to go up for any other public body. This work is quite as much as I can do.

92073. (Mrs. Bosanquet.) Would you suggest that the new central body should absorb the Metropolitan Asylums Board?—Yes; let it take the whole of it, because this, after all is said and done, is part of the Poor Law. You see the boards of guardians are represented on our board, and not only that but we have to go to them for our precepts.

92074. But you deal with certain classes of cases which are outside the Poor Law?—Yes.

92075. Notwithstanding that, you think there would be no objection?—None whatever. We also, I may say, practically deal with the public health as well as with the Poor Law. Anybody who applies and who is certified, or rather notified, can come into our hospitals. Then you see we do a certain amount of Poor Law work. Take the children, for instance—we take the convalescent homes which are for Poor Law children; then take ringworm, ophthalmia, the imbeciles—all those are Poor Law cases. At the present time we are relieving the unions to an enormous extent, in a way which, to my mind, is very unfair; they are sending even their old-aged and infirm to us and unfortunately they are having them certified. So that practically a great deal of our work is really and truly Poor Law work.

M. JAMES
T. HELBY.

28 Jan. 1908.

Elected
members on
central
body.

Qualifica-
tion.

Representa-
tion of
County
Council on
central
body.

Absorption
of Metro-
politan
Asylums
Board by
central
body.

Mr. James
T. Helby.

28 Jan. 1908.

Purchase
of stores
through
buyers.

92076. I believe some of the large stores work through buyers; would it be possible for you to dispense with contracts and to get your stores through buyers?—Under supervision I see no reason why it should not be done.

92077. It would be very much simpler in many ways, would it not?—In many ways of course it would. They are all points which would have to be fully considered and thought out. There is no reason why the principle should not apply. Our Asylums Board spends £300,000 a year; I do not know what the other institutions do, but it would not come to much less than a million and a quarter or a million and a half a year. There is no reason why it should not be all done exactly on the same lines.

92078. I suppose the buyer going into the open market very often would do better than you could do by buying off a contractor?—Much better.

92079. But you would have to get a highly salaried man?—Certainly. If you want your work done properly of course you must have a highly salaried person for that purpose.

92080. But even so, you think that a buyer might be better than a contractor?—I am perfectly satisfied of that. Many a time we might have bought things for considerably less than we have if we could have gone into the market there and then.

Milk
contracts
and
inspection
of dairies.

92081. On the question of the dietary and your contracts for milk, do you inspect the dairies at all?—The milk question is one of the things that I feel very dissatisfied about. We accept tenders for milk at the present time which I am practically satisfied cannot be supplied properly at the price we give. But we are in this position that we cannot call upon the public health authorities to come and take samples of our milk and prosecute. The difficulty is this: We send down to a hospital and somehow or other it gets known—these things will leak out. This is what I should like, but of course only the Local Government Board can give us the order. I should very much like that the medical superintendent should go and take a sample of milk when it arrives and send it immediately to the medical officer of health and have it analysed. I should like to give him power to do that, because the quality of the milk is one of the most important things with regard to hospital treatment that we have. We are in hopes that something will be done shortly. At any rate, what we are doing as far as we can now before we get our next tenders in for our milk is, we are having a specification drawn up giving power to inspect the dairies and inspect the other places. I have just seen our medical officer and been through it, and we are taking full power to see to that.

Tenders of
local bodies.

92082. (*Miss Hill*.) I can understand you would consider that any amount of business could be carried through by a central body, but I should like very much to hear a little bit more about what you would propose for the local bodies. I gather that you would entrust the tenders mainly or entirely to the central body?—Yes.

Out-relief.

92083. And that you would have some one responsible official there from the central body who would watch over the local committee? Of course, there would be a great deal more detail work than there was even for the school board. The cases of out-relief would be very numerous?—Yes.

92084. And they would have to be dealt with immediately, they are not like things that can be referred and considered?—Yes; they would have to be dealt with at specified times, once a week or once a fortnight, as is done now.

Delegation
of powers
to local
bodies.

92085. So that you would have to delegate a great deal of power to these local bodies, and that you would be prepared to do. It is quite a different subject to the delegation to the managers by the school board?—Yes, it would be quite a different character. For instance, you delegate to the managers of the school board the seeing of parents of children that are absent from school. That is something of a similar character.

92086. I think I am right in saying that the powers delegated to the managers of schools were not so great as to enlist the sympathy of a large number of volunteers?—No, that is probably so.

92087. You think in this case more might be delegated and therefore you would hope for more of the volunteer element and spirit?—Quite so.

92088. I see that you turn with great desire towards the nominations by the Local Government Board?—I do.

Nomination
by Local
Government
Board.

92089. I suppose you consider they were a very great power in the old times on the board of guardians. The members nominated by the Local Government Board did a great deal of good work?—They did the work.

92090. And led the reforms, as a rule?—Yes.

92091. You point out, I think, what is a very great difficulty: the way in which men go on such a very large number of boards. Would you propose any limitation of their power?—I should like to very much.

Plurality
of appoint-
ments.

92092. It reduces it to an absurdity?—Exactly so, a perfect absurdity.

92093. And often they are men who have a business also?—Exactly so. For instance, we have a man on four or five boards. He is mayor of one of the boroughs. He is on one committee, I think it is, he likes the trip to Margate, to the home there, and of course he goes to Margate all right; but you never see him anywhere else, except it is to come and criticise the work done by the men who work hard.

92094. He comes in for ten minutes or a quarter of an hour and gets his name down as having attended the committee?—That is the principle.

92095. You would be in favour of limiting this?—I would.

92096. If you give a nomination to anybody like the County Council you would be prepared to say, perhaps, that they should nominate people who were not on their own body, for that very reason?—I would certainly.

92097. Because clearly the county council has plenty to do?—Yes. I want men who will work. I do not blame them, I am not doing that at all; they cannot help it, but they cannot do the work.

92098. (*Sir Samuel Provis*.) With regard to your committee it practically would be a nominated body, would it not?—Practically.

Local
committee
a nominated
body.

92099. Do you not anticipate some objection being raised to that on the ground that they must necessarily spend a good deal of money?—Of course, you would get objections, I know that perfectly well. I am only speaking from the point of view of doing the work (that is what I am looking at) in the interests of the ratepayers generally.

Objection
of ratepayers

92100. You would have ratepayers objecting, would you not?—I think it is very possible; but I say I am dealing with it from that point of view; I am not dealing with it from the ratepayers' point of view, except in their own interests for saving money.

92101. I was thinking a little of the practicability of the scheme, and the amount of parliamentary objection that might be raised?—I do not know how else you would get out of it. You would have to meet it or else let the thing go by the board.

92102. Supposing you set up a new central body for London which should be a Poor Law authority, would you at all discriminate between the present duties of the Asylums Board, leaving some of those to the central body and others to another body? You have pointed out that part of the duties of the Asylums Board are Poor Law duties, and the others are practically Public Health duties?—Yes.

Absorption
of work
of Metro-
politan
Asylums
Board.

92103. Would you think it desirable that the new Central Poor Law Board for the whole of London should take over the whole of those duties, or do you mean the Poor Law duties?—I should give them the whole of what we are doing now. I do not see how you can separate it. Of course all but the infectious hospitals are Poor Law.

92104. The hospitals would be the thing, of course?—Hospitals Yes, in the hospitals you could apportion them; I have and paying argued for it a long time. I consider myself that so far patients. as hospitals are concerned we ought to have paying patients. I do not agree with the principle that everybody can come in there and get all the very best atten-

tion and expert medical advice for nothing. We constantly get them offering money; they are prepared to pay for it.

92105. Do you refuse when they offer money?—We have to. We cannot take it; the Local Government Board will not allow us.

92106. There is no prohibition?—But there is the hospital open free. We may here and there have accepted something, but we cannot put it to the advantage of the rates. We give it, perhaps, for some furniture, or some pictures, or something of that kind.

92107. Some present?—Yes. You are not supposed at the present time to have classification; but as a matter of fact, do what you may, there is a certain amount of classification. That is the argument used: You must not have classification; but you do have it. Take our smallpox hospital: There a costermonger woman of the lowest of the low may come, and in the next bed some nice respectable girl; there they are, perhaps dying, and using the most filthy language, and there they would have to remain; prisoners were even brought from Pentonville, so you cannot do otherwise. It actually took place on the Smallpox ship at the last epidemic. Then you have the other hospitals, you have your various wards, and they are staffed so that you must put these

people together there. Here and there you do not have it. If you only had in hospitals a ward or two, or a block, for paying patients, you would relieve the rates enormously; but we cannot do it. I have brought it up twice at our Board, but could not carry it, because I was told at once that classification came in.

92108. (*Miss Hill.*) You have found that the influence of the nominated members on your Board is very great, is not it?—That is so.

92109. So that if it should be found impossible to eliminate the elected element altogether on any of these bodies, you would feel that if there were a certain number of nominated members they would, by their knowledge and attention to work, probably have greater weight even than their numbers?—Quite so.

92110. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Would that be quite fair, that the nominated members should be such as to outweigh the elected members?—You must not take it that way. What I look at is this: It is not a question of outweighing anything; I take it we should all be imbued with one motive only, doing the very best we could in the interests of the rate-payers of London.

92111. Should the fact whether you are elected or nominated make any difference in your action?—Not the slightest difference.

Mr. James
T. Helby.

28 Jan. 1908.

Nominated
members of
Asylums
Board.

Mrs. DUNN GARDNER, called; and Examined.

92112. (*Chairman.*) You are a Member of the Chelsea Distress Committee, and a Member of the Central Unemployed Body for London?—I am.

92113. You have been good enough to send us a Statement which we will treat as your Evidence-in-chief if you will kindly hand it in?—Certainly. (*The Witness handed in the following Statement.*)

1. I have been a member of the committees dealing with unemployment in Chelsea since 1904, and am one of the representatives of the Chelsea Distress Committee on the Central Unemployed Body. On this I have been a member of the classification and women's work committees, and I am a member of the working colonies, works, and employment exchanges committees. I have been a guardian for about five years in Lambeth and since 1904 in Chelsea. I am a school manager.

2. My knowledge of the classes and character of persons affected by unemployment has been chiefly gained from a fortnightly interview with all admissions to the workhouse. I can recall no case where unemployment alone had brought into the workhouse a man of really good character who was able and also willing to work. (The master of the Chelsea Workhouse agrees with me in this after an experience of fifteen years.)

3. Little difficulty has been experienced in getting out of the workhouse the few men of fairly good character who, though physically handicapped to some degree, were actually desirous of working. The very few really able-bodied men who are occasionally in the workhouse and who cannot be adequately dealt with under the guardian's present powers would be suitable inmates for a penal compulsory working colony.

4. The persons who, I think, are brought to the workhouse as the result of unemployment are:—

(i) The old and disabled who have been supported by relatives. These relatives having fallen out of work have become unable longer to support their dependents; and

(ii) The most incompetent workers in casual trades who are pushed out by better men who, being unable to get work at their usual occupation, have been driven to take up casual work. This, of course, lessens the chances of employment of men handicapped by age or physical or moral defect.

5. In 1903-4 I was acting as temporary hon. secretary of a church relief committee in Camberwell, where an elaborate scheme for the benefit of the unemployed was being worked. The church relief committee referred some cases to this organisation, and after the most complete inquiries these were, as a rule, accepted. The tendency then certainly was for the relief committee to look on the case as dealt with, and for the man to relax his own efforts to obtain work. The result was that

after a long delay three days' work was given by the municipal authorities, mostly at road sweeping, and that this was in some instances repeated after an interval of several weeks. In the cases I know, I certainly think that more harm than good was done.

6. In 1904-5 I was a member of the committee in Chelsea appointed under Mr. Long's scheme, and acted as hon. secretary to a sub-committee dealing with the cases from two wards.

7. Work was given in wood paving by the Borough Council and some men were employed through the central organisation.

8. The expenses of administration were very small. The superintendent of the local labour bureau, with one extra assistant, took down applications and made inquiries with the help of volunteers. In the sub-committee to which I belonged all inquiries were made by volunteers and were, in my opinion, quite as efficient as those of the paid workers under the Unemployed Workmen's Act.

9. The ordinary objections to relief works of course applied to the wood paving works, but I think that some slight check on the sort of men employed and on the amount of work done by them was exercised by the ratepayers, who were able to go and watch their own money being spent. The effect on the men was no worse than that of the work given under the Unemployed Workmen's Act; of course the mere fact of the work having been made for the men raised hopes of what would be done in the following winter.

10. *The Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905*, as administered during the past two years has, in my opinion:—

(a) Failed to benefit those for whom it was intended (see pars. 11-14) and

(b) Has failed to deal with those it has relieved in such a manner as is best calculated to put them in a position to obtain regular means of supporting themselves (pars. 15-21). *N.B.*—I wish to exclude the work of the emigration and of the women's work committees from these remarks.

11. The Act was intended for the benefit of those who, from exceptional causes over which they had no control, were temporarily unable to obtain work, but it has been used in a large number of cases for the relief of men who have for years lived by jobs or been engaged in seasonal trades.

12. I form these conclusions from the numerous record papers I have seen, both at Chelsea and at the central office. I have also a list herewith enclosed (*see Appendix No. VI. (A)*) of fifty recommended cases from Chelsea for 1905-6, and fifty for 1906-7. Among this 100, taken quite at random, I find that from the evidence afforded by the papers only seventeen had been in regular employ-

Mrs. Dunn
Gardner.

28 Jan. 1908.

Relief work
under
Mr. Long's
scheme.

Effect no
worse on
the men
than work
under
Unemployed
Act.

Failure of
Unemployed
Workmen
Act to
benefit those
for whom
it was
intended.

Proportion
of casual
workers
relieved.

Mrs. Durn ment for at least a year before applying, eighty-three had been in the habit of living by jobbing work. I have also a list herewith enclosed (*see Appendix No. VI. (B)*) of fifty case papers for 1905-6 and fifty for 1906-7, taken quite at random from those sent up to the central body to fill vacancies from all parts of London. Of this 100 there is a record of only thirty having been in regular employment.

28 Jan. 1908.

Provisions of the Act too attractive for the class of men actually dealt with.

Recurrent cases registered with Distress Committees.

Men assisted under the Act subsequently applying for Poor Law relief.

Work provided did not train the men.

Garden City and Fambridge.

No improving occupations.

Men treated as children rather than as adults.

13. By providing regular winter work for men such as these, who are usually only casually or seasonally employed, we are, I consider, increasing the troubles of the labour market by making these forms of work easier and more attractive both to employers and men.

14. The provisions under which the Act has been administered were devised for the requirements of the high class of regular workmen for whose benefit the Act was intended. They are, I think, far too attractive for the class of men who have, in fact, been dealt with by the Act. The majority of the men employed have not, I believe, for years—even if ever—earned for sixteen consecutive weeks as much money as has been paid them under the Unemployed Workmen Act, and certainly many of the wives of men at the colonies have not been so well off during their husbands' normal employment. The shortening of the hours of labour instead of the lessening of the rate of pay has removed the objection that these casuals, who never wish to work for a whole week, might have had to the employment.

15. The work given has, I believe, failed to deal with those whom it has relieved in such a manner as is best calculated to put them in a position to obtain regular work or other means of supporting themselves. The truth of this is, I think, clearly shown by the fact that a much larger percentage of those who were given employment during 1905-6 reapplied in 1906-7, than of those to whom employment was not given. A complete list can be obtained from the Central Body, but as examples I may quote :—

	Percentage of Assisted Cases reapplying.	Percentage of Not Assisted Cases reapplying.
Chelsea - -	71	18
Finsbury - -	42	7
Fulham - -	63	3
Hackney - -	54	25

The men to whom work was not given and who did not reapply certainly did not—in the case of Chelsea—go into the workhouse, and there has been no corresponding rise of able-bodied pauperism throughout London.

16. Another fact showing that the work given has not materially improved the men's position is that many of them, on returning from the working colonies on the completion of their sixteen weeks' provided work, have at once, as no doubt the Commissioners will have heard, applied for assistance to the relieving officer or to some charitable society.

17. The work provided has not (except in the case of Hollesley Bay, of which I will speak later) been of a "training" nature. It has merely been directed to tiding the men over a certain number of weeks or months.

18. At Garden City and Fambridge employment was found for the working hours, a few games were provided for recreation and some evening entertainments were organised, but there was no system of improving occupations for the men when not on the works, such as instruction in the use of tools or home industries; they were not even encouraged to mend their own boots and clothes.

19. The men were treated rather as children than as reasonable adults. They were relieved of all responsibilities for the welfare of their families and themselves. Everything was done for them, every detail attended to without effort or choice on their part. They had no chance of bettering their position; all they had to do was to get through just enough work and to keep just sufficiently sober to avoid being sent back to London. Such treatment cannot but have been harmful to these characters.

20. Though so much was done for the men, no efforts were made to raise their standard of cleanliness, order, or civilisation. At Garden City the bunks were infested with fleas and other insects, and the meals were served in a way we should regret to see copied in the homes of respectable working men. But the food itself was better and more plentiful than the men could have provided for themselves at home, and was always ready the moment it was required. The men, who were expected to remain at least sixteen weeks at the colony, had no place in which to put away any belongings. (Some of them had a nail in the wall and some brought small boxes in which to keep things.)

21. The neglect of any civilising element in the domestic arrangements of the working colonies is, I think, in measure due to the charge of the works and of the home life of the men being entrusted to the same superintendent. It is not likely that a really efficient foreman of large works should prove a successful organiser of domestic arrangements.

22. Of the *Hollesley Bay Farm Colony* I can only speak from the reports submitted to the working colony committee. The element of training is certainly considered there, but it has been primarily the training of men for the occupation of small holders, an occupation which it seems to me could never—even if all the plans suggested had been adopted—have absorbed any considerable number of London's unemployed. No systematic effort has been made until quite lately to train men as dairy-men, carters, gardeners, farm hands, etc., and to place them in situations about England.

23. The settling of London's failures in small holdings under most favourable auspices seems to me likely to encourage rather than to retard the exodus from the country of those men who, though fitted by a lifetime's experience to manage a small holding, have no chance of obtaining one for themselves by remaining in the country.

24. Hollesley Bay is also used as a training school for emigrants, but I have seen no evidence as to whether the men trained there have succeeded better abroad than those emigrated direct from London. If training is really necessary to make successful emigrants, it seems to me important to extend it to the wife and elder children as well as to the man.

25. *The Distress Committees* are, in my opinion, expensive and useless bodies which could well be dispensed with. There are in London twenty-nine of them, consisting of over 500 persons. These persons are brought face to face with distress, for it is their *duty* to receive, inquire into and discriminate between any applications made to them by persons unemployed, but their only *power* to relieve the distress they have discovered is the privilege of referring the persons requiring employment to the Central Body. As a matter of fact, many of the distress committees have failed to discriminate between the applications made to them and, in most instances, *w*en evidence has been brought before them that distress existed in a home including young children, and that this distress could be relieved by the giving of work, they have not withheld their recommendation that that work should be given. The evidence which has really weighed with most of them has been that of the size of the family and the acuteness of the distress rather than that of the man's past character and industrial record. "After all," as I have heard it said, "he is only asking for work."

26. Under these circumstances the inquiries made by the distress committees are, in my opinion, practically worthless. Paid officers are only human and are not likely to take great pains to collect difficult facts if no attention is paid to them when they are produced. Though a few distress committees have made thorough inquiries, so large a number have not that I am in favour of abolishing the inquiries altogether.

27. A proof of the inefficiency of the inquiries of distress committees is that the emigration societies which work for the central body cannot accept the inquiries made by the distress committees, but have to inquire afresh into cases before deciding them. How little the distress committees have been able to interest local workers is shown by the fact that in many districts no women have been found to pay the weekly allowances to the wives of the men at the working colonies at their own homes.

No effect made to raise standard of cleanliness, order, civilisation.

Hollesley Bay Colony.

Effect of settling London unemployed in small holdings.

Training wife and elder children of emigrants.

Distress Committee failure to discriminate in accordance with the Act.

Inquiries made by Distress Committee of small value.

28. *Emigration.*—I have had no experience of the work of the emigration committee, but it is obvious that when suitable persons are sent under favourable circumstances to a country where there is proper assurance that work is awaiting them, they are being dealt with in a way more calculated to put them in a position to support themselves than are those who are given sixteen weeks on relief work.

29. *The Administrators of the Act.*—The elected members of the Central Body are Londoners chosen chiefly for their experience of London and its wants and are, it seems to me, absolutely unsuited for the duties which the Act has caused them to assume. No amount of good intentions combined with a few visits to the country can make a man or woman an expert on subjects which are still difficult and doubtful of solution after a lifetime has been devoted to their study, such as keeping out the sea or introducing new systems of agriculture. Administrators anxious to do something, and being always reproached for not doing more, are apt to be attracted by experimental and expensive schemes, the benefits of which, if successful, are skillfully set before them, while they lack altogether the experience which would teach them the number of chances that exist against their success.

30. The fact that new work undertaken by the Central Body, such as the sea walling at Fambridge and the special gardening schemes at Hollesley, has proved expensive cannot be wondered at nor certainly can the members of the body be blamed for it. They, in their ignorance, have done their best, and are slowly gaining their experience at the expense of the London ratepayers and the National Exchequer.

People of experience able to advise on such matters might have been introduced onto the body by the Local Government Board in the persons they were entitled to nominate to it, but the Local Government Board has not thought well to select such persons.

31. *Labour Bureaux.*—I am a member of the employment exchanges committee, but I do not feel able to form an opinion as to the possible utility of the exchanges as long as they are worked under the Unemployed Workmen's Act—an Act which, I think, inspires confidence neither in employer nor in employed. I should like to see a fair trial given to the exchanges under the Board of Trade.

32. *Women's Work.*—I was a member of this committee for some time. It seems to me that the wages paid are not such as are allowed by the Act, and that many of the women helped are not eligible for assistance under this Act.

33. The wages paid are not, I think, less than would under ordinary circumstances be earned in London by an unskilled workwoman for continuous work during the same period. The wages are: for a single woman, 10s. a week, with dinner five days a week, and fares expended over 2d. a day; for women with dependents, the same sum and allowances, plus an extra allowance for each dependent, with a limit of 7s. 6d. a week.

34. I also consider that a large number of the women employed are not eligible for assistance under the Act. I formed this conclusion while I was on the committee from examining a number of record forms. I have now a list (herewith enclosed, see *Appendix No. VI. (C)*) of fifty recommended cases for 1905-6 and fifty for 1906-7, selected at random, which bears out this fact. The majority of the women do not, as far as is stated, under ordinary circumstances earn even 10s. a week—several of them are domestic servants and if their characters are good should have no difficulty in obtaining ordinary situations—several of them, far from being only temporarily out of work, are now driven to seek it on account of widowhood or illness of husband. The cases are no doubt excellent ones for assistance, but do not seem to me suitable for treatment under the provisions of the Unemployed Workmen's Act. Several of them were at the date of application still engaged in the partial employment which they had had for years.

35. It seems to me very remarkable that, considering the great advantages offered by the women's workrooms, there have been so few applications for employment in them.

36. The work given to the women in the workrooms seems to me, without doubt, to increase their general usefulness and their chance of getting work at the end of the sixteen weeks.

37. If the workrooms were to be increased the question of the disposal of the output would become a very serious one. Even the sale of garments to the emigration committee has interfered with the work of the women who were previously engaged in the emigration outfits.

38. I have visited Lingfield and Hadleigh Labour Farms and I know something of the working of the Church Army and Salvation Army Labour Homes. All these seem to me to be efforts at the reclamation of the unemployable, not attempts to deal with the question of unemployment.

39. The method of dealing with unemployment under the Unemployed Workmen Act is, in my opinion, not a "remedy" for unemployment, but a means of subsidising casual and seasonal work.

40. If at any time it is decided that trade is so depressed as to require special State aid for its workers, I would advise that work of national utility such as shore protection land reclamation, afforestation or road-making, should be undertaken by some department directly under the control of the Government, that the work should be advertised and given to contractors in the usual way with the exceptions that:—

(i) The contractors should be required to engage their men at the employment exchanges in whatever proportion should be considered advisable, and that

(ii) The wages to be paid should be decidedly below the trades union rate. This would be necessary in order that it should be to the workers' advantage to leave as soon as possible work undertaken not because it was immediately required, but for their benefit, and to return to their ordinary occupations, where they would be supplying actual requirements.

41. Under this system men would be employed by ordinary business employers under ordinary business conditions. The rate of wages would be low, but the best men, if they chose to accept it, would be the men to get the work; the habitual casual or loafer, even if engaged, would not remain long on an ordinary working job. If any man did not give satisfaction he would be discharged and another taken on in his place. The whole cumbersome, expensive and useless machinery of the distress committees and their inefficient inquiries would be done away with and the men would escape the danger of deterioration inseparable from all charitably managed relief works.

42. I think this is a question rather of Poor Law than of unemployment, but I should like to be allowed to add that I am convinced that the present system of dealing with young persons in workhouses is highly unsatisfactory. I feel sure that the right thing to do is to get them out of the workhouse as quickly as possible, but whether this is or is not done depends at present entirely on the chance of some guardian being interested in such cases or on the energy and resourcefulness of the master. The number of young persons who seek admission is not large, and I believe that all when they first come could be dealt with. But when they get used to the restrictions of the workhouse and come to regard it as really their home, it becomes often impossible to do anything for them and, with short intervals, they settle down to be practically inmates for life. Many guardians are not, I think, aware of the possibilities which exist for dealing with such persons outside the workhouse, nor of the great disadvantages of allowing them to remain inmates. I should like reports of the number of persons between the ages of (say) fifteen and twenty-five who are in the workhouse to be sent to the Local Government Board regularly with a statement of the reason of their remaining and of the efforts being made to get them out. If it were to prove that there is at all a large number of this class, male and female, and that the guardians are as a rule not dealing effectively with them, I think it would be well worth while to appoint a special inspector for their supervision, at any rate, until the guardians learnt to take up the work themselves.

Mrs. Dunn
Garner.

28 Jan. 1908.

Work given
is educative.

Effect of
women's
relief work
on outside
labour.

Lingfield,
Hadleigh
and other
labour
farms and
homes.

Method of
dealing with
unemployed
under the
Act a means
of subsidising
casual
work.

National
works under
contractors.

Method of
dealing with
young people
in work-
houses.

Mrs. Dunn
Gardner.

28 Jan. 1908.

Experi-
ence
of witness.

Unemploy-
ment alone
seldom a
cause of
pauperism.

Getting able-
bodied out
of workhouse.

Results of
Church
Relief Com-
mittee.

Classes of
workers
relieved by
Unemployed
Workmen
Act.

Present
provisions of
Act too
attractive.

92114. (Chairman.) From your Statement I gather that you have had considerable experience of social work, that you have been a guardian for five years in Lambeth, and for some time in Chelsea; and in addition you are a school manager?—Yes.

92115. Your evidence divides itself into two heads: that which relates to Poor Law proper, and that which relates to the unemployed. You make a statement in Paragraph 2 with regard to the unemployed that you cannot recall any case where unemployment alone had brought into the workhouse a man of really good character who was able and also willing to work?—That is so.

92116. By "able" I assume he was a competent worker, too?—With the will and the mental capacity to work.

92117. And the physical capacity?—Yes.

92118. That is to say, an able-bodied man fit and willing to work?—Yes.

92119. Your experience is, you do not know anybody who, from unemployment alone, with those physical attributes, has been brought into the workhouse?—No; and I have seen the workhouse men and talked to them; every man that comes into the Chelsea Workhouse I see and talk to over and over again; so that I can say that quite definitely.

92120. When a man of fairly good character, and who is willing to work has got into the workhouse, you have generally been able to find him work outside?—I have generally been able to persuade him to find himself work outside. In other cases, we have sent him to the labour homes or labour colonies, or down into the country, or done things of that sort with him.

92121. Do you keep touch with those? How do you know what happens to them afterwards?—We do not, except the ones who go to the homes; I know what happens to most of them. I do not know what happens to the men who go back into the ordinary labour market; they do not return to us.

92122. You do keep touch of the persons who go to an institution such as a labour colony?—Yes.

92123. Until they get re-employed?—Yes.

92124. You are temporary Honorary Secretary of the Church Relief Committee in Camberwell, and you do not think that the result of the subscription work given was beneficial there?—Not in the cases I know; the inquiries were very elaborate and the benefits given were exceedingly small.

92125. Now we come to the Unemployed Workmen Act. That Act was passed to relieve those who were ordinarily in permanent employ and were temporarily unemployed. Your experience is that that class have not registered or made use of the Act?—In very small proportion to the other class, the casual worker.

92126. Has your committee been able to do anything for those that were of that class?—They have been able to recommend them to the central body.

92127. Has the central body been able to do anything for them? I suppose you lose touch of them?—I am a member of the central body.

92128. Assuming that there are two different classes who come before you, one the persons generally in employment who are temporarily out of employ, and the other those who are always under-employed or employed on casual jobs, has it been easier to get employment for the first class than the second?—I think it has been exactly the same; the names have been sent up to the central body, and the central body have put them on to the work which they have had going. We have been told that preference ought to be given to those who have been in regular work, but as a matter of fact I have found preference has been given to those who have had large families.

92129. Preference was not given to a man according to his competence as a workman, but according to the size of his family?—Yes.

92130. You think that as the Act is at present worked it is too attractive to a certain class, that is to the class who are generally under-employed, because it gives them more consecutive work than they ordinarily get?—Yes.

92131. The shortness of the hours of labour, which, of course, reduced the emolument, had not a deterrent effect on them?—No. I think that the man who is not accustomed to regular work prefers a week of five days work to a week of six days work.

92132. Your objection to the Act from this point of view is that it tends, in your judgment, to rather to subsidise and to perpetuate this kind of casual under-employment?—Yes.

92133. You have set out a short table in Paragraph 15 as to the percentage of persons who have been assisted who re-apply?—Yes.

92134. Is that in two consecutive years?—Yes.

92135. And also the percentage of non-assisted re-applying?—Yes.

92136. What conclusion do you draw from those two sets of figures?—That the treatment under the Act has not been such as to make the men more able to support themselves after they have had relief under the Act.

92137. What proportion would the number of persons who were not assisted form to the number of persons who were assisted: would it be about half?—Not so many as half, I think, were found relief.

92138. That is to say, that more than half would be passed over?—Yes, certainly. I have got some more figures now. The figures have come out more since I wrote that statement. I do not know if you would like them.

92139. You give percentages. One would rather like to know what the actual figures were to which the two different sets relate?—I could easily supply that table if I might give it afterwards. I have here the figures from nineteen distress committees added together. Of the 22,779 applicants not assisted in 1905-6, 4,302, or 17·7 per cent., re-applied in 1906-7. Of the 5,580 applicants who were assisted in 1905-6, 2,476, that is to say, 44·4 per cent., re-applied in 1906-7 (see Appendix No. VI. (D)).

92140. Then the number of those who were not assisted is very very much larger than those who were assisted?—Very much larger.

92141. Of course, it may be that one reason why the percentage is so small is that a great many of them thought it was not worth while re-applying?—But they managed for themselves somehow: they did not go into the workhouse.

92142. That is your point, that they did not re-apply and as far as you know they did not get public assistance?—Yes.

92143. You found that a certain number of those for whom sixteen weeks' work was provided, afterwards had to apply to the relieving officer or some charitable society?—Yes.

92144. Were there any considerable number of those that so applied?—My district is a very small one, so there are only small numbers that I know of personally; but I have heard of it having happened in several other districts in London. I thought figures had been given to this Commission about it, so I did not try to get any figures about it myself.

92145. You object rather to the principle upon which the men were treated. You think they were treated rather as children than as reasonable adults, that is to say, everything was done for them?—Yes.

92146. What would you suggest on that point? They are not of a class who would be likely to cook for themselves, are they?—Of course, they would not have the time to do that if they were at work all day.

92147. Your criticism on the administration is that you want two different sets of men: you want a successful organizer indoors and an efficient foreman outdoors?—If we are going to continue this kind of colony I think that is necessary.

92148. You would say that the colony was not instructive at all domestically, and only found work for them?—It only found work for them, and, I think, weakened their characters. I think they had everything for sixteen weeks very comfortably done for them, and they were not given any teaching of any sort to strengthen their characters to counteract that weakening tendency.

Act tends to subsidise casual unemployment.

Recurrent cases.

Proportion of cases assisted and not assisted.

Application by men assisted for Poor Law or charitable relief.

Treatment of men relieved.

Colonies not educative.

92149. Your criticism, I suppose, is very largely directed against the short period of sixteen weeks as insufficient to permanently elevate the class that was so working?—I think sixteen weeks is quite inadequate for training, but I think if the men had remained years on the colonies on the lines of the colonies I know, they would be worse off than after the sixteen weeks.

92150. They would become more dependent?—Yes.

92151. Have you ever thought out the sort of colony that you would like to see in operation?—I do not know for what sort of men; if you mean a penal labour colony, that is a different thing.

92152. A colony that would be rather curative in its effect, that would tend to infuse habits of cleanliness and of order, and which would bring home to the individuals a greater sense of their responsibility to their families, assuming they were married, and so on?—I think the first thing would be to know whether it was a compulsory colony or a voluntary one. If it were a compulsory colony then I think that the whole of the time of the men ought to be considered. The management should provide for the whole of their time, not only for those hours which are spent in actual work.

92153. You have not seen Hollesley Bay, have you?—I have seen it once, but I do not know anything personally of the working of it.

92154. Coming on to the administration of the Act, you were not favourably impressed with the capacity of the elected members for certain classes of duties. You thought that more business experience was required as regards the nature of the work and of the operations that should be undertaken?—Yes. I think most of them had not had any experience of the management of land, and that sort of thing.

92155. Do you attach much importance to labour bureaux?—Yes, I attach great importance to them, but I do not think they have had a very fair trial hitherto.

92156. What you think is that the exchanges should be under the Board of Trade?—Yes.

92157. Assuming they were put under the Board of Trade do you think if they were universally established and linked up and dissociated, or at any rate not solely occupied with registering this particular class of worker, that their effect would be beneficial and would tend to improve the mobility of unskilled labour?—I think so very much indeed, but I should like to see a bigger scheme for employment exchanges than has been suggested yet. I want to have it not only linked up with all the other exchanges in England, but I should like to see an Imperial movement. I should like to see exchanges also in the colonies, and emigration done through these exchanges, just as migration is done in England now, or rather as one hopes it may be done.

92158. Have you considered any scheme of that kind at all?—I have thought over it a good deal, but the only thing is to get the employment exchanges started in the first instance.

92159. Assuming you had some employment exchanges of this kind, would you hand over to them the able-bodied who now may come to the Poor Law?—I should not hand over the able-bodied to them. I should let every person who wished to register have the opportunity of registering; I should not make them register.

92160. At present the Poor Law deals with able-bodied men if they are destitute. Do you think that your labour bureau could be so administratively constructed that they would be able to deal with that class?—No; I do not think that an employment exchange should be given power to relieve a man or to make him work if he did not wish to do so.

92161. Any labour colonies you would keep under the control of the Poor Law?—I should keep them under the control of that authority which was dealing with unemployment, whether that would be the Poor Law or not. I hope it would not be the Poor Law as at present constituted.

92162. What is the sort of labour that you had thought your labour bureau might undertake? You would wish, I suppose, under your system that employers and employed should have recourse to these labour bureaux?—Yes.

92163. And that they should be managed, say, by a joint committee of employers and employed?—Yes.

92164. You would still, under your scheme, have this casual unemployed lot to deal with, and you also would have the class that now comes to the Poor Law, who are able-bodied. Have you ever thought how you would deal with them?—For the really able-bodied men who could work who come to the workhouse I should like the Poor Law authority to have a compulsory labour colony, where they could detain them and teach them some trade, if their failure to earn a living for themselves was due to not knowing a trade.

92165. Assuming you had something of that kind, would you let them work for a wage?—No.

92166. Not?—Not money. I do not know whether you would call 6d. a week or that sort of thing a wage. I do not. I would give rewards for good work, but I do not call that a wage.

92167. You would give them some remuneration for their work?—I would give them some inducement to work well.

92168. Which, if it accumulated, would give them a certain fund with which to start when they left the labour colony?—Yes.

92169. You would encourage them in some way so that they should take a direct interest in their work?—Yes.

92170. The labour colony, you think, is the best practical solution of dealing with this particular class?—I have not thought about that sufficiently to be able to answer that question. I would rather not answer that. I am not quite sure enough about it.

92171. As to the various religious colonies that you have visited, were you satisfied with them?—No, because none of them seemed to me to have taken sufficient thought as to what would happen to the men when their time at the colony came to an end. At Lingfield, for instance, the only outlet for the men seemed to be emigration, and very many of the men were not fit for emigration; consequently they stayed on and on and on at the colony as long as any board of guardians chose to pay for them.

92172. The training as an educational system was defective in the sense that it did not give those who went through it such a moral and physical recuperation as to give them a fair chance of getting a livelihood when they left?—Yes, that was the effect. The training seemed to me to be very good, I could not say where the defect was, but the result was that I never knew a man who did go to work in England from Lingfield who did not fail almost immediately and have to return to the colony, but then the men at Lingfield are very much lower than the men who are accepted under the distress committee. They are not the same class; they are the unemployable rather than the unemployed.

92173. And the officials there were very badly paid, and undertook the work rather from a religious sense?—Yes.

92174. Your general objection to what has been recently done is that in your judgment it is mainly a means for subsidising casual and seasonal work, and it is not the real remedy for unemployment?—Yes.

92175. And you think that if it is determined to take measures for dealing with unemployment, that the State ought to undertake that work and that schemes of general utility should be undertaken by some department, and that the work should be given to contractors who should engage competent persons to perform that work?—Yes.

92176. Are the men to be employed to be competent men at that particular class of work?—Yes; I want the standard of work to be an ordinary one, not an artificial one, as we have on our relief works at present.

92177. To check persons coming on who otherwise would get employment, you would make the rate somewhat below the standard rate?—Yes.

92178. Supposing you had a scheme of that kind, the difficulty rather is that if you started it you would not be able to get rid of it. You would have permanently on your hands the persons whom you take on?—Yes, that might be so, if you did not give them low enough wages.

92179. You would say the wages would be the test?—Yes.

Mrs. Dunn
GarJner.

28 Jan. 1908.

Compulsory
labour colony
for able-
bodied
paupers.

Monetary
reward for
good work.

Lingfield.

Unemploy-
able class at
Lingfield.

State control
of unemploy-
ment.
National
works.

Standard of
work to be
an ordinary
one.

mittee.

Mrs. Dunn
Gardner.

28 Jan. 1908.

System of
dealing with
young per-
sons in work-
houses.

Demoralise-
tion due to
residence in
workhouse.

Girls in
workhouse.

92180. If they could get anything outside, they would go; if they could get work; the fact that they stopped would be a proof that they could not get work outside? —I do not think it would be quite a proof, because I think there are some men who would rather stop on at a low wage than bother themselves to look for other work.

92181. Now we come to a question of Poor Law rather than unemployment. You are strongly of opinion that the present system of dealing with young persons in workhouses is very unsatisfactory?—Yes.

92182. What class are you thinking of, boys or girls?—Both. I do not think any young people ought to be kept in workhouses at all.

92183. What sort of girls were you thinking of, or what sort of young persons?—Any girl or any boy. When they are of school age they go to the schools direct; when they get to be over that age there is no provision made for them. In many workhouses no one troubles about them very much, and they are simply kept in the workhouse from year to year and allowed to go out if they want to, or not to go out.

92184. I suppose these boys do a good deal of work in the workhouses; they are useful in that way?—The work they are given to do in the workhouse does not in any way train them to earn their living in after life.

92185. You would like to put the onus on the workhouse authorities for keeping these young people there; they would have to show reason why they were kept there?—Yes.

92186. What do you think could be done with that class of girl or boy?—I think each one must be dealt with as he or she comes into the workhouse. It is not very difficult to deal with a person of fifteen or sixteen, or even older than that. While they are young you can do something with them. After they have been for years using the workhouse as their home it is practically impossible in many cases to do anything with them at all.

92187. You think that the Poor Law authorities, if the employers would apply to them, would be able to place a good many of these outside?—Yes.

92188. For various reasons, they do not exert themselves in that way?—Yes.

92189. If attention is called to the matter, that there are young people in the workhouse, in the manner you suggest, then the Poor Law authorities would bestir themselves to place them outside?—I think so.

92190. Your idea is that once they remain a length of time in the workhouse, they are almost hopelessly demoralised?—Yes.

92191. The spirit of self-maintenance is almost eradicated?—Yes; it is very nice to feel you have a home somewhere, and those who are homeless get to feel that the workhouse is their home, and they come back there whenever any difficulty arises.

92192. There would have to be some discrimination in working this. Supposing a girl loses her place or she is an indifferent servant, or possibly her character is somewhat indifferent, she could come to the workhouse. You would not be able to get her out, because people would not take her. What would you do with that case?—If she had lost her character, there are plenty of charitable institutions who would be glad to deal with her, probably without any expense whatever.

92193. And that girl would probably be in a less eligible position, if she is sent to a home, than the other girl who had perhaps temporarily lost her employment and went out again and got employment?—Yes.

92194. You do not want any alteration to be made by which the one with the indifferent character would be allowed to stop in the workhouse, and the one with the good character would be pushed out?—I would not allow any young person to stop in the workhouse. Of course, a girl with a good character practically does not come into the workhouse, unless she has fits, or something of that sort. It is quite possible in your infirmaries you may have a good many young persons, but not in your workhouses. I think you ought to deal with them elsewhere.

92195. Has Chelsea a large workhouse?—No, Chelsea is a small district.

92196. Are there many of these young people in Lambeth?—Many.

92197. More than a dozen, should you say, or twenty? —While I was there there were certainly more than twenty, taking it altogether.

92198. Were there twenty at a time?—No, not so many as twenty at a time, but at Chelsea, I think, when I went there first, there were more than half a dozen of these young persons.

92199. And there they remained?—No, they did not remain.

92200. They came back?—They are all earning their own living outside.

92201. You got them placed outside?—Yes.

92202. But taking the ordinary action of certain boards of guardians there they would have remained?—Yes, and there they had remained for several years before I happened to go on the board.

92203. (*Miss Hill.*) What did you find the best machinery in getting those young people out? Has it been done by an energetic guardian, or have you brought in the co-operation of any outside body, such as the Charity Organisation, to get them out?—I think part of it has been done through one of the guardians. It has not usually been necessary to call in charitable help.

92204. The younger the person the easier to deal with?—Yes.

92205. You get the respectable girl out to a training home, and then into service usually?—Yes.

92206. Then there would be a number of comparatively young people about thirty who would have to be started with a good deal of care and thought?—I think care ought to be taken to start every possible person.

92207. Do you think the guardians in general have time to take up that, or that they want assistance for it?—I think it wants suggesting to them, but it is a thing that they ought to do. It has not occurred to a great many of them that there are all these different ways of dealing with the young people.

92208. Does it occur to you that in the Poor Law great strides have been made of late years in improvements in dealing with the children and the infirm and the old; but very little attention, comparatively speaking, has been turned to the able-bodied?—I quite agree to that.

92209. And that certainly the London workhouses have found it extremely difficult to find any employment for them?—Yes.

92210. Has that been, do you think, increased by the fact that the workhouses are precluded from any work which can possibly compete with outside independent work?—No, I do not think so. That has not affected it at all.

92211. They would take up brush-making or mat-making, or anything of that kind, without scruple?—When I was at Lambeth they started among other trades mat-making.

92212. That was not objected to?—No.

92213. Is that because it is one of the exceptional trades that have not been objected to. They would be barred from many trades, would they not?—I do not think so, but I think it would be very difficult to find a trade which your able-bodied could do. Mat-making and such occupations are more work for the old, something just to keep their time occupied. They are not suited to the able-bodied out of whom one ought to get a full day's work.

92214. You do not want to keep the men, if they can be started in trade at all; it should be outside?—Yes.

92215. When you have no ground attached to the workhouse it is very difficult of course to find suitable work, is it not?—I cannot imagine in a London workhouse being able to find suitable provision for the able-bodied.

92216. It must be somewhere away from the London workhouse, must it not?—I should think so. I do not know of any means of dealing with them adequately in the workhouse.

Getting
young
people
out of work-
house.

Difficulty
of obtaining
work for
able-bodied
paupers.

Difficulty
of providing
employment
for able-
bodied
paupers.

92217. I gather from what you say about Hollesley Bay that you feel it would be really better if they turned their attention to starting people in independent work. You say: "No systematic effort has been made until quite lately to train men as dairymen, carters, gardeners, farm hands, etc., and to place them in situations about England." You would be more hopeful of the success of that than in starting these men at small holdings?—Yes, I think so. There have been several reports from the Hollesley Bay Committee that they are starting men in those situations.

92218. The other plan is rather starting people who have least experience in what is certainly a very difficult problem, making a small holding pay and succeed?—And starting them under most favourable conditions.

92219. It hardly seems fair to the hard-working agricultural labourer?—No.

92220. (*Mrs. Bosanquet.*) Do you think there has been a tendency for the number of the unemployed to increase with the special provision that is made for them?—There have been many more men registered this year than last year.

92221. Do you think that has anything to do with the fact that work is provided for them in the winter months; are they less careful to look after themselves?—I think myself that it is a great deal the result of agitation. You can get men to register in very large numbers. I have no evidence of that; it is only my own opinion. I do not think myself the number of men who register in a district is any real criterion of the amount of distress or unemployment existing in that district.

92222. Would all the registered cases be enquired into?—No, I do not think in any part of London that has been done, because the amount of work which has been available to be given has been so very small that it has been felt this year that it is a great shame to take up the characters of men, and to trouble employers about men when there is really no prospect whatever of getting them work.

92223. If one watches the question for a whole ten years in London, say, one hears of enormously increased numbers of unemployed every winter; do you think that represents a real increase?—I do not know that I can say.

92224. About this State scheme of work, do you anticipate that it should be put in hand, say, if there was a specially hard frost or only if there was some crisis like the cotton famine?—I believe that those in authority ought to decide that, but if anything is to be done for the unemployed, then I think if we did what I suggest in Paragraph 40 we should be doing something less harmful than we are doing now.

92225. That would touch the genuine unemployed; it would not touch the ordinary casual odd-job man about London, the half capable man, of whom there are so many?—If that man did go there and train to work regularly instead of only working two or three days a week, it would be doing something which would be a gain; it would be sending him back more fit to earn a living than before.

92226. Do you anticipate they would really go?—No, I do not.

92227. Then they and their families still remain to be dealt with. I think you said you did not want the Poor Law to be the authority to deal with unemployment. Do you mean you would not have the Poor Law deal with this residuum class?—I thought the question meant to refer to labour colonies, relief works and such like.

92228. Supposing it was thought desirable for this half-working class that they should go to a sort of semi-penal colony, a detention colony, do you see any objection to that being under the Poor Law?—No, I should like to have the penal labour colony under the Poor Law, with power of detention.

92229. And even perhaps a colony in which there might be training with detention, without being actually penal?—I do not see how you can really make it training, unless you have power of detention, because a man could leave any moment he did not like the training, which must necessarily be a little severe.

92230. (*Chairman.*) I think we generally use the word "penal," and Mrs. Bosanquet has so used it, in the sense that it would be a colony where the conditions are harder than those of the farm colony to which people are sent.

Mrs. Dunn Gardner.

28 Jan. 1903.

92231. (*Mrs. Bosanquet.*) One connects the word penal with crime?—I do not want to do that at all.

92232. (*Chairman.*) You mean simply a colony where there is power of detention?—Yes.

92233. (*Mrs. Bosanquet.*) We have had a great deal of evidence about boys between fourteen and sixteen, or fourteen and eighteen, and on leaving school, how they drift into this irregular life, have you any suggestion to offer with regard to them?—We have only been considering them lately in connection with the employment exchanges, and I am inclined to think that under present conditions they ought not to be dealt with by the employment exchanges as at present constituted, because the employment exchange is an open market for labour, where the employer and the employed are brought together, and I do not think that a child just leaving school ought, without advice, to be left to make his own arrangement with the employer. He has no experience to guide him in the bargain which he makes.

Boy labour and labour exchanges.

92234. Can you suggest any other way of helping them into good work?—I think the skilled employment societies which are being started throughout London really do not deal with more than the very fringe of the subject. They deal with so very few trades and so very few children. There are several plans that one might suggest, that the employment exchanges might be given special power for dealing with children between the age of fourteen and sixteen, and then they could enquire into the school history of the child. For that it would be necessary to attach a Juvenile Advisory Committee to each exchange. I do not know whether that could be arranged. Or there might be after-care school managers for all the schools, in the same way that there are after-care School Managers for the children in the special schools of the London County Council.

Skilled employment societies.

Children and employment exchanges.

92235. (*Mr. Chandler.*) You state in Paragraph 2 that you can recall no case where unemployment alone had brought into the workhouse a man of really good character, who was able and also willing to work. Did you find in your experience on the distress committee that a different class of men altogether came before you than you had been in the habit of meeting at the workhouse?—Many of them seemed to be just the same class of men, but to have managed to keep out of the workhouse; they were a little more independent, or something had happened to prevent them coming into the workhouse.

Applicants to distress committee and Poor Law compared.

92236. I notice you had before you quite a number who had had fairly long service in their last situations?—Yes.

92237. In Paragraph 40 you make a suggestion that if at any time it is decided that trade is so depressed as to require special State aid, you advise that work should be taken in hand. Have you in your mind simply the State taking it up at certain periods, or do you contemplate the establishment by the State of some system such as you advocate now?—Only taking it up in times of quite exceptional depression. I was not suggesting any permanent provision of work.

National works.

92238. (*Mr. Phelps.*) What proportion of the time and attention of the central body which dealt with this Act was taken up by the case of unemployed women? Did it figure very largely?—One committee, which consists of, I think, six members only, deals with that question.

Women's relief work.

92239. The impression left on your mind was that the problem was a much smaller one with regard to women than men?—The number of those registering is very much smaller.

92240. How do you account for that?—I never have been able to account for it; I do not know. In Chelsea for instance, I believe only two women have registered this year.

92241. Is it when women have to work they bestir themselves and find work?—I do not know.

Mrs. Dunn
Gardner.

28 Jan. 1908.

Reliance of
men on
wives' work.

92242. Do you find in your experience going about in London, that there is an increased tendency on the part of the married men to rely on their wives' work?—There is a very great tendency, whether it is an increased tendency or not, I do not know.

92243. You have noticed it in fact?—Very much so indeed.

92244. Both on their wives and children?—Yes.

92245. Can you give any explanation of it?—No.

Hollesley
Bay.

92246. Then you say with regard to labour colonies, that they ought to train people in agriculture, and should have persons who understand agricultural work to train them?—Hollesley Bay is the only colony under the Central Unemployed Body where such training could be given.

92247. Supposing the labour colonies became more general I mean?—Why do you select agricultural work?—I do not think I do put agricultural work as the work for which they ought to be fitted.

Agricultural
work in
labour
colonies.

92248. Supposing we had a large number of labour colonies, that the principle was adopted that every county should have its own colony, would you be inclined to make them agricultural?—I think agricultural work would have to come into the system of training, but I am quite sure you would require other trades as well, because agriculture does not last all the year round for one thing, and on many days you are unable to do any agricultural work.

Reproduction
of local
industrial
life in
labour
colonies.

92249. You say that the West Riding of Yorkshire if it had a labour colony, should reproduce the features of industrial life in the West Riding. As far as I understand, that does raise great difficulties, does it not?—Yes, but I do not see necessarily why they should reproduce the life round it; the man having failed in that life, perhaps it would be better to teach him something fresh; he might be more wanted in that.

92250. How far away would you go for that? Would you make a man who had failed in spinning, a weaver, and keep him to the manufacturing employ?—I do not know anything about the weaving trade. I do not know whether that is a trade you could easily have in a colony.

92251. The difficulty is that they require an immense amount of capital, and so forth?—Then I should think it was an unsuitable trade to have in a labour colony.

Trades in
labour
colonies.

92252. Any industry except agriculture almost does?—Boot making, tailoring, and that kind of thing, does not require any great expenditure.

92253. It would be difficult to start a labour colony with a boot-making and tailoring industry?—I think if you have a colony, you must have also some things to do in the evenings, and on wet days.

92254. A colony should be self-supporting in that sense. They should make their own boots and clothes, as far as possible?—That might be one way of doing it, though I do not think it is necessary. I should like to see that done, but there might be other possibly better trades.

92255. Do you think public opinion would support a scheme for turning out some commodity, such as boots and clothes, and selling them in the open market?—I should think not.

Effect of
training
in labour
colony.

92256. In a place like Hollesley Bay, where agriculture is the staple industry, what is your view with regard to the future of the men. Are you in favour of emigration?—I do not think that sixteen weeks' training will change a man and make him, if he is a London person, into a countryman, or into anything different to what he was before.

92257. Supposing you could keep him there three years, at the end of the three years, what would be your hope for him?—I think you must consider the man a little. The man is not a fixed quantity, but if he was a man who cared for the country, I think that with three years training you could make him fit to take a situation in the country as a gardener and so forth.

92258. At the end of the three years you would practically set him to get his own living?—Yes.

Afforestation.

92259. I see you speak of afforestation. Should you be prepared to see any such system of afforestation, into the service of which he could be drafted?—I had not thought of that, but it seems to be quite a good plan.

92260. With regard to the workhouses and workhouse employment, do you think that that employment on in work—the whole should be deterrent in its character?—I think house. if the dietary and the accommodation is deterrent, that the employment need not be so.

92261. Do you think the employment ought to be Workhou educational?—I do not think myself you could make cannot be the workhouse an educational place. If by the work-made edu house you include the colony, which might be attached tional. to the workhouse, then I do think so certainly, but I do not think the workhouse can be a place where you could educate people, and turn them out better than they are when they come to you.

92262. That is really the result of your experience?—Yes.

92263. Have you any experience of introducing the Teaching system of teaching into workhouses, and having in- in work- structors for the able-bodied?—I have read about it house. at Whitechapel, but that is the only place where I have heard of it being done.

92264. You have never tried?—No, I am glad to say we have not a sufficient number to justify us in doing such a thing.

92265. You think on the whole that the life in the London workhouse acts as a deterrent?—No, I think Workhou life not it is ceasing to act as a deterrent very much. deterrent.

92266. Why?—Are you speaking of the young or the old?

92267. We will take the old first?—I think the great factor which is making it cease to be deterrent is that so very much more leave is allowed than used to be allowed. They can go out and see their friends practically as much as they please now.

92268. You think the restriction of liberty is the great deterrent, and that the relaxing of that makes the Restriction of liberty a workhouse much more popular?—Yes. deterrent.

92269. Are they, for instance, allowed to go out not in workhouse clothes?—The superior ones are given a different sort of clothes, not uniform clothes, to go out in.

92270. They go out in clothes belonging to the workhouse?—Yes.

92271. Do you think the changes in the dietary have Dietary. made much difference in the popularity of the workhouse?—They have in expense, but I do not think that has been a factor which has made it more popular.

92272. When you visit amongst the poor outside the workhouse, should you say that you had detected an alteration in their tone and their attitude with regard to it?—I cannot think of any instance which would help me to answer that question.

92273. Not people who have looked forward without any great reluctance to going into the workhouse?—I cannot recall at this moment any case.

92274. With regard to young people, do you think it Workhouse has ceased to be a deterrent to young people?—I have not deterrent never known the workhouse to be in any sense a horror to young to the young people. They have always seemed to people. adapt themselves so very much to circumstances that they will adapt themselves to the workhouse quite cheerily.

92275. In England as a whole the number of able-bodied in the workhouse is very small indeed?—Yes. Able-bodied paupers.

92276. In the country workhouses you will hardly find anybody who is what you would call able-bodied?—That is so.

92277. But you think in London it is different?—I notice in London there are many young people who could be got out.

92278. In cases which you met in that way, do you think much is due to the surroundings, and the way the children have been brought up?—A great deal, and I think a great deal is due to this: a very large proportion of these people, I believe, are semi-feeble-minded, and therefore very much more consideration is due to them before you can get them started in life. They may have had a fair start once and have failed, and that has been put down to wickedness on their part, whereas it is really a lack of mental ability.

92279. Inherited weakness? — Mental weakness—whether inherited or not I do not know.

92280. In that connection, would you be disposed to enlarge the powers of the guardians in the way of adopting children?—I think they are large enough without adopting children. I should like them to be given power over children after they are sixteen; over, for instance, feeble-minded young women who come to the workhouse with babies. I should like to have power to detain them, not in the workhouse, but to place them in a suitable institution.

92281. With regard to children who have been brought up by your board, have you an after-care committee which looks after them?—In London the M.A.B.Y.S. looks after all the girls.

92282. They all go to service?—Yes.

92283. And they are all looked after by the M.A.B.Y.S.?—Yes.

92284. And the boys?—Well, the Boys Befriending Society, I suppose, looks after them. There is only one union in London where I know of a proper organisation for looking after the boys and that is in Southwark; it is called the Southwark Boys' Aid Association.

92285. (*Chairman.*) Do you know anything about the Jews Boy Brigade?—No.

92286. (*Mr. Phelps.*) As to the labour colonies, do you think that it is possible for a labour colony to make the employment really deterrent to prevent the people coming constantly back again, preferring rather to be there than to be on their own feet in the world?—I think that if they were given some encouragement to get a start, and that after they were started they did not avail themselves of the start, then it might be made more difficult for them to get that encouragement again. I suppose very much of the encouragement would be to give them better dietary, and on their second return it might be very much longer before they got that.

92287. I understand encouragement, and we are all agreed with that, but do you think that with an elected board, in short with the general tendency of modern democracy, you could really get discipline insisted on in a labour colony?—I would not suggest having it under an elected board myself.

92288. You would have it under a department of the Local Government Board or the State?—I would have experts to manage it.

92289. They must be responsible to someone?—Yes.

92290. You would have it really controlled by the central government?—Yes.

92291. And not by the board of guardians or the local government?—I have not thought that out very much.

92292. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) As to the able-bodied men that you have had to deal with or the supposed able-bodied men, there is a very small percentage that would be able-bodied in the ordinary sense, is there not?—There are very few of them who would be both able-minded and able-bodied.

92293. That is what I mean, he has either a mental, moral or physical defect in his way?—Yes.

92294. Do you not think the classification of "able-bodied" wants changing, I mean another word substituted. For instance, people say in London there are so many thousand able-bodied men chargeable, but, when you come to examine them, or put a doctor over them, you find that the number is reduced very considerably?—Yes, I think the term is very misleading.

92295. As far as the workhouses, even in London, are concerned, the number is very much smaller in proportion to the population than ever it was?—A doctor does not look over the people outside the workhouse and tell us whether they are really able-bodied or not. I think a number of persons who are earning their living if gone over by a doctor would be found not to be able-bodied.

92296. You get a man in and you have to deal with him, and we can only deal with the things we do know something about, and as to the outcry about the able-bodied men in the workhouse, the point I want to make is that "able-bodied" is the wrong term to use to the bulk of them?—I agree to that quite.

92297. Of course, you can make a workhouse so deterrent that anyone would rather die than go into it?—I do not think you can under the regulations of the Local Government Board.

92298. You can reduce the dietary?—Not below a certain point.

92299. You can be very strict in the administration, your officials can be pigs to the people?—I have never had any experience of that.

92300. You can restrict the leave, cannot you?—Yes; you could restrict the leave.

92301. And you can restrict the visiting?—Yes.

92302. You know, if you want to make it really deterrent, you have means at your disposal to put down pauperism altogether?—I thought you were speaking of the able-bodied.

92303. No, I am speaking of the old people just now?—I do not think under the present regulations you could make the House so deterrent that no one would come into it.

92304. But you can restrict visiting?—Yes.

92305. And you can restrict people going out?—It is only quite lately that this large amount of leave has been allowed, and certainly the workhouses were not absolutely empty before then.

92306. No, but you have just said in answer to Mr. Phelps that they are not so deterrent as they used to be?—I do not think they are.

92307. I only suggest to you that you might go a little further and make them so deterrent that nobody would come in. Society has to choose whether it ought to take care of these people or not?—I cannot imagine any regulations which one could legally make which would make the workhouse so deterrent that nobody would come in.

92308. It has been known that people have died rather than go in, has not it?—It has been known that people die, but whether that was rather than go in, I do not know.

92309. We have the returns of starvation, have not we?—I think very few of them have had orders given them for the workhouse. I do not recall any such case in any district in which I have worked.

92310. I only suggest that you read the return of people starving, then I think you will find some of them have?—I do read it.

92311. Another thing is, if it is known that the only thing they will get offered them is the House, and the House is a deterrent, that is a reason why they would not apply, of course?—It might be.

92312. It is not necessary to say to a person: We are going to treat you very badly; it may get out as to the conditions of such a place that the discipline is so strict, and the regulations are so strict, that self-respecting persons would not submit themselves to it, and therefore they do not apply and die of pneumonia accelerated by want of food and that kind of thing that you read of?—Your picture seems to be quite a fancy one; it does not in the least represent any workhouse that I have visited.

92313. I only suggest again that you read the return; that is what most of them die of?—I mean to say your picture of a workhouse.

92314. I am on the point of deterrence. I want to get from you whether you think we ought to make the workhouse deterrent so that people should not come?—I do not think we ought to make the workhouse so deterrent that the old people who have no place to live outside should not come there. I certainly think they ought to come there, and we ought to make their lives fairly comfortable if we get them.

92315. Then we must not grumble if they come, must we?—If it is necessary for them to come I should not grumble if they did come.

92316. And if we have a decent comfortable home we should have more. If we make the conditions comfortable for the old people they will come in larger numbers than if we make it uncomfortable for them.—"Comfortable" is such a very wide term, is it not?

Mrs. Dunn
Gardner.

28 Jan. 1908.

Workhouse
as deterrent.

Workhouses
less deterrent
than
formerly.

Starvation
cases.

Workhouses
—degree of
comfort.

Mrs. Dunn Gardner. 92317. We will use it in the ordinary sense that people understand, comfortable as you or I understand comfort? —I do not think you ought to make your workhouses comfortable in the sense that I should understand comfortable. I disagree to that.

28 Jan. 1908.

Dependence of husbands on labour of wives.

92318. Then as to the number of men who live on women's labour, do you not think that the reason there are so many more women at work to-day is because of the enormous extension of industries amongst women; occupations for women?—I do not know that from my own knowledge at all. I only know, for instance, the number of scrubbers in the infirmaries or workhouses who are keeping their husbands, who I do not think ought to be working there.

92319. Who are able-bodied men?—Yes.

Women's work.

92320. But still it is true that there are more openings for women's work to-day than formerly?—Yes; just the same as I suppose there are more occupations for men, that trade is getting more varied.

92321. But women have entered more into the industrial life than formerly, surely?—I think they have.

92322. As to the reason why women do not apply to the distress committees, large numbers of women who might otherwise have to apply to the distress committees get parish relief, do they not?—Not in Chelsea, because there is quite a small number of young women with children who are getting parish relief.

Outdoor relief.

92323. Chelsea may be exceptional; but it is the fact, is it not, that the bulk of out-relief in London is to widows and children, and to aged people?—To aged people. I should not have thought the bulk went to widows and children.

92324. But it goes to those two classes, surely?—Yes, those two classes.

92325. Able-bodied men are ruled out, except when they are sick?—Yes.

92326. Therefore if the women, many of whom say they come up because they are out of work, went to the distress committees and got employment, they would be taken off the rates in certain seasons, would they not?—They would be ineligible because they would have had relief.

Women's relief work.

92327. If they had come to you before they had got relief, if it had been known. Do you not think, if it was as well known that a woman who was out of work, if she applied to the distress committee, could get work, more would have applied?—It was made known in the same way by posters; and also the hours of registration of women were made different to those of men, so that women might not be deterred from coming there by there being a crowd of men about the office; but it did not seem to make any difference.

92328. It is the fact that very little was bothered about women by the central body till quite lately?—Nobody seemed to take much interest in the women's work certainly, during the first year hardly anything was done.

92329. It was only last year that you got the work-rooms under weigh at all, was it not?—The first work-room was opened in May, 1906, the three were opened by the end of September, 1906.

92330. So it is possible that women did not see the small posters that we put up?—The same publicity was given in the parts I know to the women applying as was given to the men applying.

92331. You would not say that was true of all London?—I do not know that; I could not answer.

Garden City and Fambridge—management.

92332. Now about Garden City and Fambridge. You were on the Garden City Committee, were you not?—Yes, and the Fambridge Committee, too.

92333. There was no reason why you should not have made any suggestions you pleased there, was there, towards getting things done differently? This is a very bad picture you paint here in these paragraphs?—Yes.

92334. There was yourself, and I think it was two other people who were members of that committee?—Is it wise to go into questions which we have already discussed?

92335. You have made statements reflecting on some- Garden body. I only suggest it reflects on you. You were City and one of the executive committee?—Quite so. Fambridge —manage- ment.

92336. You were really part of the visiting committee of that colony?—I made various suggestions, I think.

92337. Your suggestions as a rule were carried out. I suggest that you give us the suggestions now?—I did make various proposals on various colony work.

92338. I am talking of Garden City, which is the one that you severely criticise in Paragraph 20, and which you and Mr. Beveridge were more or less responsible for.—The proposals which I had made on Fambridge and Hollesley Bay were so met that I did not think it would serve any practical purpose for me to make any proposals on Garden City.

(*Note by Witness:* I ceased to be a member of the Working Colonies Committee of the Central Unemployed Body in October, 1907).

92339. I suggest that you should tell us if you ever proposed that there should be a separate person to superintend indoors?—I think myself it is inadvisable to bring forward these matters, but I will do it if you wish. As to that about the men having no place in which to put anything away, I had made no proposal about that, because when I had been going over Hollesley Bay, I said to Mr. Smart it seemed to me very uncomfortable for the men to have no cupboard or anywhere where they could put any of their things, and I thought they would be much more comfortable if they had some place where they could put away their things. He said "We lose quite enough things already," and meant if there was any place where things could be put away that more things might be stolen.

92340. I am only suggesting to you that that is Hollesley Bay.—We are dealing with the same class of men, and of my having made the suggestion.

92341. Your Paragraph 20 is the paragraph I object to.—I was dealing with the last two lines of Paragraph 20.

92342. The whole tone of Paragraph 20 is, I suggest to you, a reflection on the committee whom the colonies committee entrusted with the care of that place.—The serving of the meals, as I suggest, might have been better done.

92343. Was not that in your hands entirely?—I do not think so.

92344. Surely if a committee in London ask certain people to visit a colony such a thing as serving the meals in a decent way is a thing they ought to have controlled?—I am quite willing to accept my share of the responsibility.

92345. On the question of serving meals have you seen contractors' men on such a job as Garden City getting their meals?—I have not.

92346. Have you seen the mess-room of an ordinary railway contractor?—I have seen no contractors' men getting meals.

92347. I understand you wanted these men treated as ordinary contractors would treat them?—I do not think I said that.

92348. I thought you wanted them treated in the ordinary normal condition as they would be if they were working for a railway contractor?—That is what I suggest should be done in the future.

92349. Then I am asking you if you know anything about the conditions. You were cutting a railway siding at Garden City, were you not?—Yes, and we were, I thought, attempting to train the men to be more fit at the end of their sixteen weeks to earn their living than they had been before.

92350. Was any question of training involved at Garden City, except keeping the men in health?—No training was given.

92351. Can you tell me anywhere where the colonies committee or the central unemployed body laid it down that they were training men at Garden City for any particular piece of work, except keeping body and soul together?—It was suggested that Evening Classes and Lectures, and such things, might be done.

City 92352. That was to occupy their leisure.—Yes, which, I think, would have had a training effect.

92353. That is not the point. The difference between Garden City and Hollesley Bay is that Garden City was to do a specific piece of work, after which the men would come back to London, and Hollesley Bay was definitely a training place. I am putting to you that Garden City being a contract piece of work which was undertaken by the central body for the Garden City Company, under your scheme the conditions would have been the ordinary contractor's conditions. I want to know if you know anything about ordinary contractors' conditions for housing men away from home and allowing them means of getting their food, and the rest of it?—I do not. I do not think that the charitable manager of relief works ought to intervene at all between the contractor and the men.

92354. Very well. I suggest to you that even your Paragraph 20 would not be a bad description of the ordinary contractor's arrangements for serving food, and for living accommodation, and the rest of it.—But Paragraph 20 describes a state of things which was enormously expensive, whereas an ordinary contractor's work would be only paid for on the ordinary rates.

92355. What was enormously expensive?—The work at Garden City. I have the figures.

92356. You need not get the figures?—I should rather like to.

92357. Are you aware whether the building and the whole of the accommodation was not put on foot by an experienced official of the Local Government Board, together with the chairman of the Jewish Board of Guardians, and Mr. Scotland, the contractor's foreman, who was employed originally to superintend that work?—That, I believe, happened in the previous year, not under the Unemployed Workmen Act at all.

92358. They were the same buildings?—But when you have wooden bunks occupied by this kind of men I think that the bunks do not keep clean. There was eventually a disinfecting chamber started at the place, and it was started because it was found impossible to house the bedding and put it away. We had not even been told that the bunks were practically alive with insects until the question of housing the bedding was brought up.

92359. But the wooden bunks and the rest of it are the kind of things that an ordinary contractor would supply his men with?—Then I think it is rather rare that he would use it for two or three years, as it was at Garden City.

92360. Some railway jobs last two years, and a water reservoir would last more than two years?—And they sleep in wooden bunks which are not cleansed?

92361. They are probably cleansed. I only suggest again to you that if they were not cleansed it was the fault of the visiting committee of whom you were one?—It was the fault of the visiting committee having to be composed of persons like myself without previous experience of such things. I am learning them at great expense to the community. I knew none of them when I started.

92362. With regard to Fambridge, I notice you saying in Paragraph 30: "They, in their ignorance have done their best, and are slowly learning their experience at the expense of the London ratepayers and the national exchequer"?—Yes.

92363. Is it the fact that the whole of the work at Fambridge was carried out under the supervision of an expert?—It was the intention of the committee that it should be done. Whether it was done or not, I think there is a difference of opinion upon.

92364. Whether it was done according to the expert?—Whether he sufficiently supervised.

92365. The point is, did the London ratepayers pay for an expert?—Yes, they did.

92366. Then the ignorance of the committee did not matter?—I think if the committee had been more experienced they might have made a better arrangement with their expert.

Mrs. Dunn
Gardner.

28 Jan. 1908.

92367. As to the casual labourers, who, according to you, are the bulk of the people who get employment, are not they as a rule men who are permanently employed, only at a variety of jobs?—Not in my experience. The ones I have known are those who have been much more out of work than in work.

Class of men
relieved
under
Unemployed
Workmen
Act.

92368. I understood you to say that a large number of men's cases were not inquired into at all?—Yes.

92369. Would you say that the men for whom work was found were on the whole not men of good character and respectable?—I should not say that. I should say they were not men who were exceptionally unemployed; they were men who were chronically unemployed, the large bulk of them.

92370. You think that that class of men ought not to be assisted?—I think they ought not to be assisted under the Act, which was passed for the benefit of those who are usually regularly employed and are only out of work owing to exceptional circumstances over which they have no control.

92371. Might not the casual labourer whose work is more or less regular be out of work for a long period because trade is very bad?—I should think that is possible.

92372. Is it not the fact that the Stepney Committee really was the committee which brought about the definition of things, that a casual labourer was eligible under this Act because he had more or less regular employment, although with different employers?—I do not remember that.

92373. Do you think that the men are getting worse each year?—I think the class of applicants is getting better.

92374. So we really have not injured the men; although they are the same men that have come up again, they do better service?—We are not allowed to have men more than two years running.

Effect of
Unemployed
Workmen
Act.
Recurrent
cases.

92375. I understood just now the argument was that we got the same people year after year?—That would be impossible.

92376. This table in Paragraph 15 surely is to show that those who were assisted re-applied, and they re-applied because they were assisted. We cannot have it both ways. The man cannot get work more than two years running if he applies?—Up till now he has been able to get it for three years, because Mr. Long's scheme did not come in under the Act.

92377. But the Act says he shall only have it for two years?—Yes.

92378. So that the Act provides for that danger?—Yes. The object of that table was to show that the work which was given had not made the men more able to support themselves.

92379. Might not that be because there was not any other work for them to go to?—A larger proportion of those who had been assisted re-applied than those who had not been assisted.

92380. The Chairman put it to you, so I do not want to pursue it, that that might be because they thought it was not worth while applying?—Yes.

92381. You said just now a larger number had applied this year?—Yes.

Increased
number of
applicants.

92382. Would you say trade was as good this year and the condition of work in London was as good this year as last?—I do not know enough about it to make a comparison.

92383. You cannot give any real reason why it should be more this year?—No, I could not.

Mrs. Dunn
Gardner.

28 Jan. 1908

National
works—
wage below
standard
rate.

Hollesley
Bay—
advertise-
ments for
employment.

Working of
Unemployed
Act in third
year.

Difficulty
of obtaining
work.

92384. If a contractor takes on the work under your scheme, why should the labour be lower if the man goes and is employed under normal conditions, and the work is useful work?—Because the work would only be undertaken for the benefit of the men, not because it was wanted at that time. Therefore it would be for the good of the man and the community that he should go back to the work he should be doing when there is an opening in that work.

92385. If this is to be work of public utility, and you do not believe in made work, would not that lower the whole standard of wages?—I do not think so.

92386. You think the working classes ought, because of industrial depression, to carry out public improvements at less than the standard rate of wages merely so that they can live?—Yes.

92387. One other thing about Hollesley Bay and the advertising for other employment. I understand you to say that has only been done just lately?—It is only just quite lately that there has been any systematic effort to do it.

92388. I suppose you are aware that it has been done at the end of each season since Mr. Long's scheme?—I do not think it has been done on any large scale at all, from what I have heard.

92389. Do you really know?—I know what you have told me.

92390. Do you know of your own knowledge what newspapers have been advertised in?—You told us in committee one day how many and what their names were, I believe.

92391. Are you aware whether any more than that has been done now?—I am aware that a number of names of newspapers were taken down and sent down to Hollesley Bay, and a number of situations were found. Whether it was the result of taking down those names or from advertising in those newspapers I could not tell you.

92392. I suppose you are aware that the bulk of the people have gone into Cornwall and Devon?—Yes, because the south of England was at that meeting specially recommended.

92393. I suppose you are aware that of the men that have been placed the bulk have been placed by the mayor of Helston, and not by the body at all; it was a local gentleman who interested himself in the matter?—That has not been reported to the body, I think.

92394. (*The Bishop of Ross.*) It is some months since you wrote this statement, I believe?—Yes.

92395. I think you make reference more than once to later evidence and later statistics?—May I say something about the third year's working of the Act? My Statement was written in September, and since then I have seen the third year's working of the Act, which I had not done then, and several points have come out I think on that which rather emphasise what I had said before. One is that the idea that the Act is only intended to benefit those who are temporarily unemployed has more and more fallen into abeyance. Many of the distress committees have objected to the clause as to not being able to employ the men more than two years running, and have asked to be allowed to employ them year after year, and not to disqualify them because they have had two years' help. Then the difficulty of getting work has been more emphasised this year, I think, than ever before. This year there has been no outside work; the work outside London has not been taken on at all, not because it has not been looked for, because it has been looked for most carefully, but because no schemes have come up which it seemed possible to adopt.

92396. (*Chairman.*) By work, what do you mean?—Work like Fambridge or Garden City.

92397. Not ordinary work, but work proposed to the committee?—Yes, and not one scheme has been able to be adopted. There has been another scheme suggested for the reclamation of more land near Fambridge, but that has not so far been adopted, and no scheme at all has been taken up. Then, previously, schemes which in the ordinary way would have been paid for out of the

rates have been refused by the central body; but this Working of year those schemes have been accepted by the central Unemployed body. There was a scheme for paving at Camberwell which was refused last year on the ground that it was a scheme which would be paid for out of the rates in the ordinary way. This year it has been accepted. Then a scheme has been accepted, though it is not going to be carried out, of building a reservoir for a workhouse, which seems a thing which in the ordinary way would be carried out by the rates. Another scheme for improving a profit-earning cemetery has been accepted, and is going to be carried out. Then about the women's workroom, the disposal of the output has become a much more urgent difficulty than it was before. Hitherto it has been disposed of as outfits for emigrants; but this year they have already made as much clothing for the emigrants as the emigration committee say they can use during the year, and there is no outlet possible for the disposal of the garments which are being made in the three workrooms. At the last meeting of the unemployed body it was settled that arrangements should be tried to be made for giving away the clothes made in the women's workroom because they could not be disposed of otherwise. It is not settled they should be given away, because no plan was made; but that was the idea. Then another point is that it seems to come out more clearly how impossible it is to prevent the work of the unemployed from competing with and lessening the work of the ordinary workman. We have now at work in the Royal and County Council parks, or shall have next Monday, 1,800 men. I think it is perfectly clear that there cannot be as much work left in the parks for men who have hitherto been employed in the ordinary way working in those parks. Another point is that on the question of wages, Section (f) of Article 5, which says that the wages paid shall be less than would have been earned in continuous work by an unemployed workman, seems to have been quite given up this year. Hitherto very little skilled work has been paid for; but it has now been accepted, I believe, with the full approval of the Local Government Board, that skilled work is in future to be paid for at the ordinary rate of wages.

92398. What does "skilled work" mean?—It means Alexandra painting, masons' work, bricklaying and tiling. Some Palace work is being done at the Alexandra Palace which will take all those in, and the provision as to the wages to be paid has been absolutely altered; and as far as I can see it is not to be thought of any more. From Woolwich we had a suggestion that the whole scale of payment should be reconsidered, and suggesting, though it did not absolutely insist upon it, that 30s. should be the lowest wages. Rates of paid to any unskilled workman. At Kensington, where the question of tree-planting came on, and they were told that their unemployed men were to be paid 21s., they at once remonstrated and said it could not be done; they could not pay such wages. I think those are the new points.

92399. (*Bishop of Ross.*) You said the number of applications this year was greater than last?—Yes.

92400. Have you any record of the number so far? I am afraid I did not bring them. I thought you had those.

92401. (*Chairman.*) What you have just said rather emphasises your evidence that in your opinion, if this Unemployed question is to be dealt with thoroughly, it must be dealt Workmen with by a general scheme and by the Government?—Act. Yes; of course, I think that by dealing with it as we are doing now we are doing harm and not good. I have here a bound book of all the reports of the distress committees; may I read this very short paragraph to show you what I do mean about the harm we are doing? It is from Bermondsey, which is not a committee which is run on very strict lines, I think. They say: "We are obliged, however, to repeat the statement of last year, namely, that as the distress in this district arises from a permanent excess of unskilled labour over the demand the men on completing their terms of employment find their local labour a drug in the market just as it was before." It seems to me that anything we do to keep this large amount of unskilled labour, which is not in demand, in this district, must do harm, and not good.

The Rev.
J. H.
Anderson.

28 Jan. 1908.

The Rev. JOHN HENDRY ANDERSON, called ; and Examined.

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ss.

92402. (Chairman.) You are Rector of Tooting ?—I am.

92403. You were Chairman of the Works Committee of the Unemployed Fund of 1904-5 ; and you have since been Chairman of the Works Committee under the Unemployed Workmen Act ?—That is so.

92404. You have prepared a Statement, which we will treat as your evidence-in chief if you will kindly hand it in ?—Certainly. (The Witness handed in the following Statement.)

1. I was appointed Chairman of the Works Committee of the London Unemployed Fund in 1904, and to the

same position under the Central Unemployed Body in 1905 ; and I have been re-elected Chairman annually, and am at the present date still Chairman of the Works Committee.

2. The Works Committee deals with schemes of work of a non-colony character arising out of correspondence with the London County Council, the Borough Councils, other Metropolitan Authorities and Government Departments, and it becomes the duty of the Works Committee to carry out such schemes as may be adopted by the Central Unemployed Body.

3. In the winter of 1904-5 the London Unemployed Fund carried out the following schemes of work :—

Works
Committee
of central
body.

Works
carried out.

Authority Providing.	Place.	Work.	Number of Men.	Average Number of Weeks' Work per Man.
Asylums Committee of L.C.C. - -	Long Grove - -	Ground work -	1,208 - - -	8½ Weeks.
London County Council - - -	L.C.C. Parks -	„ -	692 - - -	7½ „
H.M. Office of Works - - - -	Green Park - -	„ -	336 - - -	7 „
City Corporation - - - - -	City Markets -	Painting - -	133 - - -	10 „

4. In the winter of 1905-6 my Committee carried out the following schemes of work :—

Authority Providing.	Place.	Work.	Number of Men.	Average Number of Weeks' Work per Man.
City Corporation - - - - -	Chingford - -	Making cricket ground.	382	8·0
London County Council - -	Long Grove - -	Ground work -	510	7·0
Do. - - - - -	Parks - - - -	Do. -	2,020	4·36
H.M. Office of Works - - - -	Royal Parks - -	Do. -	308	6·0
Wandsworth Borough Council - -	Tooting Common -	Making bathing lake.	312	9·1
Battersea Borough Council - - -	Battersea - - -	Laying out recreation ground.	117	9·0
Bermondsey Borough Council - -	St. Mary's Church-yard.	Laying out as open space.	40	5·5
Camberwell Borough Council - -	One Tree Hill -	Do.	100	8·0
Fulham Borough Council - - -	New Cemetery -	Laying out - -	187	12·0
Islington Borough Council - - -	Finchley Cemetery	Draining - -	13	6·5
Shoreditch Borough Council - - -	Churchyard - -	Laying out as open space.	23	5·0
St. Pancras Borough Council - -	Highgate Road -	Widening - -	36	10·0
Do. - - - - -	Camden Road -	Reducing gradient		
Wandsworth Borough Council - -	Garrett Green -	Levelling - -	36	4·0
Do. - - - - -	Kingston Road -	Piping - - -		
Do. - - - - -	Wimbledon Park -	Ditching - -		
Total men employed - -			4,084	

The Rev.
J. H.
Anderson.
28 Jan. 1908.

5. In the winter of 1906-7 my Committee carried out the following works :—

Authority Providing.	Place.	Work.	Number of Men.	Average Number of Weeks' Work per Man.
London County Council- - -	Parks - - -	Ground work- -	2,022	7·7
Do. - - -	Abbey Mills - -	Banking river -	21	4·47
Do. - - -	Wandle River -	Cleaning river -	33	4·0
H.M. Office of Works - - -	Hyde Park - -	Ground work -	96	5·2
Do. - - -	Richmond Park -	Road widening -	136	5·4
Camberwell Borough Council - -	Brunswick Square-	Laying out Recrea- tion Grounds -	72	4·3
Total men employed - - -			2,380	

Rates
of pay.

6. *Rates of Pay.*—The rates of pay varied according to the nature of the work and the conditions obtaining under the authority for whom the work was done, from 20s. to 25s. per week. The latter sum was paid for exceptionally heavy work in 1905-6, the men being specially selected. As a general rule, a fixed rate of 6d. per hour for a day of 8 or 8½ hours, or of 4s. per day for a week of five days was the standard.

Conditions
of employ-
ment.

7. *Conditions of Employment* :—

(a) *L.C.C. and Royal Parks, etc.* :—

The conditions of employment, specimens of which are attached, covered generally the following heads :—

1. An 8 (or, in the later months, 8½) hours' day and a five days' week.
2. Rates of pay (varying as stated above).
3. Travelling expenses in excess of 2d. per day, where previously sanctioned by the Committee.
4. Time lost through bad weather (deducted as a rule).
5. Identification cards, properly filled and signed, and given up as and when arranged,
6. Arrangements for payment of wages, whether on works or at the Distress Committee Offices, etc.
7. Nature of work (in some cases).
8. Special rules of the authority for whom the work was done.

(b) *Borough Schemes* :—

The conditions of employment for borough schemes of work will be found in the attached specimen agreement form (see *App. No. VII.*). The main conditions are rigidly enforced. Small matters of detail were in special instances slightly varied to meet the exigencies of the particular case. Principles are unvarying.

Borough
schemes.

Character
of men
employed.

8. *Character of Men Employed.*—Generally it might be said that the standard of the men employed in 1905-6 was somewhat inferior to that of the men employed in 1904-5. But a great improvement was apparent in the results of the season 1905-6, when, with the experience of former years to guide those responsible for carrying out the work, better supervision was maintained and the standard of conduct and efficiency was accordingly raised.

The following extracts from (a) the Preliminary Report to May 12th, 1906, contrasting the men employed in 1905-6 with those of the previous season; and (b) the Report of the Superintendent of Works, Mr. W. W. Scotland, on the London County Council Parks Works of 1906-7 will fully bear this out :—

(a) Extract from Preliminary Report to May 12th, 1906 :—

Character of Men Employed.

“As the various parks schemes, taken together, represent the largest total of men employed on similar work, the evidence afforded by them as to the character and qualifications of the men selected may perhaps be

regarded as typical of the kind of men who were offered and accepted work comparatively near their own homes.

Character
of men
unemployed.

“The conclusion drawn from the first observation of the gangs was that physically the men selected were inferior to the first drafts of unemployed dealt with the previous year, and their general appearance and the character of their work seemed to suggest that in a large number of cases the apparent needs of the applicants, rather than their industrial records and qualifications, had been the basis of the selection. The tendency to assert a claim to a share of the Queen's Fund, irrespective of industry or output, also affected the quality of the work. The dismissal of the worst offenders had, however, a salutary effect, and a general improvement in conduct was afterwards maintained. But at no time was a high standard of ability obtainable or, indeed, expected.

“It is estimated as a result of constant observation that perhaps about 20 per cent. of the men employed may at one time have been efficient workmen. These could properly be classed as general labourers, who, having lost touch with regular employment, had become more and more casual in habit and aptitude. To these the work meant physical recuperation and a means of tiding over a time of trade depression. But to the majority who had had no previous experience of this kind of work the whole period of employment was an instructional course in the elements of field labour.”

(b) Report on the London County Council Parks Works, 24th September, 1907 :—

“The Superintendent of Works, Mr. W. W. Scotland, reports that the conduct and ability of the men employed were, on the whole, very good, considering that they were of all trades and descriptions, a good many never having done any work of the kind before.”

He also found that the majority of the men commencing were unable to do a fair day's work owing to weakness, and time had to be given them to pull themselves together; although several were discharged after the first few days, the foreman in charge being convinced that they were not genuine workmen. The others showed a great improvement as time went on both at their work and in their general appearance.

The work done was principally general ground work levelling, returfing, clearing out ponds and river beds; and, although it took longer to do, it was on completion as good as that done by skilled workmen.

9. *General Remarks* :—

(a) The men employed did not prove unworthy of assistance. Under adequate supervision 70 per cent. of the men arriving on the works quickly became able to maintain a standard very little inferior to that of ordinary workmen of their class, and on discharge were fit for labour under normal conditions.

Men
employed
not un-
worthy of
assistance.

It is well to note that only about 3 per cent. of the men employed have had to be forthwith discharged. In experience I find that approximately 25 per cent. leave for no real reason, 7 per cent. for either misconduct or laziness and unfitness, and 14 per cent. leave for other employment, and 54 per cent. leave owing to the work being completed.

(b) The work provided was insufficient to meet the demand. For the period from November, 1906, to April, 1907, nearly 30,000 men and women made application to the Distress Committees, 20,480 cases were investigated. I believe the necessity is greater than the demand. 3,571 (men and women) were provided with work, 841 were offered work, but did not accept for various reasons, nearly 2,000 cases (single men, married men, and families) were emigrated.

(c) While it is well that some investigation should be made so as to eliminate obviously undeserving and impossible cases, the fact that under the most advantageous circumstances a deserving case is not as a rule ready for assistance under the Act until several weeks from the date of application even in the season when some work is forthcoming must be considered unsatisfactory. The most effective test is to be had on the works and under the foreman's eye.

(d) The value of the men's work is not represented by the recoupment received. Over £17,500 was paid in wages alone in respect of L.C.C. Parks Works last year; £3,271 9s. 1d. was received from the L.C.C. as the "value of the work done." As the standard of the men engaged on this work, compared with ordinary labour, may be safely estimated at 75 per cent., the recoupment did not fairly represent its value but was obviously written down. H.M. Office of Works pay no recoupment at all.

(e) The amendment of the Act can only be by way of extension; there must be larger scope and fewer limitations to the obtaining of work. It is practically impossible under present conditions to obtain work of "public and substantial utility" from municipal authorities without in some way, directly or indirectly, "subsidising the rates."

(f) Increasing difficulty has been experienced by my Committee in obtaining winter by winter work of "public and substantial utility" (Art. V. 1a) without in a measure subsidising the ordinary work of the Borough Councils or other public authorities. By the foregoing schedules it will be seen that during the first season 4,084 men were employed on relief works in or around London, but in the second season (1906-7) only 2,380 men could be found employment, and this present season yet more difficulty is experienced in placing even a still small number of men.

(g) The machinery of the Central Unemployed Body is a cumbrous system for the employment of labour. When work comes men are not speedily got upon the job—works are generally run about 10 per cent. short; the administration of foremen is rendered difficult when every man on the job has his cause championed by a Distress Committee.

(h) The provision of a Government Department to deal with the question of unemployment is the only possible road to solution. Wherever exceptional works of a municipal character are insufficient, national works should supplement them.

(i) The able-bodied unemployed who are unwilling to work should be compelled to work, and legislative powers to secure this should be introduced. A clear distinction should be drawn between the three classes of unemployed—i.e. (1) Willing to work, and, under satisfactory conditions, physically fit; (2) Willing to work, but physically unable to reach the standard of fitness for heavy labour; and (3) Physically fit, but unwilling to work. Separate methods should be provided for dealing with each.

(j) The limitation of sixteen weeks for unemployed work is harmful. It involves the ultimate discharge of at least 50 per cent. of the men for whom the work has been provided, and who have been thereby temporarily rehabilitated and invigorated, back to idleness at the street corners. Our efforts lead to nothing. Four years' work show no permanent betterment.

(k) In estimating the quality of the men upon the work under my Committee, it is to be borne in mind that they have run the gauntlet of the local Distress Committee and of the Classification Committee of the Central (Unemployed) Body, and they are, therefore, presumably cases preferred on grounds of moral character, thrift, steadiness, claims of dependents. Industrial capacity is not such a factor in selection as it certainly is in discharge. From the point of view of industrial capacity, much of the investigation is worthless—incapables may get on, while capable men are kept off.

(l) Much of the work carried out by my Committee could be, and ought to be, done by the local authorities themselves by the direct employment of normal labour. During the winter of 1905-6 there was a great demoralising competition amongst local authorities to get from external sources funds for carrying out work which was properly chargeable to local rates and really obligatory upon the local authority.

92405. (Chairman.) The character of the men employed by your body seems to have varied; it went down a little and then went up again? Now I suppose it is practically much the same as it was at first, except that you see indications of improvement in the men taken on the second time?—Yes; but we are getting a fresh batch, which may possibly have a fresh character; those that are excluded by the two years system are now ruled out, and we have a very large body of sturdy malcontents who can get nothing on the one side and then we have a fresh invasion of new labourers on the other; and so the total magnitude of the unemployed is rather increased.

92406. Should you say that there are many of the class for whom the Act was ostensibly brought in, namely, persons in permanent employ temporarily out of employment?—I do.

92407. They are not casual labourers?—There are a great number of those men out of employment; some of them avail themselves of the privileges of the Act, but the majority of them will not look at the provisions of the Act.

92408. As I understand it, a great many of these persons who come up are persons who are habitually in casual employment?—I do not quite agree with that, in so far as it means that they are the casuals, as it were, but rather as it seems that the state of employment is such that they cannot get the labour which they desire, and which they are only too anxious to desire. Labour is casual, not the labourer.

92409. 20 per cent. are efficient workmen. I see you state 20 per cent. may at one time have been efficient workmen. The remaining 80 per cent., I suppose, would consequently be inferior workmen?—Yes, that is a fair inference.

92410. Apparently under supervision the majority of the men work well; I see about 70 per cent. apparently soon attained to a standard very little inferior to that of ordinary workmen?—That is so. I have been told by foremen when the works had been closed down that the men leaving were then physically fit and industrially fit for work in any contractor's yard on normal terms; they had been rehabilitated; they were very low when they started, and feeble; but they had increased in strength, they were invigorated; the work set them up.

92411. From November, 1906, to April, 1907, nearly 30,000 persons made application to the distress committee?—Yes.

92412. Is that about the average in the six months of the winter?—I think that is during the time that the registers were open.

92413. Then you closed them?—Yes, the registers were then closed.

92414. You were able to provide work for 3,500 out of that number?—Roughly speaking, we have never been able to provide for more than a tithe of the applicants.

92415. You say that the return of the value of the recoupment of the men's work is not quite accurate, or is misleading?—Yes, it is not so much as it ought to be. We never have been paid what independent valuers would hold to be the fair value of the work actually done. We have always been in the hands of the employing body, who have given us what they thought fit.

92416. The preceding witness laid stress on, what I think other witnesses have also laid stress upon, namely, the increasing difficulties of obtaining employment?—The difficulty of finding work of the character defined by the Act.

92417. I suppose the advantage if you can find work locally, is that the men live at home?—That is a great moral advantage.

The Rev.
J. H.
Anderson.

28 Jan. 1908.

Interference
with normal
labour.

Character
of men
employed.

Proportion
of efficient
workmen.

Quality of
work done.

Number
of men
provided
with work

Value of
work done.

Difficulty
of providing
work.

The Rev.
J. H.
Anderson.
28 Jan. 1903.

Comparative
cost of
men at
Hollersley
Bay and in
London.

Labour
Colonies—
difficulty as
to married
women.

Labour
colonies and
family life.

Effect of
limitation
to 16 weeks'
work.

Permanent
provision
for un-
employment.

Inutility of
labour
colonies.

State control
of un-
employment.

92418. For instance, would the cost of every person who was employed at Hollersley Bay be much in excess of what the persons would receive who worked in London, assuming they got the same rate per day?—I should say Hollersley Bay was much more expensive to manage. People at home seem to jog along on very, very little money in a wonderful way. If they get a guinea a week for work in London they are more satisfied than when they go away from home. Then there is the demoralising influence of the husband being away from home, which shows itself very often in a decreased sense of responsibility on the part of the wife in the home, and sometimes she goes out, and on the quiet (that is, without the knowledge of our committee), gets work herself; so the Hollersley Bay scheme sometimes proves doubly lucrative.

92419. With your experience there would be very considerable difficulty from that point of view in working labour colonies, particularly with regard to married women?—Especially with the wives. You would have all the difficulty you had with the women when the men went out to the Boer War.

92420. You are of opinion that the only way of dealing with this question on the lines of finding employment, is for there to be some general scheme of the Government to take it in hand?—I am. I have before my mind the family difficulty.

92421. Which is a very serious difficulty?—Immensely serious.

92422. Labour colonies on a large scale entail not only a large cost, but the separation of the heads of the family?—It is the break-up of the family life, unless you are going to have a colony of families, which might be as evil as the present system.

92423. Then the limitation of 16 weeks, of course, does some good to the individual for the time being, but otherwise I gather it simply puts the man back in the same position he was before?—I think it puts him back in a worse position.

92424. Do you really?—Yes.

92425. Why?—I say that these men are rehabilitated and reinstated physically; they come back to the corner of the street with their passions increased and the last state is worse than the first. There is no reason why you should discharge that man in my opinion, unless you are discharging him back to honest labour. Unless you find that the real remedy for unemployment—namely for work is forthcoming, it seems to me almost something amounting to cruelty to discharge a man to do nothing; the man is strong and vigorous and full of passion with an increased appetite and all the rest of it.

92426. I suppose the idea that underlay this limitation was that he would be able to get employment?—Yes; if I may say so, I think it is a complete fallacy. My opinion is that unemployment is a state that has come to stay and is going to grow under the present social and commercial system of competition, and you will have to make something like a really permanent provision for those who fail either from moral or competitive economic causes in the battle of life.

92427. I suppose I may almost sum up your experience by saying that your work for the last three or four years has not tended to solve this difficulty, but only to show the difficulties that attend the question?—It serves to accentuate it. I cannot put my finger on any one remedy. I think there are many factors. I think all these colonies, with the exception of what has been called the penal colony for the man who is unwilling to work, the man of the vagrant or loafer type, are futile. They lead to nothing.

92428. Yet, on the other hand, the idea of the State stepping in means putting into operation a machine that may become a very big and a very difficult one to work?—It has been the experience of years past in France that it was difficult, but I do not know. The work must be found for these men. There must be somebody profiting by the present state of affairs, and the burden must be placed upon them; these people cannot be allowed to starve. They have a right to live; they have the obligation to work; you may assume in a large number of cases the willingness to work and the absence of any adequate provision for work.

92429. I suppose you would agree the test of a man's Test of sincerity in asking for work is whether he does the work sincerely of which is given him to do?—My idea is, the best test is applicants the test of the jobs themselves; the man's industrial capacity is gauged under the foreman's eye. At the present time I would agree with Mrs. Dunn Gardiner that men are sent to these works more on the ground of mercy, pity and compassion for the number of children. Industrial capacity is not taken into account, but when we get him on the job we have to take it into consideration. At the same time, when I say that, I must say that the general result of the discrimination used by the various distress committees is fairly satisfactory, because we had to dismiss only about 3 per cent. of the men.

92430. If it were possible to establish some system of working colonies by which a man was tested by the job it would make a man self-reliant, and he would learn to increase rely on himself?—It is no good his relying on himself if in employment there is no work for the poor fellow to do. That is the great thing. It is what is commonly called "shortage of work," which I think is rather an inaccurate term. It is the shortage on the part of the willingness of society to provide the necessary work, and the unwillingness of public bodies to spend. A very great deal of the increase (at the present time) of unemployment is caused by the reign of parsimony under which we live in London at the present time. The public bodies will not spend the money they ought to spend.

92431. We have had evidence to show there is a considerable class of persons in London who are not very keen about permanent employment?—I agree, and I have said that for such persons there should be, what is more or less correctly called the penal colony; send him there and make him work, let his food be in proportion to his work if you please. Penal colonies.

92432. With regard to the Act itself, would you wish it to be continued?—It must be continued, unless something else can be put in its place.

92433. Is it much use continuing it unless you extend its provisions?—No, there must be increased scope for work. At the present time we can only get or beg work from a limited number of public bodies. Extension of scope of work.

92434. Your difficulties are enormously increasing?—Already they are prominent, and they are, in my opinion, continually increasing.

92435. (Bishop of Ross.) You said in your opinion unemployment has come to stay, and it is necessary to increase the scope of work?—Yes.

92436. Have you any scheme before your mind, any class of work by which this scope could be permanently, or at least for a period of some years to come, increased?—No, no Government scheme have I in my mind, but I do think the local bodies might spend a great deal more money on local work than they do. Rates might be spent in providing labour which in its turn I think would tend to save the rates in another direction, by making provision for what is called the able-bodied. Increased local expenditure as a remedy for unemployment.

92437. These works could scarcely be reproductive in the ordinary sense?—I think they would be reproductive; they would increase the comfort of the town in the same way that a gentleman's garden differs in comfort from that of a poor man's back yard. For instance, at this time we have four boroughs in London planting trees. There is a great deal of terrible monotony in the streets of London, one after another, just alike, and all straight, and nothing in them. It is a great thing I think to have got four boroughs to beautify themselves, if I may say so, by trees.

92438. In that way you would increase the health?—Yes. A great many streets in London are not channelled, the gutters are simply macadam, when they might have granite setts. There is a very poor municipal standard in London, I think, except in the City.

92439. Therefore your idea is that the works would be indirectly reproductive, yet not reproductive in the mere arithmetical sense of the word, in giving a percentage on the money?—Yes, they would employ a much larger amount of labour, than is being employed under the system which is far too much in vogue in the municipalities in London, that is, putting all the works out to contractors; the labour is sweated down to its very lowest ebb, and the men who introduce that sort

of thing are largely contractors themselves, architects, landowners and the like. They sit on these bodies. They are interested parties.

92440. The municipalities in that way could do a great deal in your opinion?—Yes.

92441. You also suggest the provision of a Government Department?—Yes, I should like to emphasise what I have said. I know of one borough in London where, since the new council came in, over 100 men have been dismissed because the work has been let out now to contractors which work used to be done by men in the Works Department of the council, and done quite as efficiently as it will be done by the contractors. These contractors generally have their own men; they import them into the locality, and they cause a great deal of ill-feeling between the men who are displaced and the men who are imported.

92442. Have the contractors got the same total amount of money from the municipalities, do you think, as the municipalities spent when they employed their own people?—I do not think they have got the money from the municipalities. The work that such men do is done in new streets, the cost of which is paid for by the frontagers abutting. It is collected from the frontagers, and paid over to whoever does it.

92443. The municipality has no profit out of this money collected I suppose?—They are not supposed to make any profit; there would be a small charge for supervision.

92444. They would be able to let the house at a somewhat lower rate if the frontage money was less?—Yes, no doubt, but I do not think a small capital addition of that sort makes a very great addition to the rent; not so much as 1d. increase in the rates, which would be an excuse for the landlord to put up the rent 6d.

92445. I gathered your main idea was that the Act should be so strengthened, as that the central Government would take up the question of unemployment?—Yes, I say that because the unemployment difficulty to my mind is not a mere local difficulty, it is a national difficulty, and therefore should be dealt with, as financially it is already being done, out of national money. I go a step further and say that there ought to be, if possible, national works, because the local works are insufficient.

92446. What class of works in your mind could be taken up by the nation at large?—It is exceedingly difficult to say. Reclamation is one that seems to suggest itself most as likely to be most productive, after the style of the Dutch on the coast of Holland, and the Belgians on the coast from Ostend past Blankenberg. A great deal of land has been reclaimed there, and more may be reclaimed.

92447. The class of work that has been done in Belgium in the last fifty or 100 years was done in England 300 or 400 years ago?—But there is more of it to be done, is there not?

92448. I suppose there would be, but England is pretty well reclaimed, compared to Belgium?—Then there is protection as well as aggression in this work.

92449. I saw by this morning's paper that the Small Holdings Act was working well, that they had already received 3,000 applications. Would that relieve the difficulty, in your opinion?—No, I am afraid not. I do not think that the man who has been about London on the pavements for a certain number of years, after a period of some sixteen weeks, or even more—even three years—at Hollesley Bay, is going to turn out the practical fellow that is necessary to make a small holding pay. The agricultural labourer in my opinion is really a skilled artisan. He knows a great many things besides turning over clods. He can drain, and he can ditch, and thatch. He understands stock, and times, and seasons.

92450. Agriculture in your view is not quite so simple a process as townspeople regard it, I suppose?—It is not.

92451. Though you may not be able to successfully put the Londoner out into small holdings, would it be a future advantage if you prevented many of the agricultural labourers from coming into the cities?—I agree it would.

92452. So that though you may not relieve the immediate difficulty you check the trouble in the future? I agree.

92453. Would you agree that would be a better method, so far as the future is concerned, than by transferring the Londoner?—I would.

92454. So far you think the successful working of that Act will have some influence for betterment in the future—If it retains the men on the land, and the population increases, and the amenities and the social joys of country life get back to something like the days of Merry England, then there will be a happy life in the country, but I do not think you are going to get it by the mere "Back-to-the-land" system of taking these men who are here in London, and planting them there in the country.

92455. I think we agree so far it is not so much "back-to-the-land," as "remain on the land"?—That is it.

92456. (Mr. Bentham.) I notice in one of these paragraphs you complain that the proper amount of recoupment has not been received from the London County Council for work done by the distress committee?—I do.

92457. Who values that work?—The people by whom the work is provided, the people who have asked for it; they are their own judges of the value.

92458. Do they put the value on before the work is commenced?—No.

92459. Would that not be a proper stipulation to make?—We cannot make a stipulation of that sort, because we are absolutely and entirely in their hands. They give us the work, and we must trust to them for recoupment. For instance, the Royal Parks made no recoupment at all. We are doing much work there for which there is to be no recoupment, and financially if you get to the bottom of the business, I do not think the recoupment matters much at all. It is only taking it out of one pocket and putting it into another, because all the money belongs to the nation. It comes from the Treasury.

92460. A great deal depends on arriving at the proper value of the work done by this class of men?—Yes, but at the same time the body who is paying the value of this work to us, who said the value of this work to them was only one-tenth of the wages we expended on it, will tell you that the labour reached a standard little short of the normal labour of contractors, but what they do say in addition is: "that is the value of the work to us." Let me give you an example. There is an asylum under the management of the London County Council Asylums Committee at Long Grove, near Epsom, surrounded by a great tract of land—derelict farms really. We undertook to bring it into cultivation. We treble trenched it, we grubbed up all the hedges which had outgrown and extended far into the land, and recovered a great area of the land in that way. The time came to consider recoupment. The Asylum Committee took the view that all this work could have been left until the Asylum was filled with lunatics, who could have done that work without any cost whatever. This was work which was anticipated, it was brought into use earlier than it otherwise would have been, more promptly; and the measure of the value of that work to them was the measure of the earliness with which it came into their possession, not the wages expended. They never would have spent the money on it, and we were asked, (and I thought to a large extent rightly so) to be grateful to them for having given us the work at all. That was a matter that was not very well understood by a commercial gentleman, whose name is a name of weight in the City of London. He was so much annoyed about the recoupment (it was in the days when there was a subscription to a voluntary fund), that he came and offered at his own expense to pay for an independent valuation of the value of the work by any one man out of ten names of the most eminent firms of valuers in the City of London. I had to tell him if I went with a proposal like that to the London County Council, it would simply end in our getting no more work at all. We had better take the recoupment and be content to let the public understand that the recoupment we receive is by no means the money value of the labour expended. No contractor would have done that work for the amount we have been recouped.

The Rev.
J. H.
Anderson.

28 Jan. 1908.

- The Rev. J. H. Anderson.* 92461. Have any of the workmen been put on piece-work at all?—No.
- 28 Jan. 1908. 92462. In none of your works?—No, none on piece-work, time work only, 6d. an hour the lowest.
- Piece-work. 92463. Do you not approve of piece-work?—No, not for that class of labour. You must deal very gently with these men who come to you in a very feeble run-down state of health. The only way is to get some good man to set the pace. Most of the work we do is levelling and returfing, and you set out a line of men, and a good discreet foreman can size up his men. He says: "That looks a good fellow; I will put him there, that looks another likely man, I will put him there," and they all begin, and you see the line become more and more serpent-like as they go along, and then you shift your men accordingly, and try to get the work up in a straight line, and you jockey the men a little bit that are lagging behind, but not with severity. If you find a man very feeble you find the best remedy is to fall the man out and give him a basin of soup. That is the real remedy—find out whether the man is willing. If he is willing, put up with it. He will improve. To put these men on piece-work at the outset would be cruel. Piece-work is all very well for an expert man when his fingers are deft and he has a temptation to be lazy. It is not the right method with these men.
- Subsidising rates. 92464. What you claim is that the work you have done is to a certain extent directly or indirectly subsidising the rates?—All the work we have done is subsidising the rates.
92465. No; some of the work you have done is for the municipal authorities?—I agree. It is difficult to find work which does not to some extent subsidise the rates. A very great deal of the work which public bodies offer us is work which, in my opinion and in the opinion of many men, they ought to do for themselves. At the time we had the Queen's Fund to administer there was a demoralising and disgraceful snatching among the municipalities, each trying to get the most money for the benefit of their own borough, thinking of that much more than the benefit of the unemployed.
- Interference with normal employment. 92466. If any of this work which they offered to your committee is work which they ought to have done themselves, it would mean that the men who would have been employed in a normal way, would be unemployed while your men did the work?—It would mean, I understand, that if the work ought to be done at all, it would be done in the municipality, and by employing normal labour in the ordinary way, but as things go on in the municipalities there is a great deal of under-employment. May I give an example? A little while ago we had from a southern borough here a large proposal for extending sewers. If the sewers of that neighbourhood require extension for the sewerage, if it is needed, it ought to be paid for out of the rates, and paid for by the locality. If it is necessary it ought to be done; if it is not necessary it should be left alone.
92467. The whole scheme of this provision has had this tendency. But this apparently necessary work is still left undone; the work that is necessary work is being pushed on to your committee to be done by the unemployed?—Yes.
92468. In order that the municipality may reap some advantage by this Unemployed Workmen Act?—My committee has pushed that work off; the municipalities push it on, but we push it off.
- Municipalities and the Works Committee of the central body. 92469. You have not done it?—No. This one case came up before us yesterday, and it is before the Local Government Board at this present moment, the case alluded to by Mrs. Dunn Gardiner, the case at Camberwell, where work ought to be done by the municipality, we think, but, however, there are very great difficulties, the municipality has a very great burden, so I think the Local Government Board are going to make a grant of a half; probably the borough will refuse it. In another case, the case of Lambeth, they have bought some ground which, in some fifteen years time, will be a depot for that borough for the ordinary surveyors' work of sweeping, slopping, and the like. This ground has to be cleared and to a large extent excavated. They ask for the total value of the money to be expended in wages in doing that. They say they will not do it themselves now; it is work which could be done in fifteen years time, but they will put it forward. We rejected it, but it is sent to the Local Government Board under the exceptional circumstances of acute distress in Lambeth, and the President will make a grant of a half of the cost of the labour, not the whole cost. It ought to be borne, in my opinion, entirely by the municipality. The municipality are going to bear half, and the other half is coming out of the Treasury grant. Why the Treasury grant should be expended on providing depots for the borough of Lambeth I do not know. Why the national funds should be employed on such an absolutely local effort I do not know.
92470. You rather suggest that an extension of powers might be given to the distress committees, or that in some other way something permanent should be done for these men rather than give them sixteen weeks work; they should be retained until they could get suitable employment?—Yes. I maintain that unemployment is acute even in the summer time, and if these men are to be unemployed when they are discharged I do not think we ought to discharge them.
92471. If that were so would not a man feel, when he got into occupation of what is considered work for the unemployed, that he had got a permanent job?—I daresay some would.
92472. How do you get over that difficulty?—The partial way in which it is got over is that you are giving him less money than he might be getting under a normal state of employment; he is working a five days week instead of a six-days week. I know there are lots of men who would like that. I know also there are lots of men about who have said: "I only want two days," or "I only want three days." They say: "If I can get 12s. a week, Mr. Anderson, I can jog along perfectly well; I do not want any more." I would admire, to some extent, that man if I thought it was done out of brotherly love to his neighbour, in order that he might get a share and be able to jog along too; but I am bound to say I believe it is done from motives of laziness; that man has a low idea of his duty and self-respect.
92473. Would you preclude those men, on the other hand, from earning a little in other ways?—My impression is that at these colonies—
92474. I do not mean in the colonies?—At those works we should take pains to inform ourselves as to the state of labour, and we ought to be in a position to go and say to these men: "Now at this contractor's yard there is a job for twenty men; who will volunteer?" or we may sift them out and draft them on.
92475. First of all you want to get the offer from the contractor that he would take twenty men?—Yes.
92476. That is getting rather away from the point?—No, I think not, because we have constructed our labour bureau to get at the contractor and get the contractor to come to us, so that the information we get there we might pass on to our relief works.
92477. The bureau is a different branch of the work to the unemployed department?—I agree.
92478. I am speaking more particularly of the men who are unemployed. If you give them almost a guarantee that they will be kept on there until they have either found another job for themselves or you have found it for them, it might become a very serious burden?—I do not know. What I look at is the higher ground. If it be true that there is no work for that man, then I must hold that it is the duty of society to keep that man. We did not ask him to come into society, and he must stay in society until he is sent for.
92479. Of course, men usually are expected to make their own way in the world?—I am afraid the case can be put more strongly in favour of these men by saying that at present society is rather organised against them. They do not get a fair chance. The work is not there for them. They are not wanted.
92480. That rather changes round, it is not the same men all the time, or we should say it is the man's fault; surely the men get a chance of work sometimes, or they likely to are unemployable?—I think that the same men, when remain once they drop into the condition of unemployment, unemployed.
- Permanent provision for unemployment.
- Duty of society to provide for man without work.
- Men who drop into the condition of unemployment.

are likely to remain unemployed. I think any training provision is useless. We see that this year. We have the men who were on three years ago standing out as stalwart malcontents, angry with the newcomers taking their place, and those men have remained out of work the whole summer, or depended on such casual jobs as they could get.

92481. You do not attribute that at all to the fault of the men?—Not at all.

92482. Is it not likely that in some cases it might be that the men feeling that a provision is there lessens the incentive for the men to find work for themselves?—I do not believe it. I believe they love liberty so much that they would rather go their own way than be nursed along by anybody. I believe in the independence of the British working man.

92483. You do not think any suggestion you are making will sap it?—Our scheme does not create, nor does it accentuate, the unemployed problem.

92484. There is another point of view. If these men are to be employed economically, which you admit is the only way they can be employed, it means someone else is providing that money?—Certainly.

92485. Does it not withdraw that from the employment of other people in other directions?—I cannot look at it from that point of view. There is somebody in society profiting by the present state of affairs. There are a lot of people getting very rich, and at the same time there is an increasing number of men getting very poor. Those that profit must provide for those that lose.

92486. You cannot say that those who are profiting are profiting at the expense of those that you are seeking to benefit. Do you say that?—I do, I believe that the present system of industrial organisation is largely the cause of the present lack of employment.

92487. Put it in this way: In order to enable these people to get rich a lot of people must be employed?—I do not think so.

92488. They cannot get rich without people working for them, can they?—Some people do. I know a man who has a good lot in Consols, and never does any work at all; and he is piling up a nice lot of dollars; but he he lives like a pauper.

92489. He will have to get something to invest in Consols. He has to get rich before he gets his Consols?—There are a lot of people like that; some people are born rich.

92490. What I want to stick to is the method of getting rich. It is urged against people who are in business that they make their money by dealing unjustly with or by exploiting the worker. That pre-supposes that there are people working for them, and those people are getting wages. Those who are not employed, who are left unemployed, that is who cannot find a place in the social machine, are left out for some reason?—I think they are left out without any reasoning. They do not take the trouble to reason.

92491. Is it not usually because no one can employ them at a profit?—I do not know. It is the old cry.

92492. That is really the economic reason?—No, it is not really. There is the old cry: "No man hath hired us." The Good man gives them a job; and if there are a lot of men in this country who can cry honestly: "No man hath hired us" it is the duty of a Christian man to find them a job.

92493. It is the duty also of those who have the management of public affairs and power to take money compulsorily from those who are employed to see that these people are not dealt with in such a way as to make it more eligible to be so called unemployed than it is to be employed?—I agree that corresponding with the right to live there is the obligation to work; and society has as much right to enforce that obligation as there is a duty on society to acknowledge the right to live.

92494. An obligation to work?—Yes.

92495. Why should you concern yourself about obliging a man to work if he does not need assistance; it is no business of society if he asks nothing of society whether he works or not. What injury does he do to anybody?—Every man is his brother's keeper. Every man has

on him by the obligation of his birth a duty to his fellows; a man cannot wrap himself up in his own selfishness.

92496. If a man does not need your assistance why should you concern yourself about him?—Such a man would need the assistance of the highest moralists in the country to teach him moral righteousness. 28 Jan. 1908.

92497. I agree. Burke once said "Patience, labour, frugality, sobriety and religion should be recommended, but all the rest is downright fraud?"—Immorality does not account for want of employment. Only 3 per cent. of our men had to be dismissed, that is for lack of industrial capacity, and only some 7 per cent. for other disabilities. It was 7 per cent. for misconduct, laziness or unfitness.

92498. That is according to the standard that is set up by the committee that is dealing with them?—It was the standard that would prevail in any ordinary contractor's yard. It is the standard set up by Mr. Scotland with the approval of myself and my Committee; and the testimonial of the London County Council last year as to the work done by the men acting under that standard is that they were worth quite 90 per cent. of the ordinary contractor's labourer. Standard of capacity.

92499. You leave out altogether, in your proposals for dealing with this problem, any economic consideration?—Do you mean by an economic consideration the question of profit?

92500. No, I mean economic consideration as to whether these people can be employed in such a way as to earn what they consume?—I want them to earn what they consume. I want a man to have the facility to earn the bread that he may live. I am not concerned that there should be a profit in the sense of lucre or dividend. I am concerned that there should be profit for the human being himself, and also in this sense to the society into which he has been born.

92501. Do you consider it possible to deal with the unemployed on that basis? Supposing you had to say: Now we will employ those who can be so engaged as to earn what they consume, and all the rest shall be dealt with in some other way, that would be in a sense selecting those who could be normally employed? Would you draw the line there?—I have classified them in one of the paragraphs of my statement; the able-bodied who are unwilling to work should be compelled to work; and legislative power to secure this should be introduced; in other words I would have power to take the idler, the loafer, the man who shows no will to work, more especially if he were neglecting his dependents, before a magistrate and have him committed for a certain period to a working colony. Treatment of unemployed by separate methods according to classification.

92502. That is rather a different class?—And then a clear distinction should be drawn between the three classes willing to work and under satisfactory conditions physically fit, the willing to work but physically unable to reach the standard of fitness, and the physically fit but unwilling to work; and separate methods should be provided for dealing with each.

92503. This class is rather different to the one that is able and willing to work; and if you cannot find sufficient work for the willing why should you attempt to compel the man who is willing to work to do the work which the other man ought to do; because you agree there is a difficulty in finding work for him to do?—I put it the other way, that our present social or commercial system finds difficulty in providing the work. There is a lot of work to be done; but side by side with that there is the will on the part of those in whose possession that work is not to have it done. In other words, there is what Mr. Hobson would call under-consumption. "Under-consumption."

92504. You could not say that would apply to a public body could you?—From what point of view of the public body? The public body shunts most of the work; that is my present complaint in London. I can go round and say this ought to be done but they do not do it.

92505. Mr. Hobson's reference to under-consumption was meant to apply to the individual, not public bodies; it was under-consumption on the part of the people generally?—Yes.

The Rev. J. H. Anderson.
28 Jan. 1903.
"Under-consumption" by municipality.

92506. It does not apply really to a municipality?—I think it can. They have means of getting public money which they ought to spend for the public good, and they do not do it from an inferior sense of what is for the public good. In other words, there is not a high and proper moral spirit dominating.

92507. What I am afraid of is that what you are advocating unintentionally is that as they have power to get money they should get it by taxing the people for it, and spending it for the public good; that is what you would advocate, but you also advocate the supplying of it for the individual good of a certain class, and it may be doubtful whether it is for the public good?—I only go so far as to say this, it is good for a man who is born to live till he is sent for. If you have to convince yourself, as I have convinced myself, that there are people in this land that are only starving, or living on the generosity of the philanthropic, then I say there is an obligation on the community which the community must discharge, and economics in this particular respect must go to the wind.

Poor Law provision.

92508. The public has accepted that obligation for hundreds of years, and there has been a legal system for dealing with all people who are in distress and want. No person need want?—No.

92509. That may have answered its purpose, or may not, according to the individual who is considering it, but it is hedged round with conditions, and all its conditions are supposed to have grown round it in order to protect it from becoming abused?—Yes.

92510. What you mean now is that it is unnecessary for these conditions to be attached, and a more generous spirit altogether should prevail with regard to the treatment of those who are in want?—If they are really in want and are incapable of providing for themselves.

Provision of Poor Law and relief work compared.

92511. Why should not the Poor Law suffice for that purpose?—It is far better to pay men to work to occupy their minds than to shut them up in a house, a so-called workhouse, an absolute misnomer.

92512. The intention of the workhouse was to find work?—Yes.

92513. But through all the hundreds of years that it has passed it has been unable to do it satisfactorily?—Yes.

Greater provision of work possible.

92514. Do you mean to say now that it can be done satisfactorily by some other body?—Yes, I think work can be provided to a greater extent than it is at present.

92515. Without doing injury to the persons getting relief, and doing injustice to the people who find the money?—No, I will give you an example. I had an interview with the Conservators of the River Thames with a view to making an embankment the other side of Putney Bridge. It would do no harm to anybody, but the money to do it is not forthcoming. There is the work; it would be a great benefit to the community; it would be something like another embankment, like you have here, but it cannot be done. There is the difficulty and the hitch. The Government out of the Treasury grant, will without the slightest doubt find the money, but there is no other body to find the material, and for the sake of a few bags of cement, 160 men will go idle all this winter.

92516. You do not take into account at all the money so far as I can see that might be expended in that way is employing someone somewhere. You cannot withdraw unlimited money from the public without reducing the employment somewhere?—There is a great deal of money amongst the public that can be very well spared for the poorer classes.

92517. That would not interfere at all with employment?—I do not think so.

92518. That would depend on whom you got it from, would it not?—Yes, I think it would. A graduated system might very righteously be applied.

92519. We need not go into the methods of taxation. Do you think money will be got that will not interfere with employment in other directions, which will provide

employment for these people, and also will confer a national benefit?—Yes, a lot of English money is invested abroad, and all that sort of thing—plenty of it.

92520. I do not see how we are going to get at that. I have sympathy with the English unemployed, but I do not want to see any system that will not bear the strictest examination, in suggesting that a certain class shall be employed it should be in a direction that will not cause other persons to be unemployed?—I agree.

92521. And one has to look very carefully round a question like that.—I agree.

92522. It is no use to say there is plenty of money in the country and it can be employed this way or that, and it would do no harm to the persons from whom we are taking it, nor would it do harm to the persons you are employing, it is an easy way to say that, but it is not so simple as it looks, and it may create difficulties in other directions.—That has been said beforehand in olden times, and it has been said again, but it may come off.

92523. (*Mrs. Bosanquet.*) You heard, I think, Mrs. National Dunn Gardiner's plan that the State should open some large works at times of special distress and throw them open to everybody. Do you think that would apply?—I do not think that is the remedy. I hold that unemployment is permanent and increasing. I think Mrs. Dunn Gardiner would hold that it is temporary and occasionally acute.

92524. Supposing it is permanent and increasing in England, would not emigration be a better way of meeting it?—I am afraid not. There is a tendency at the present time to over-accentuate emigration. It had a temporary success at the first blush, but the difficulties in Canada now are beginning to increase. I do not think we shall be able to send many to Canada this summer. I find that unemployment is great in the States; and unemployment is great in Germany. The Berlin police are going for the unemployed at the point of the bayonet.

92525. So long as Canada really wants our men you would see no objection to their going there?—No; I am not over much in favour of emigration: but it is all under one flag, and it is not like going to a foreign land. I am very glad for them to go there; at the same time I do hold that there is an enormous amount of derelict land in our own country that might very well be put into cultivation.

92526. Suppose we got that thrown into the market, as it were, would that be a better way of doing it than by special devices for unemployed?—If you can get it in the ordinary normal way well and good; but my impression is that the present state of things has produced the unemployment; and as long as the present state of things continues the law, you will have this product, which is now permanently increasing. As wealth increases on one side you will have poverty increasing on the other, that form of poverty called "unemployment," or "under-employment," if you will.

92527. Is there any state of things to which you can point us which does not produce this evil in any country in any age in the past?—I am afraid not. All I call attention to is that selfishness of an extreme portion of the community that does not in my opinion do its duty adequately.

92528. Really your remedy would be a moral one. —A moral one, yes; but not based upon the immorality of the one class so much as upon the lack of morals of the other.

92529. (*Mr. Bentham.*) You do not attach so much importance, do you, to training these people for a higher occupation?—Not much. There is plenty of that. There is an educational ladder from the gutter to the Woollack, almost.

92530. You only mean, do you, that if there were they would not find employment?—I think they would not find employment. The great thing is to employ them. The remedy for mischief or sin or crime is employment. When people get into mischief then wise men send them to work.

works in time of stress no remedy, as unemployment permanent and increasing.

Emigration.

Derelict land.

Selfishness of portion of the community.

Remedy for unemployment a moral one. Small importance of training of unemployed.

ONE HUNDRED AND FORTY-FIFTH DAY.

Monday, 3rd February, 1908.

AT SCOTLAND HOUSE, WESTMINSTER, S.W.

PRESENT.

The Right Hon. Lord GEORGE HAMILTON, G.C.S.I.,
etc., etc., etc. (*Chairman*).
Sir SAMUEL B. PROVIS, K.C.B.
Mr. F. H. BENTHAM.
Dr. A. H. DOWNES.
The Rev. T. GAGE GARDINER.
Mr. J. PATTEN-MACDOUGALL, C.B.
Mr. T. HANCOCK NUNN.
The Rev. L. R. PHELPS.

Professor WILLIAM SMART.
Mrs. BERNARD BOSANQUET.
Mrs. SIDNEY WEBB.
Miss OCTAVIA HILL.
Mr. FRANCIS CHANDLER.
The Right Rev. The LORD BISHOP of ROSS.

Mr. R. H. A. G. DUFF (*Secretary*).Mr. J. JEFFREY (*Assistant Secretary*).

Dr. ARTHUR NEWSHOLME, M.D., F.R.C.P., called; and Examined.

92531. (*Bishop of Ross*.) You are Medical Officer of Health for Brighton, I think?—That is so.

92532. And you have come to give evidence in that capacity as Medical Officer of Health for Brighton?—Entirely so.

92533. You do not wish that any official importance should attach to that evidence, except in so far as you are Medical Officer of Health for Brighton?—No importance can attach to it beyond what attaches to my appointment in Brighton.

92534. You have kindly prepared for us a Paper, a very full and informed Paper, and that, with your permission, will be printed in the Minutes of Evidence; is that your wish?—Certainly. (*The Witness handed in the following Statement.*)

1. I am a Doctor of Medicine, and a Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians. For the last nineteen years I have been medical officer of health of Brighton and physician to the Municipal Isolation Hospital; for four years I was medical officer of health of Clapham, and at the same time physician to the City Dispensary and medical officer to the Westminster and Southlands Training Colleges for Teachers. I am a member of the Statistical Committee of the Imperial Cancer Research Fund, and have been President of the Incorporated Society of Medical Officers of Health, and Milroy Lecturer to the Royal College of Physicians. In addition to routine official enquiries involving consequent administrative action, to some part of which I shall have to refer in the course of my evidence, I have at various times made special enquiry, principally from the standpoint of public health, into school attendance (1890), overcrowding (1891), cancer (1893), industrial occupation (1893), rheumatic fever (1896), epidemic diphtheria (1898), epidemic diarrhoea (1899), notification of consumption (1899), isolation hospitals and scarlet fever (1901), the spread of tuberculosis (1901), sanatoria for consumption (1902), epidemiology of small-pox (1902), physical degeneration (1903), "missed" cases (1904), and alcoholism (1904). The dates given are those of my first publication of original work on the respective subjects; in most cases these publications have been followed by further work continued at intervals up to the present time. Most of these enquiries were undertaken in the hope of clearing up for my own guidance points on which published evidence at the time was inconclusive, and so far as the circumstances of my council have allowed, administrative action has been taken in Brighton on the lines indicated by their results.

The subjects on which I am asked to give evidence before the Commissioners have engaged my close attention for many years. So far as concerns medical assistance in general, the views to which they have led me were published in 1899 and 1900 in papers read before medical societies. I first gave definite

form to those relating to the reduction of the phthisis death-rate in my Report to the International Congress of Hygiene and Demography, held at Brussels in 1903; and the results of further enquiry were stated at greater length in a paper in the *Journal of Hygiene* in July, 1906. This summary of work will indicate that the main conclusions which I shall submit have not been prepared for the Commissioners at short notice, but represent the best inferences which I have been able to draw from a somewhat protracted experience and study of the matters in question.

2. I am asked (i.) to give some account of agencies in Brighton for assisting the poor with medicine or medical advice, and (ii.) to discuss (a) the manner in which they co-operate or overlap; (b) the possibility (in which I understand to be included the expediency) of unifying their administration; and (c) their general sufficiency for the health of the community, especially in relation to phthisis.

3. I am able to state the leading facts regarding the agencies in Brighton; though as to the majority of those not administered by the town council the information at my disposal is not materially greater than that which I have obtained from time to time in regard to other districts. In regard to the inferences which I am asked to draw from my knowledge of these facts, I should feel considerably more hesitation in defining the alterations which I should recommend, if I had to rely only on my knowledge of the experience of Brighton, for grave fallacy is apt to arise from considering merely parochial or local experience. After making the required statement as to the Brighton agencies, I propose, therefore, to consider the remaining questions in the light of such wider experience and information as I have obtained from all sources.

MEDICAL AID IN BRIGHTON.

4. The principal agencies in Brighton for providing medicine and medical advice for the poor are as follows:—

I.—OFFICIAL.

A.—Municipal.

- (i.) Municipal Isolation Hospital.
- (ii.) Bacteriological Laboratory.
- (iii.) Phthisis, including sanatorium treatment.
- (iv.) Municipal Home Nursing.
- (v.) School Nurse.
- (vi.) Municipal medical visits.

B.—Poor Law Medical Relief.

II.—VOLUNTARY AGENCIES.

- (i.) Hospitals and Dispensaries.
- (ii.) Queen's Nurses.
- (iii.) Lying-in Charity.
- (iv.) Co-operative and Private Medical Treatment.

Dr. Arthur
Newsholme,
M.D.,
F.R.C.P.

3 Feb. 1908.

Local
experience
unreliable as
basis for
reformation.

Official
agencies for
medical
assistance to
poor in
Brighton.

Voluntary
agencies
for medical
assistance to
poor in
Brighton.

Dr. Arthur
Newsholme,
M.D.,
F.R.C.P.

I.—OFFICIAL.

A.—Municipal Medical Relief.

3 Feb. 1908.

Charge for
treatment of
infectious
pauper
patients by
sanitary
authority.
Vermineous
children.

Free
bacterio-
logical
diagnosis
to private
practitioners
by sanitary
authority,
and benefits
thereof.

Gratuitous
treatment
in sanitary
authority's
hospital of
phthisical
cases—
duration of
stay and
number
treated.

Disinfection
of phthisical
patients'
houses, and
inspection of
notified cases
by sanitary
authority.

(i.) *The Municipal Isolation Hospital* (Sanatorium) for infectious diseases serves a population of about 128,000. This hospital is free to ratepayers and their children; as between the municipality and the guardians a charge is made for parochial patients. For 1906 the number treated was: Scarlet fever, 217; enteric fever, 12; measles, 4; German measles, 1; diphtheria, 194; erysipelas, 8; chicken-pox, 1; other diseases, 2; phthisis, 229. Total, 668. Small-pox is treated in a separate small hospital. Children suffering from scabies (itch) and from body-lice are admitted occasionally until they and their clothing can be disinfected.

(ii.) There is a *bacteriological laboratory* in which, in addition to work done for the hospital and the Public Health Department, free bacteriological diagnosis is given to private practitioners, to whom the necessary outfits are supplied without charge. This service has been of considerable help in defining both the nature of the disease and the duration of infection, and is used freely. In 1906 fifty-seven specimens of blood were examined for typhoid fever, 2,388 specimens from throats for diphtheria (in this disease several specimens often being sent from one patient), and 720 specimens of sputum for tuberculosis.

(iii.) *Phth'sis*.—A limited amount of accommodation is provided for the treatment of phthisis, and a short account of the history of this branch of the service and of the details of its working is necessary for the purpose of a later part of my evidence. The free bacteriological diagnosis of phthisis began in December, 1897, and was followed by the introduction of a system of voluntary notification in January, 1899. In August, 1899, the Corporation undertook to pay for such notifications on the same basis as for those under the Infectious Diseases (Notification) Act. In the course of 1902 first four, and then ten beds were set aside in the Isolation Hospital for the treatment of phthisis. Most of the patients admitted had extensive lung disease; but it was more convenient both to them and to the hospital that they should be treated only for a month. This limit was extended sometimes to five or even six weeks; the total number so treated to the end of 1906 is 567, the weeks of treatment 2,828, giving an average of about five weeks per case. The patients chosen for admission were for the most part still able to work. No prospect was held out of recovery before discharge. The hope under which they were admitted, as was explained to them, was that the month's rest and treatment would enable them to recover a stock of strength and to acquire in their personal habits a training which would improve their chances of ultimate recovery, and greatly reduce the risk of infecting their families. Their stay was also expected to give their families valuable relief from anxiety. It was especially noteworthy that, while directions given at home as to disposal of sputum and similar precautions were commonly disregarded, the habits acquired in the short stay at the sanatorium were in most cases kept up at home. During the patient's absence the house was cleansed and disinfected. Pocket spit-bottles and Japanese handkerchiefs were provided without charge for every notified case requiring them, whether admitted into the sanatorium or not. An inspector of special tact was detailed to visit about once every three months each family from which a notification had been received. His mission was:—

(a) To persuade the patient, if desirable, to apply for admission or readmission into the sanatorium, or to take other means for obtaining suitable treatment.

(b) To secure the examination of any other ailing members of the family, either by supplying a "letter" for the County Hospital if he was satisfied that the patient could not afford a doctor's fee, or by arranging for the medical officer of health to communicate with the usual medical attendant.

(c) To see that the spit-bottles, handkerchiefs, etc., were being used properly, to renew breakages, and to do what was possible to secure observance of the rules for avoiding infection.

(d) To observe generally the condition of the home in respect of cleanliness, overcrowding, and general sanitary arrangements, to use the influence which he had obtained from his sympathetic relationship

with the household to induce the occupants to take such action as was desirable, and to initiate the necessary steps where there was any sanitary defect curable by administrative action.

The medical officer of health or his medical assistant sees each notified patient in the first instance, and the action taken at this interview and by the inspector under (b) and (d) ensures relatively early diagnosis of fresh disease and valuable information as to insanitary conditions. The system has greatly helped in preventing substantial delay in diagnosis of fresh cases of phthisis in the patient's family. As an indication of the particulars which are secured automatically in this way I append a copy of the form of report used by the inspector and filed at the office, with any clinical details furnished by the doctor on notification (*see Appendix No. VIII. (A).*) It will be observed that the submission of sputum for examination, the notification of each case, and all the steps following on notification are voluntary, and that each step asked of the patient is coupled with some inducement in the shape of improved treatment. The information as to general sanitary conditions and as to disease in other members of the family, though of great importance to the public health department apart from the individual case, is obtained incidentally, and without the appearance of special inquisition.

The ratio of notifications to deaths from phthisis is considerably higher in Brighton than in any other town in the country, including one in which notification is compulsory. I entertain no doubt that this is due largely to the provision of treatment, and that no such result could have been obtained from any system of visitation and inspection limited to diagnosis and advice.

In April, 1906, the number of beds appropriated to phthisis was increased to twenty-five, a large part of the extra expenditure coming from the interest of £20,000 out of a bequest left by Mr. Hedgecock to the town council. This interest covers approximately the out-of-pocket cost of maintenance of twelve extra beds, exclusive of their proportion of standing charges. Of the extra fifteen beds three are reserved for paying-patients, and the remaining twelve are selected for more prolonged treatment than is given in the ten municipal beds.

The annual deaths from phthisis in Brighton are about 170, and at present there are about 700 notified cases under observation, giving four consumptives, mostly in working life, under supervision for every annual death. About fifty per cent. of these cases have been through the sanatorium.

(iv.) *Municipal Home Nursing*.—A certain amount of medical assistance is given by the Public Health Department apart from its hospital. A municipal nurse is provided under a local Act in a few cases in which home treatment is desirable. This Act authorises the provision of a nurse at the patient's home in certain diseases (enteric fever, puerperal fever, etc.), when, for instance, the patient's state does not allow of removal. This service has sometimes been of extreme value to the patient.

(v.) *School Nurse*.—A school nurse under the joint supervision of the medical officer of health and the clerk to the Education Committee attended, in 1906, ringworm, 206 cases; itch, 36; verminous heads, 770 (including 180 of body lice) eczema, 144; and other conditions, 746. A large proportion of these cases were visited and advice given at the parents' homes.

(vi.) *Municipal Medical Visits*.—"Contact" cases, especially children, are brought systematically to the office of the medical officer of health for examination, which includes the taking of throat swabs, examination for ringworm, and decision as to return to school; and houses are visited as occasion may require for investigation of doubtful cases of disease and similar purposes. In addition, 4,759 visits were made in 1906 by lay inspectors for special minor inspections in relation to phthisis and other infections, and 1,496 visits for disinfection. The total number of medical attendances, though not recorded separately, is very large. They occupy a considerable part of the medical officer of health's time, and that of the medical assistant, and are undertaken with a view to extended diagnosis and preventive measures. They do not involve the provision of direct medical assistance, and their usefulness is restricted accordingly.

Advantage
of tactful
inspection
of phthisical
cases.

Treatment
of phthisis by
sanitary
authority.

Number of
beds, and
finance of
Brighton
Sanatorium.

Provision
for domici-
liary
nursing by
sanitary
authority,
and benefits
therefrom.

Municipal
provision of
nurse for
school
children.

Functions
of medical
officer of
health.

In cases of doubtful diagnosis the medical officer of health is also called into gratuitous consultation by private practitioners whenever they wish it.

Cost of Municipal Services.

The total cost of the Public Health Department to the rates is 1·02d. in the £; and of the Isolation Hospital, including debt charges, is 2·28d. The municipal measures of medical help which I have described have been accompanied by vigorous action directed towards the reduction of overcrowding. In the last fifteen years one person out of every twenty of the working classes in Brighton has, as the result of condemnation of houses, been rehoused under improved conditions. The cost of the areas cleared under Part I. of the Housing of the Working Classes Act represents a debt of about 1·1d. in the £ for the next twenty years. It may serve to fix a rough scale to these expenses if I mention that the education rate in Brighton is 15·7d. and the police rate 5·6d., and that locally these rates are not considered excessive.

B.—Poor Law Medical Relief.

The medical relief given by the Poor Law is adminis-

tered in two parishes, that of Brighton having an estimated population at the middle of 1906 of 102,320, while that of Preston (in the Steyning Union) has an estimated population of 25,775. The poor rate in Brighton parish 1906-7 is 1s. 7½d., for Preston parish, 10d. The figures of relief for Brighton parish are as follows:—The average weekly number of inmates of the workhouse (including the infirmary) in the half-year ending Michaelmas, 1905, was 1,207 as compared with 1,361 in the previous half-year. The weekly average cost per inmate was 4s. 2½d. About 400 of the inmates are sick persons, and about thirty of these known to be consumptives. With the phthisis beds at the sanatorium this gives about one phthisis bed per 2,000 of population. The number in receipt of outdoor relief during the half-year ending Michaelmas, 1905, averaged 1,589, as compared with 1,666 in the previous year, the average weekly cost per head being 2s. 4½d. The above cost for in-maintenance does not include repairs and furniture, salaries and other remuneration, rations and superannuation allowances of the officers and servants. The cost for outdoor relief does not include salaries of officers.

Dr. Arthur Newsholme, M.D., F.R.C.P.

3 Feb. 1908.

Statistics and Law relief in Brighton.

II.—VOLUNTARY AGENCIES.

	Patients in 1905:		
	In-patients.	Out-patients.	
Sussex County Hospital - - - - -	1,986	6,839	Attendances, 39,625.
Children's Hospital - - - - -	690	3,418	
Throat and Ear Hospital - - - - -	331	1,457	Attendances, 7,101.
Sussex Eye Hospital - - - - -	247	3,249	
Hospital for Women and Lying-in Institution -	138	725	Also 861 midwifery cases attended at home.
	Total Patients. 9,832		Number attended at home, 3,485 (17,400 visits made).
Brighton, Hove and Preston Dispensary - -			
Provident Dispensary - - - - -	275 admissions during the year.		

1906.	New Cases.		Patients visited at home.	
	Dispensary.	Consultations.	Number.	Number of Visits.
Sussex County Homoeopathic Dispensary -	1,846	11,166	1,535	6,658
Brighton Homoeopathic Dispensary - -	1,215	5,514	210	1,050
Dental Hospital- - - - -	Total patients in 1905 was 4,236.			

Some of the above institutions serve a wider district than the Municipal Borough of Brighton. The rules admitting to treatment at these different institutions vary, the usual plan being by subscribers' letters, which are often very difficult to obtain. Serious casualties and emergencies are treated at the county and children's hospital without letters. At several of the institutions charges are made. In 1906 the provident dispensary received from members' payments, £276 0s. 9d. and from confinement fees, £16 4s., subscriptions, donations and dividends amounting to about £128. In 1905 the Brighton and Hove Dispensary received from workmen's boxes £501, from registration fees £160, from friendly and similar societies about £174. Its total expenditure that year was about £3,380, coming, except for the above amounts, from subscriptions and bequests. At the Throat and Ear Hospital small payments are made by patients, and the same remark applies to the Homoeopathic Dispensaries. (ii.) The Queen's nurses in the year 1905-6 paid 56,994 visits to 1,774 cases of non-communicable illness. (iii.) Confinements.—The hospital for women has a large lying-in branch, patients being attended at home by trained midwives at a fee of 6s. for each confinement

(primiparae, 10s.), and attendance afterwards. In 1906, 749 or 26·3 per cent. of the total births in the municipal borough were attended from this institution. The administration of the Midwives Act has been found to involve considerable practical difficulties. Under this Act the midwife is bound to call in medical aid when required, and in particular if her patient's temperature rises over 100°F. But the practitioner called in refuses not infrequently to examine the patient on account of the danger to his other patients. The point being new, I may instance a case which came recently under my notice. Two doctors were called successively to a patient in an acute febrile condition after confinement. Neither made the necessary examination, but the second doctor without a complete examination formed the opinion at the end of thirty-six hours that the patient had rheumatic fever. On the strength of this opinion the patient was admitted to the general hospital, where she died of virulent puerperal fever, for which she had received only the most belated treatment. The majority of women employing midwives cannot afford the cost of a doctor's attendance. A great mass of preventable suffering is due to this fact, which also largely influences the midwives in neglecting to discharge their duty to summon medical aid when needed. Apart from general considerations, the following facts have led me to the conclusion that this neglect occurs.

Provision by voluntary agency for maternity cases. Effect of Midwives Act on assistance by medical practitioner.

Dr. Arthur
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3 Feb. 1908.

Need for
voluntary
notification
of births by
midwives.

Quality of
medical aid
through
friendly
societies.

Unsatisfac-
tory arrange-
ments of
private
medical
clubs.

Comparative
merits of
medical aid
in Brighton
and other
towns.

Extent to
which medi-
cal agencies
co-operate
and overlap.

In addition to the obligation to call in the doctor in certain events, midwives are also bound to send to the medical officer of health an immediate notification of the circumstances which have necessitated this action. They are under no obligation to notify births, and the disadvantage to the public health service arising from the absence of notification has led me recently to recommend that midwives should be invited to give the notification voluntarily in return for a small sum—two pence per case—to cover postage, etc.

In the absence of complete information I am unable to state accurately the number of cases attended by private midwives in Brighton as compared with those attended by the midwives of the lying-in institution. Probably, however, the private midwives attend at least as many cases as do the midwives of the institution. Yet in 1906 I received ninety-two notifications from the midwives of the lying-in institution of cases in which they had called in the house-surgeon, as against five from the whole of the private midwives of cases in which they had called in medical practitioners.

(iv.) *Co-operative and Private Medical Treatment.*—In addition to the above agencies, friendly societies supply a considerable amount of medical aid, which is usually somewhat better in quality than that in the poorer forms of private practice, though the payment made per member is nearly always too little to admit of uniformly good work.

Many of the poor join private adventure medical aid associations by the payment of small weekly sums. A still larger number pay 6d. and 1s. fees to private doctors at their dispensaries. The arrangements under these last two headings are particularly unsatisfactory, and it is seldom that efficient medical aid is given under such circumstances. At a later stage I shall refer to the question of the sufficiency of treatment in general as obtained in these ways. For the moment I will merely mention as a practical illustration that it is no uncommon experience to find patients suffering from phthisis who have been treated at intervals for several years for cough and expectoration without either the chest having been examined, the sputum submitted for examination, or the disease diagnosed.

MEDICAL AID THROUGHOUT THE COUNTRY.

5. As the Brighton arrangements and practice have been described in some detail, it will be convenient to use them as a rough syllabus of the practice all over the country. In view of the peculiar position of Brighton, it is possible that this will somewhat over-estimate the extent and quality of the provision of medical aid. It must be remembered that Brighton has a special interest in its character as a health resort, and for long has depended largely for its prosperity on the attraction which it offers in respect of health to families coming to the town to visit or reside permanently. There is, therefore, in the municipal traditions of Brighton an amount of enlightenment which is probably well above the average; and the measures taken by a corporation so equipped for its duties will necessarily be somewhat in advance of those taken in the average of other towns. Experience has shown, however, that differences of this kind are not permanent, and it will be quite safe to assume that an institution not determined by strictly local considerations which a given town has adopted and found to its advantage will find its way ultimately into the practice of other towns. The error made by including it in the measures adopted throughout the country will therefore be only an error of date. My further observations will accordingly be understood to relate to the country as a whole, except when confined expressly to a given town.

CO-OPERATION OF MEDICAL SERVICES.

6. Even in Brighton, then, where medical aid is relatively good, arrangements for the co-operation which is necessary if the greatest good is to be derived from medical aid are almost absent, except in regard to phthisis.

The agencies at work have been classified above as official and voluntary. In both of these there is little co-operation, much overlapping, and in some instances unserviceable rivalry in the giving of medical aid.

(i.) *Official Medical Aid.*—Here there is both costly duplication of machinery and waste of sanitary information and control. Thus the Poor Law medical officers are daily in possession of information—at present wasted—respecting overcrowding, uncleanness, and the like, which

if the work of these officers were controlled and regulated from the standpoint of preventive medicine would be of great service to the common health. When we remember how greatly sickness among the poor is due to conditions of housing, this inco-ordination of official effort is eminently unsatisfactory.

(ii.) *Voluntary Medical Aid.*—The same remarks apply with even greater force to the knowledge obtained by the medical officers of dispensaries and hospitals and by private practitioners during their visits to patients' homes or their consultations with these patients. The treatment given by these doctors under present conditions is necessarily one-sided and partial, as in very many instances it cannot deal with the environmental conditions which have provoked disease.

The overlapping and consequent wastefulness of voluntary medical charities is too well known to need detailed discussion. Conversely, I may illustrate by a single example how co-operation may help the services which employ it. The public health department includes medical and sanitary branches, the work of which is done independently. Owing to the fact that they are conducted by the same department, their work is co-ordinated in every detail, and the example to which I wish to draw attention is that of the inspector who visits notified cases of phthisis (page 986, col. i.).

Through him the mere notification of a case of phthisis by the private practitioner sets in motion as far as it is required the entire machinery—prophylactic, curative and sanitary—of the public health department. His visit directs the patient into the avenues of medical relief. If he were the officer of a club or dispensary, his mission would end there. Representing as he does the other interests of the public health, he is able to exercise the necessary educational influence, to obtain early diagnosis of fresh cases in a nest in which one has already been hatched, and to give information as to matters, such as overcrowding, of which otherwise the public health department would be quite likely to receive no notice. Instead of visits being multiplied, one visit serves several ends; and automatically and without expense the information obtained is distributed to the department really concerned. An economy of time, energy and money is secured by this co-ordinated arrangement which would be impracticable if the departments concerned were administered by separate authorities.

7. Before considering whether the present medical aid is sufficient for the needs of the public health in general and the control of phthisis in particular, we must consider the extent of the relationship between preventive and curative medicine.

THE SCOPE OF PREVENTIVE MEDICINE.

8. The nature and extent of the medical aid required by the public health can be decided safely only on the basis that prevention is better than cure. I am very deliberately of opinion that the present medical aid is insufficient for the needs of the public health; for the majority of the cases of disease are such that either their occurrence could have been prevented or their duration and severity reduced by previous medical precautions. Medical aid will continue to be defective so long as medicine is regarded as chiefly curative rather than chiefly preventive. The doctrine that medicine should be chiefly preventive is now recognised as true for acute infectious diseases, and is the basis of the administration by which they are controlled. The restriction of the scope of preventive medicine to acute or even to chronic infectious disease is obviously arbitrary; and although this does not condemn the restriction as necessarily unsound, I have no doubt whatever that it is so, and that it is responsible for an enormous mass of avoidable sickness.

9. (a) *General Sanitation and Control of Acute Infectious Diseases.*—The scope of preventive medicine was confined not long since to measures for abating nuisances and introducing sanitary improvements such as drainage, water supply, open spaces, better house construction, and general cleanliness. With the development of knowledge as to the channels of infection, preventive medicine was required to devise measures for the control of acute infectious disease. The adoption of such measures is now recognised as no less a part of the duty of the community than the adoption of measures of general sanitation. Unfortunately at the present time the practical scope of preventive medicine in most parts of this country is limited to measures of these two classes; and although

Inco-ordination of sanitary Poor Law medical authorities

Inco-ordination of voluntary and official medical agencies

Example benefits advantage of co-operation of medical agencies

Insufficiency of medical aid.

Avoidable sickness due to restriction of preventive medicine.

General sanitation and control of acute infectious diseases.

mechanism already exists in public health legislation by which preventive medicine could be extended to some extent to non-infectious diseases, the interest which the community has in applying preventive measures to disease in general has not yet become evident in local administration.

10. (b) *Non-infectious Diseases*.—Nevertheless, of the common diseases there are few of which the severity may not vary according to the delay which occurs, before they are treated and the extent to which the treatment is insufficient. A non-infectious disease in its early stage may often be regarded for practical purposes as the cause of a more severe later stage, which the proper treatment of the early stage would prevent. Much medical aid is now given as a palliative measure after the disease has been allowed to grow to maturity; and the very magnitude of the disease which it seeks to palliate and of the resulting invalidity and expense is often due to the omission to apply medical aid at an earlier stage as a preventive measure. Thus rickets, when neglected, is not only the cause of much deformity and of difficult childbirth in women in later life, but also determines a very large proportion of the fatal respiratory diseases of children. Bronchitis is the registered cause of as many deaths as tuberculosis; and a large proportion of these deaths occurring before old age would be prevented by early treatment, especially directed to removing industrial or other conditions which have provoked it. Cancer in operable parts of the body is to a large extent a curable disease if diagnosed and removed at a sufficiently early stage. It is pitiable, for instance, that so many avoidable deaths from cancer of the cervix uteri should occur as do occur under the present conditions of medical attendance. Convulsions are the registered cause of 24,870 and diarrhoea of 39,071 out of every million total death from all causes. These deaths are chiefly due to errors of feeding of babies, which could be avoided were early medical attendance and health-visiting always available. These instances might be continued indefinitely. Thus mental diseases, constipation, appendicitis, bad teeth are obvious examples of conditions the early treatment of which would prevent serious consequences.

11. (c) *Preventable and Non-Preventable Diseases*.—In the following Table I have attempted a rough classification of the proportional mortality from each of the chief groups of diseases:—

Out of 100 Total Deaths from all Causes.		
Caused by:—		Per cent.
Acute notifiable infectious diseases	-	2·39
Acute non-notifiable infectious diseases, including pneumonia and rheumatic fever	- - -	18·58
Chronic infective diseases, including tuberculosis	- - -	11·21
Accident	- - -	2·69
Preventable non-infective diseases*	-	3·31
Partially preventable non-infective diseases†	- - -	17·63
All other diseases	- - -	43·89
		100·00

There can be little doubt that the list of preventable diseases will receive extension rapidly, and that a much larger proportion of total diseases than is indicated above would be prevented by early and efficient treatment.

12. The above table probably understates the relative mischief due to non-infectious disease. In acute infectious diseases the period of impaired activity or disablement is relatively short, both before treatment and after recovery. In the non-infectious diseases the onset may be far more protracted and the cure far less complete, the period of impaired activity or disablement being on the average considerably longer than is the case with acute infectious diseases. This protracted onset is not a difficulty but a direct assistance to preventive medicine. In a very large number of cases the disease would be cured quickly, often even while it was in the state of a slight ailment, if by the mechanism of preventive medicine it were recognised at the stage at which it could be treated most easily, effectively and economically. In some cases the cure effected is incomplete only because treatment has been too long postponed. In other cases the incompleteness of cure and the persistence of after-effects are the direct result of the imperfect treatment which alone was at the disposal of the patient. It is, in fact, beyond reasonable doubt that a very large part of non-infectious disease occurs or becomes inveterate by reason of the absence of early diagnosis and proper treatment. Such disease therefore comes within the scope of preventive medicine; and in Germany, for example, it has already begun to be treated by preventive measures.

(d) *Saving of Lives and Sickness to be Effected.*

13. A system which ensured early recognition and proper treatment not only of acute but of chronic infectious and of non-infectious disease would, in my opinion, yield a larger saving of lives and sickness than that which has been obtained up to now in the control of acute infectious diseases. The table given in paragraph 11 gives some rough support for this opinion; and a very large margin for administrative difficulties could be allowed on figures of sickness and life to be saved before the prospect of such a saving as I venture to forecast would become doubtful. I should like, however, to draw more detailed attention to two chronic infectious diseases the extent of which deserves special consideration. I refer to phthisis and syphilis.

(e) *The Phthisis Bill.*

14. The clearest view of the burden imposed on the community by phthisis is perhaps obtained by considering its incidence among men and women of working ages. The following table gives the death-rate at each age-period per 100,000 living at that period, and the deaths per 100 deaths from all causes at the same age-period, the figures for the chief working years of life being given in italics:—

Dr. Arthur Newsholme,
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3 Feb. 1908.
Necessity for early diagnosis and preventive treatment of non-infectious diseases as in Germany.

Benefits accruing from early recognition and proper treatment of disease.

Incidence of phthisis among men and women of working ages.

ENGLAND AND WALES, 1904.

		Ages.	0—	5—	10—	15—	20—	25—	35—	45—	55—	65—	All ages.
Deaths from Pulmonary Phthisis per 100,000 of population among	Males	-	39	15	19	80	161	213	270	310	215	126	146
	Females	-	31	20	24	102	125	158	170	148	117	65	103
Per 100 deaths from all causes	Males	-	0·7	4·2	9·5	26·1	38·5	37·0	28·1	18·2	7·7	1·4	8·5
	Females	-	0·7	5·7	20·6	35·4	36·7	32·3	21·2	11·2	4·4	0·8	6·0

* Including scurvy, alcoholism, drug diseases, industrial lead, etc., poisoning, rickets, teething, general paralysis of the insane, otitis and mastoid disease, laryngitis, cirrhosis of the liver, caries and necrosis, fibroid disease of the lungs, hernia.
† Including bronchitis, cancer, convulsions, chronic Bright's disease.

Dr. Arthur
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M.D.,
F.R.C.P.

3 Feb. 1908.

Comparative
averages of
invalidity
and mortality
from
phthisis.

15. The average period of disablement is probably higher in phthisis than in most other diseases, and the proportion of invalidity due to phthisis must be correspondingly higher than the share of phthisis in the general death-rate. It may, therefore, be said with certainty that the total loss through phthisis of lives is not less than one-fourth and of time is not less than one-third of the total lives and time lost through all causes in the most vigorous working ages. I select the figures of working ages for the present purpose, because the further measures required in the interest of the health of the community must be considered ultimately from the economic standpoint; and although this is not an aspect on which I am entitled to trouble the Commissioners in any detail, it is important that where possible the loss sustained by the community through preventable disease should be exhibited in some terms sufficient to indicate its order of magnitude.

Syphilis a
cause of
racial
pollution.

16. (f) *Venereal Disease*.—The terribly serious character of many of the forms which syphilis assumes is well known. It is apt in some cases to be far more refractory to treatment than is phthisis; when it has once got a thorough hold on the patient before treatment it is one of the most relentless agents of destruction both to the nervous system and to other parts of the body; and whereas phthisis is rarely, if ever, congenital, syphilis is notoriously and eminently so, and from this point of view is far more to be dreaded as a persistent source of racial pollution. It is one of the diseases, like rheumatic fever, in which the sufficiently grave primary attack is apt to leave the patient with sequelae of an even more serious character, and it is under the name of the particular sequela which proves fatal that the case is recorded. For this, as well as for another obvious reason, the amount of the disease recorded in published figures is grossly below the truth. It is one of the diseases in which early recognition and treatment is particularly essential to cure and to the prevention of spread. Were it not for its etiological associations it would receive much more administrative attention than it has had; and so far as the public health is concerned, not the least of the advantages of a system ensuring prompt diagnosis and treatment of all diseases would be that it would for the first time begin to give some effective control over syphilis without singling it out for exceptional treatment to which many people would object.

Unreliability
of published
statistics of
syphilis.

Need of
prompt
diagnosis
and treat-
ment of
syphilis.

THE PROPER STANDARD OF MEDICAL AID.

Proper stan-
dard of
medical aid
and need of
measures to
combat
preventable
disease.

17. Putting together all the facts which I have outlined, the standard of medical aid which I regard as required by the health of the community is such a system as will assure effectively the early recognition and the proper treatment of all disease; and measures which fall short of that standard will leave in the community an amount of preventable disease varying with the imperfection of the system.

With the help of this standard I will now consider the sufficiency of the present arrangements for medical treatment.

THE SUFFICIENCY OF THE PRESENT MEDICAL SERVICES.

(a) *Treatment of Acute Disease.*

Need of
better
accommoda-
tion and
treatment for
puerperal
fever, erysi-
pelas, and
acute vener-
eal diseases.

Danger of
treating
erysipelas
and puerper-
al fever in
workhouse
infirmary.

18. The treatment of most forms of acute disease, when once diagnosed, is relatively satisfactory, whether the disease be infectious or not. The chief exceptions to this statement are to be found in the treatment of puerperal fever, erysipelas and acute venereal diseases. General hospitals as a rule will not admit puerperal fever, erysipelas, gonorrhoea or syphilis because of the risk to other patients. A few municipalities admit the first two diseases to their isolation hospitals; and there can be no doubt that this is the proper course to adopt. Meanwhile, in most districts the only available institution is the Poor Law infirmary, admission to which is beset with difficulties. The admission of erysipelas to the workhouse infirmary, unless in a special ward, is not free from danger to patients with ulcerated legs, etc. In the case of puerperal fever it is doubtful whether, when admission has been obtained, it is really conducive, under conditions now common, to successful treatment; and unless special precautions are taken it involves risks to the patients in the lying-in department of the workhouse.

The control of midwives at the present time is unsatisfactory, and with some notable exceptions there is insufficient or no supervision of their work, and no arrangements for providing them with medical aid when they require it.

In non-infectious diseases the patient may not be treated properly until his condition is grave enough to drive him into hospital, and there may be much difficulty in obtaining admission.

(b) *Diagnosis and Domiciliary Treatment.*

19. In every branch of practice among the poor the arrangements for diagnosis are wholly insufficient. This deficiency is verified in the daily experience of medical officers of health as to infections, and of hospital physicians and surgeons as to non-infectious disease. In the households of the masses of the population whose health determines that of the community, the normal condition is to shirk medical advice, often even when the health of the occupants has already been affected. In respect of infectious disease this results in reducing considerably the benefit of the measures taken by the public health service, notably of isolation hospitals. The accommodation which they provide is devoted in substantial part to clearing up the leakage of infection which has occurred in missed or late notified cases instead of being devoted wholly to the treatment of cases notified immediately after onset of the disease. I propose for my present purpose to assume that this state of things is admitted on all hands, and that the Commissioners will have satisfied themselves already of its existence. If any doubt, however, were entertained on the point, I could give such particulars of experience within my knowledge, as in my judgment would amount to demonstration. Meanwhile I will express my personal opinion, with which I think most medical officers of health would agree as being that probably more cases of epidemic disease occur through delay in diagnosis than through any other single cause. In regard to chronic infectious diseases, including phthisis and syphilis, the difficulty of obtaining early recognition is nearly as great as with non-infectious diseases, and the consequences to the patient and to those associated with him are no less serious.

(c) *The Causes of Delayed Diagnosis.*

20. Apart from the indifference born of ignorance, which is gradually being dispelled, the chief reason preventing early recognition of disease is expense. The payment made by the patient in the case of friendly societies and provident dispensaries secures more attendance than in the case of private doctors; but it secures it at rates so low as to make it almost impossible for the medical attendant to make proper examination of each case if he is to earn his living from his practice. It is not probably through failing to see the doctor that the diseases of patients who belong to such clubs fail to be recognised; the reason is simply that at the rates of remuneration that are paid, the doctor has not time to make sure of recognising them. The patients who go to private doctors charging fees from sixpence upwards are as a rule still worse off; for, with no better chance of a sufficient examination, they have a direct inducement for postponing the chance of it in the hope of saving the fee, which they can as ill afford to pay as the doctor can to give a proper examination for it. Doubtless there are in the profession men of exceptional mental and physical capacity who, unhappily for themselves, have to conduct their practices under such conditions, and manage nevertheless to do justice to their patients. I am certain that few doctors would scamp a case if time allowed them to examine it properly; and the reason that the number of those who examine all their patients properly in practices of this kind is small is that no ordinary man can do it in any practicable working hours. If the case is unusual or difficult the services of a consultant can seldom be secured unless the patient goes to a hospital.

21. In public dispensaries and the out-patient departments of hospitals the same difficulties arise. The expense in such cases is not direct, consisting as it does in the time that has to be spent in waiting to receive attention; but probably this would amount in money to almost as much as the cost of private attendance. The patient also runs some substantial risk of acquiring or giving infection in the waiting-rooms, particularly of children's hospitals, and is subjected to the humiliating questions

Need of
more con-
over mid-
wives.

Difficulty
admission
over mid-
voluntary
hospital.

Tendency
communi-
to shirk
medical
advice and
voluntary
effects.

Expense
cause of
delayed
diagnosis.

Evils of
cheap
doctoring.

Deterrence
of volun-
tary
public
dispensaries.

which under the existing system are very properly asked as to his qualifying indigence or destitution. These circumstances undoubtedly act on patients as motives for postponing application to the hospital until the illness becomes unbearable, and serve in the majority of cases to delay the decision to go to a general hospital until the disease has already made headway. Further delay after the decision has been reached occurs because a "letter" has to be obtained. In this process a delay of twenty-four or forty-eight hours or even longer may very likely occur; and in some acute diseases, this may not only serve to disseminate infection, but may reduce or even abolish the chance of cure. When the patient ultimately has obtained admission, the examination which is made in dispensaries and out-patient rooms is open to precisely the same objection as that given by the clubs and private doctors in practice among the poor; that the number of patients attended in a day exceeds largely the number that can be examined properly. Thus an enormous amount of disease unquestionably slips unrecognised through the fingers of the over-burdened doctors, and is left to mature into a graver condition without proper treatment.

THE DECREASE OF PHTHISIS.

22. Of preventable diseases the most important and one of the most tractable to administrative measures is phthisis. In considering practical measures for its further reduction it is necessary to assign the order of importance of the various causes of the reduction of the disease which in this country has already occurred. The public health service would be prepared to attack the disease along all lines simultaneously; but the cost of doing so effectively would be beyond any sum that there would be reasonable hope of obtaining from the national or municipal treasuries. It is therefore a matter of great importance to the public health to determine if possible which, if any, of the agencies in question has played the predominant part in causing the reduction, so that whatever funds can be obtained may be used to the greatest advantage.

(a) Phthisis and Poverty.

23. The most obvious explanation of a reduced phthisis rate occurring in a period of increased prosperity is to suggest that the reduction is due to diminishing poverty. No assistance, however, can be obtained from such a suggestion. Though the closeness of the relation of poverty to phthisis and certain other diseases is unquestionable,

poverty is a phenomenon more complex even than disease; and an explanation of a phenomenon in terms of others more complex than that which has to be explained is obviously illusory. It is recognised generally that deficient nutrition, lowered vitality, dirt, overcrowding, and the other incidents of poverty tend to favour disease and in particular phthisis. Poverty is however not the sole influence affecting this disease. Norway, the country with the lowest general death-rate in Europe, is almost the poorest. In phthisis its death-rate, though much less than the highest in Europe, is excessive in relation to its general death-rate; and this excess has occurred in the last twenty years, during which there has been considerable increase of wages throughout the country. In France there has been great decline of poverty without any material effect on the phthisis death-rate; in Ireland, with many indications of somewhat greater prosperity, there has been a rise in the phthisis death-rate. It is evident in fact that, much as the phenomena have in common, they are not exclusively interdependent; and the direct reduction of poverty is therefore not an indispensable condition for the reduction of phthisis, although ultimately it would contribute much to that end. I speak intentionally of direct reduction, because a consideration of the amount of working time now sacrificed to disease shows that the reduction of disease will in itself cause an inevitable, if indirect, reduction of poverty. That poverty and disease work on each other in a vicious circle is deplored often and justly. It may be remembered, however, that this circle may have the quality of its defect; that it may permit the amount of both evils to be decreased by measures directed against disease alone, even in a community which regards its existing amount of poverty as the inevitable result of causes beyond its control, or which is not prepared to make the much greater economic sacrifice involved in dealing with both simultaneously to the utmost practicable extent.

(b) Increase in Institutional Treatment.

24. I propose therefore next to submit the facts which are available for determining the most important cause of the reduction of phthisis and the conclusions to which they lead. Of late years there has been a marked increase in the ratio of the number of cases of sickness, including phthisis, which are treated in institutions in England and Wales to those which are treated at home. The following tables exhibit the gradual transfer of the treatment of disease to institutions:—

Dr. Arthur Newsholme,
M.D.,
F.R.C.P.

3 Feb. 1908.

Increased phthisis not necessarily corollary of increased poverty.

Increase in Institutional treatment and decrease of deaths from phthisis.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

Percentage of Total Deaths in Public Institutions.

Years.	Workhouses and Workhouse Infirmarys.	Hospitals.	Lunatic Asylums.	Total Institutions.	Death-rate per 1,000 of Population.	
					General.	Phthisis.
1869-70	5.7	1.9	0.7	8.3	22.42 (1866-70)	2.45 (1866-70)
1871-75	—	—	—	8.8	21.96	2.22
1876-80	6.3	2.4	0.9	9.6	20.79	2.04
1881-85	6.6	2.9	1.0	10.5	19.40	1.83
1886-90	6.7	3.4	1.1	11.2	18.89	1.64
1891-95	7.2	3.9	1.1	12.2	18.72	1.46
1896-1900	7.7	4.6	1.4	13.7	17.69	1.32
1901-03	8.5	5.9	1.8	16.2	16.18	1.23

Dr. Arthur
Newsholme,
M.D.,
F.R.C.P.

LONDON.

Percentage of Total Deaths in Public Institutions.

3 Feb. 1903.

Years.	Workhouses and Workhouse Infirmaries.	Public Lunatic and Imbecile Asylums.	M. A. B. Hospitals.	Other Hospitals.	Total Institutions.	Death-rate per 1,000 of Population.	
						General.	Phthisis.
1852-55	9.6	0.7	—	—	16.7	23.7	—
1856-60	9.0	0.6	—	—	16.3		—
1861-65	9.0	0.4	—	—	16.2	24.4	2.80
1866-70	9.1	0.5	—	—	16.3		2.86
1871-75	9.8	0.5	—	—	17.3	22.5	2.51
1876-80	11.3	0.4	—	—	18.6		2.40
1881-85	12.3	0.4	—	—	20.5	20.5	2.11
1886-90	11.8	1.9	0.7	8.7	23.1		1.88
1891-95	13.3	2.0	2.0	9.4	26.7	19.6	1.87
1896-1900	14.8	2.1	2.1	10.2	29.2		1.80
1901-04	17.7	2.8	2.2	12.2	34.9	16.9	1.65

It would go further into detail than would be desirable if I were to submit the local figures which show that the transfer of treatment to institutions has particularly affected phthisis. They are to be found elsewhere*, together with those relating to the principal other statements made in this part of my evidence.

(c) Other Influences.

Increased institutional treatment, and consequent reduction of death-rate from phthisis.

25. It will be observed that with increased institutional treatment there has been considerable reduction of the death-rate from phthisis. During the period of this reduction there have also been changes in other social agencies affecting phthisis. There has been steady increase of urbanisation, and the urban populations in this and other countries of which I have examined the figures invariably have suffered from phthisis more than have rural populations. The powerful influence of increased urbanisation has therefore been working against the decrease of the phthisis death-rate, and the net decrease which has occurred shows that the influence of urbanisation must have been outbalanced by other more powerful influences. There has however been a reduction in the urban as well as in the rural death-rate from phthisis; and in both urban and rural rates this reduction, like that which has occurred in the country as a whole, has been greater than the reduction in the corresponding general death-rate. The reduction in the death-rate from phthisis cannot therefore be regarded as due merely to the improvement in the general death-rate. The discovery of the tubercle bacillus in 1882 and the more complete results published by Dr. Koch in 1884 were followed by the adoption of measures in the treatment of phthisis directed against its infectivity. Prior to that date no suspicion of infectivity in this disease had affected general medical practice. The rate of decline has not increased in this country since that date, and in several other countries has slackened perceptibly. The progress of sanitary education cannot therefore have been the cause of the decline which began before it and did not increase with its advent. The same observation applies to the adoption of measures for repressing dust and improving ventilation in factories and workshops. The use of special sanatoria for consumption has been too recent and too slight to have affected the gross figures appreciably. There is good reason for attributing to improvement in subsoil drainage and in milk-supply only a subsidiary importance in the control of phthisis, especially at working ages. On the other hand there has been improvement in housing, as measured by decreased overcrowding, and in well-being, as measured by the prices of wheat, the cost of total food, the total cost of living, the course of wages, the total amount of food consumed, and the course of pauperism. No circumstance offers any *prima facie* reason against one of these

Difficulty of locating predominant cause of decreased phthisis.

factors having been the predominant cause of the reduction; and the improvement in nutrition has been regarded strongly as standing in that relation to the decreased phthisis rate. So far as British experience goes, it appears therefore that among the social phenomena which have been regarded as influencing phthisis, the predominant cause, if there is one, of the reduction of the death rate from phthisis must be increased institutional treatment, improved housing, or in one or more ways improved well-being. So far as action is to be based upon past experience, it is, therefore, to further improvement in one or more of these respects that we must look at present for further reduction of the invalidity and death-rate from phthisis.

Need for increased institutional treatment of phthisis.

(d) The Predominant Influence of Institutional Treatment.

26. The only way in which I have found it possible to decide which of these several variants has been the predominant factor has been the comparative examination of foreign and British experience, in which the same influences have been traced and their relation to the phthisis death rate observed. Increase of phthisis has occurred in Norway, simultaneously with nearly the largest decrease in the general death-rate. In national experience the decline in the phthisis death-rate, where it has occurred, has exceeded constantly and largely the decline in the general mortality, as I have already pointed out has been the case with British urban and British rural experience. This experience confirms the view that the general reduction of phthisis observable in most countries has occurred under the operation of some influence other than, or operating in a markedly different degree from, those to which the decline of the general death rate is due. Improved housing has not served to prevent increase of phthisis in Ireland, nor heavily and continuously congested housing to prevent great decrease of phthisis in Germany, Berlin and New York. The course of the costs of wheat, total food and total living shows only slight correspondence with that of the phthisis rate in Germany and Paris, and in Ireland moves in the inverse direction. Massachusetts has higher wages than Great Britain, and a much higher phthisis rate; considerable rise of wages has been accompanied in Ireland and in Norway by a rise in phthisis. The consumption of food per head shows no correspondence with the extent of prevalence of phthisis; England with twice the meat consumption of Belgium per head of population has no appreciably lower phthisis rate, and no more rapid decrease in prevalence; Paris with high food consumption has by far the highest phthisis rate, and with increasing food consumption shows no certain decrease in phthisis. The factors, therefore, of housing and nutrition have not exerted on the prevalence phthisis such an influence as constantly to counteract of the other factors of its prevalence. On the other hand,

Relation of death-rate from phthisis to general death-rate.

Incidence of sanitary and industrial conditions on phthisis.

* *Journal of Hygiene*, July, 1906.

institutional treatment of phthisis, measured by the ratio of deaths or cases in institutions to deaths or cases in the whole community, shows moderate to close co-variations in all the experiences which have been examined (United Kingdom, London, Norway, Sweden, Copenhagen, Prussia, Berlin, Brussels, and New York; the character of the hospital treatment in Paris does not allow comparison to be made). Measured by the ratio of indoor to total pauperism or of indoor pauperism to total deaths from phthisis, the extent of treatment of phthisis in workhouse infirmaries shows in each of the three countries of the United Kingdom a close co-variation with the reduction of the phthisis rate. Individual examination of the experience of workhouses and workhouse infirmaries in various parts of the United Kingdom shows a constantly increasing use of these institutions for the treatment of phthisis; their total present use for that purpose is very high. In each of the four towns (Brighton, Sheffield, Salford and Newport, Mon.) into which I have been able to make minute examination, increasing use has been accompanied by decreasing phthisis. In addition, in England and Wales a large and increasing amount of phthisis has been treated in institutions such as lunatic asylums, other than workhouses and workhouse infirmaries. In chronic infectious disease, institutional treatment has the advantage of segregating the infective patient from his surroundings, and might *a priori* be expected to have an important effect on the control of infection. The removal of an infectious patient from an unhealthy dwelling in which his disease is specially likely to spread is obviously a measure which limits the spread of infection, while improvement of the dwelling without such removal may, though with less certainty, prevent the infection from taking root. In actual practice both steps should be taken.

No *a priori* expectation could justify a comparison as to the relative magnitude of the influence of institutional segregation and that of the several other factors of the phthisis rate. Indeed, until recently, institutional treatment has been suspected by some of having done more harm by aggregating infection into dangerous foci than it has done good by segregating it from domestic life. The results which I have described in outline show, however, that in all countries in which the two have been compared, the extent of institutional treatment of phthisis has varied inversely with the extent of the disease, and that it is the only factor which has done so. The possibility of coincidences on both the negative and positive side carried thus over so many different countries may be practically ignored, and we are therefore compelled to the conclusion that of all the influences that have affected the prevalence of phthisis in the last forty years the institutional treatment of the disease has been the most powerful.

(e) *The amount of Institutional Treatment.*

27. This conclusion gives the strongest reason for confidence in the effect of institutional treatment. It gives no evidence however that such treatment has been applied to the full extent of its medical or economic possibilities. The figures of the table on p. 991-2 show undoubtedly that the amount has been considerable and an examination of the details on which they are made up confirms this view. In London one-third, in Salford and Sheffield one-fourth, and in Brighton one-fifth of the total deaths from phthisis now occur in workhouse infirmaries. In the Kensington Infirmary each patient spends 95 or 144 days (in two different years), in the Brighton Infirmary 175 days, and in Sheffield Infirmary 311 days before discharge or death. A large number of the most advanced and most dangerous patients are thus kept segregated from their crowded homes, and their susceptible relatives are saved the consequent danger of infection. It may be added that consumptive patients in infirmaries are generally warded together, and that even when this is not done, the conditions of cleanliness, ventilation and freedom from risk of infection are greatly superior to those of the ordinary poverty-stricken home from which the patients come. There has been in fact an immense increase in the extent to which institutional treatment is applied to phthisis, and considerable improvement in the conditions under which it is given. At the same time the difficulty of obtaining early diagnosis is usually even greater than with acute infectious diseases, and a large number of patients reach

an advanced stage, when cure becomes more protracted or impossible, whose disease, if recognised earlier, might have been arrested with relative ease. Workhouse infirmaries are used in advanced cases less than they might be, owing both to the parochial taint and to the unattractive character of the treatment. Consumptives require a diet that is not only nourishing but appetising; in workhouse infirmaries they commonly receive the routine diet for invalids, which is deficient in nutriment, or the routine diet for the able-bodied, which is coarse and unappetising.

28. Special municipal facilities for treatment of phthisis have not yet been provided to any large extent. In Manchester a certain number of advanced cases of consumption have been treated in its small-pox hospital when empty of other patients, and its corporation subsidises a certain number of beds at a sanatorium. In Edinburgh, Leith, and Leicester, and I believe in a few other towns, similar treatment of consumptives in isolation hospitals has already been or is about to be begun. The arrangements at Brighton have been already described. The Local Government Board several years ago approved a scheme for municipal sanatorium for consumption at Sheffield, but this has not yet been erected.

MISCELLANEOUS MUNICIPAL SERVICES.

29. Various measures tending to improve the treatment both of acute and chronic infectious disease, and to assist in giving early diagnosis, have been adopted by some municipalities. Bacteriological laboratories have been started in a considerable number of towns for the free diagnosis of certain diseases, notable diphtheria, enteric fever and phthisis. Thus in Brighton, in 1906, 289 specimens of sputum, in Manchester in 1905, 122, in Sheffield in 1905, 205, and in Liverpool about 108 per 100,000 of population were examined in municipal laboratories. The aid thus given to early diagnosis must have had a considerable effect in restricting the spread of disease. Among minor ailments, the disinfection and cleansing of verminous persons can now be undertaken without parochial restrictions. In various towns school nurses are provided by the Education Committees. In some towns treatment of minor cases of eczema, chilblains, etc., has been undertaken in connection with the school nurses' work; in Croydon the Educational Committee treats chronic inveterate ringworm, and no doubt saves considerably more than the cost of treatment by avoiding prolonged absence from school. The provision of nurses, as allowed by the Brighton Local Act, to which I have referred, is exceptional.

The municipal treatment of other chronic infectious diseases, notably of venereal disease, and of chronic non-infectious diseases is much less advanced than that of phthisis, and leaves very much to be desired. In particular, the absence of an efficient mechanism for the early diagnosis of venereal disease is responsible largely both for its enormous prevalence and for the extreme gravity of a large proportion of the cases.

AGGREGATE MEDICAL SERVICES.

30. I have now finally to deal with the possibility of handing over to one authority the whole medical attendance on the poor; and the facts which I have described furnish a sufficient basis for forming a judgment as to the nature and amount of such work that would have to be done, and the possibility of its being discharged by a single authority. Roughly the work that is being done at present consists, so far as the municipality is concerned, in the free treatment of acute infectious disease, including payment of fees for notification; in some cases free bacteriological diagnosis; and in some cases a certain amount of special provision for phthisis, in connection with which are made inspections serviceable to the general work of the Public Health Department. The provision for erysipelas, puerperal fever, and venereal disease as a rule is very bad. School nurses for contagious complaints are provided in some cases; and in the immediate future there is prospect of an immense increase in the amount of medical inspection of schools. Many municipalities employ health visitors. The treatment in parochial institutions, both indoor and outdoor, is usually belated, the qualifying conditions indeed making it necessary for the patient to exhaust his means, and frequently allow considerable progress in the disease, before he can be treated. The treatment in clubs and

Dr. Arthur Newsholme, M.D., F.R.C.P.

3 Feb. 1908

Deterrence of workhouse infirmaries. Diet for consumptives.

Treatment of consumptives by various municipalities.

Bacteriological diagnoses and other functions of sanitary authorities.

Provision of school nurses by Local Act.

Inchoate provision for venereal disease and grave effects therefrom.

Possibility of one authority functioning medical aid to the poor.

Extent of medical aid through municipalities.

Destitution qualification for parochial medical relief.

Dr. Arthur
Newsholme,
M.D.,
F.R.C.P.

3 Feb. 1903.

Provident
and charit-
able medical
assistance.

dispensaries, in out-patient departments of hospitals, and in private practice is in greater or less measure belated and insufficient. The treatment of acute disease in general voluntary hospitals is excellent; and they provide the only consultants available generally to the poor in unusual or difficult cases.

THE MEDICAL SERVICE REQUIRED FOR THE PUBLIC HEALTH.

Having described some of the details in which the present arrangements for medical aid are insufficient for the health of the community, I have to suggest finally the measures by which the public health seems to me to demand that they should be supplemented or superseded, considering in particular the possibility and expediency of placing the administration of all measures of medical aid in the hands of a single authority.

Possibility of
extension
and co-opera-
tion of exist-
ing medical
systems.

These questions are to be distinguished sharply from those that have to be considered by administrators, whose immediate and special province is to obtain the best results out of whatever mechanism may be at their disposal. In submitting the following suggestions I do not wish to be understood as implying that the possibilities of the existing mechanism have been exhausted. On the contrary, I have given illustrations of ways in which better use could be made of it than is made generally. I am satisfied that neither these illustrations nor the best existing practice represents all that may be done under the present system or rather bundle of systems, as we learn by increasing experience to turn them to better account. In particular, I think that much is to be done in the direction of eking out compulsory powers by securing voluntary co-operation between co-interested authorities and from the public. While the present systems remain in force, every possible encouragement should be given to efforts made towards such advances in their administration. In my present evidence I am, however, asked to discuss, not merely what is the best use that can be made of the existing systems, but also the extent to which they are sufficient for the requirements of the public health. In other words, I have to consider how far these systems prevent such disease as is preventable, and whether any other system would be more effective to that end. I have therefore to speak not only as a medical officer charged with administrative duties, but as a critic of the system under which my administration is conducted. From that standpoint it is now my duty to summarise the effect of the facts which I have related, and of the personal and official experience of which they form a part. For some twenty years it has been my constant and sometimes anxious duty to consider the uses to which existing mechanisms could be put. In the following paragraphs I have made the fullest allowance which I can conceive reasonable for the further work that can be done under these mechanisms and under any variants of them that seem to me practicable while the scope of the public health service is restricted approximately within its present limits. The conclusion at which I have arrived is that.

Possibility of
efficient co-
operation of
existing
medical
systems.

(a) It is impossible under any practicable or conceivable application of the existing systems to secure complete co-operation, to prevent overlapping, and to provide medical aid which shall be "generally sufficient for the health of the community";

(b) The wider application of the principles of preventive medicine would enable this to be done.

Desirability
of one author-
ity function-
ing medical
assistance.

31. It is, I think, not only practicable but also in the highest degree desirable that the existing medical services, together with such additions as may be made to them, should be placed under one control. No other method can avoid duplication of staff, or secure so completely the information necessary for the earliest recognition of disease and of the conditions likely to produce or aggravate it.

Need of
efficient free
medical
assistance.

32. In view of the enormous wastage of life and health through avoidance of treatment, imperfect diagnosis, and insufficient attention which seem to be inevitable under the present system, I believe that mechanism of a purely diagnostic character would work at a far less economy as measured by the ratio of money spent to effect produced than if this mechanism were coupled with facilities for treatment. It seems to me necessary for the maximum economy, as well as efficiency, that every man should have the right to call for gratuitous diagnosis, treatment, and provision of medicine.

33. Such a medical service would secure on the large scale the advantages which on the small scale have been illustrated in the phthisis inspection at Brighton. I select the following as the principal immediate advantages to be expected from such service.

(a) A patient would summon the doctor without waiting for the aggravation of his symptoms, would receive proper instead of perfunctory examination, and in a considerable number of instances would recover without prolonged or permanent disablement, and with a large saving both in health and in money.

(b) A medical officer obtaining entrance on one or other of the inevitable occasions of sickness would be able to exercise the most salutary influence, a real and continuing influence, over the general habits of families, whereas it is common experience that the unsolicited irruption of health visitors upon no special occasion and offering nothing but advice frequently does not lead to permanent improvement.

(c) The extremely important medical inspection of school children would be undertaken where it is chiefly required, that is, in their homes, and absentees would not be left to develop dangerous disease and spread infection until they had become sufficiently ill to compel their parents to incur expense.

(d) By abolishing the out-patient departments of hospitals the physicians and surgeons of these institutions would be free to act as honorary consultants for cases requiring special advice, instead of being occupied as at present with routine attendance on commonplace cases. The municipality would look to the voluntary hospitals for all the assistance that they were willing to provide, and in their own hospital would relieve them of the classes of cases which they dislike receiving.

34. The real difference between this system and that towards which our institutions seem trending of their own accord at the present time is the provision of gratuitous treatment; and from the standpoint of preventive medicine that provision is an essential part of the needs of the public health. It could be reckoned with certainty that although in the first instance the number of medical consultations occurring in the community would be increased, the occasions for such consultation would ultimately dwindle; and I think it quite reasonable to hope that the decrease would be of such an order as to demand for the proper performance of the work a not much greater number of doctors distributed among the population in its healthier condition than are occupied at present in unsatisfactory work in a population impostsomated with undiagnosed and untreated disease.

35. The saving of sickness would be felt not only by the individual patients, but by their friendly societies and clubs. They would be able to devote to their provident arrangements the funds that are devoted at present to the tardy and insufficient treatment of sickness; and they would have better protection against the malingering associated with the present system in which doctors are elected by and dependent for the retention of their posts on the votes of the members.

36. For the system of free medical attendance to work satisfactorily it would be indispensable to remove from it the parochial stigma. In order to do this the provision of medical attendance must be in the hands of a department separate from that which is concerned with the administration of other relief. I will not say that even from the standpoint of medicine it is a matter of indifference to find patients whose health is undermined by insufficient nutrition, nor that it would not be a matter of the utmost satisfaction from this point of view to know that the means for providing such nutrition could always be had. I have considered this question however upon the assumption that medical aid is to be regarded as entirely separate from other aid, and that the only relief of poverty on which preventive medicine is to count is that which comes from improvement in health. By adhering to this assumption the possible demoralising effect of gratuitous relief will, I believe, be avoided altogether. The form in which medical aid would be given would be such as constantly to enforce on the minds of the patients their duty to the community and to themselves in matters of health. Though they would pay nothing, they would not be merely passive recipients of advice and attention. The influence of the doctor would demand

Need for
domiciliary
medical
inspection of
school
children.

Abolition
of out-
patients at
voluntary
hospitals.

Advantages
of free
diagnosis and
treatment.

Effect of free
medical
assistance on
provident
societies.

Provision of
medical
comforts.

Effect of free
medical
assistance on
personal re-
sponsibility.

from them habits of life and even sacrifices of personal taste in the interest of the health of the community, their families and themselves, which would leave them conscious of a sensible discharge of duty in return for the attention which they received. The discipline of responsibility into which the system would educate them should, in my judgment, suffice to avoid the loss of self-respect liable to arise from the merely passive receipt of gifts; and it would introduce into the national life an attitude towards matters of personal health that would have an indirect influence upon conduct, while directly restricting disease.

37. Such a system would require the medical aid to be in the hands of the public health department, while the Poor Law function of the board of guardians might be taken over by a committee of the municipality, perhaps with co-opted members as in the case of the Education Committee. The public health department would take over the present parochial medical officers, the number of district medical officers thus created being increased as circumstances required. All new district medical officers should be required to be trained in public health as well as in clinical medicine. In small districts the district medical officer would likewise be the medical inspector of scholars, and follow up absentees from sickness without waiting to be called; in larger districts the district and the scholars' medical officers would be separate; but their work would be co-ordinated by the medical officer of health, and the information obtained by either would be at the disposal of the other. The workhouse infirmary buildings would be utilised in most cases as municipal hospitals.

I need not follow into greater detail the manner in which the preventive work of the medical officer of health would be assisted by a system of this character, as it will be sufficiently apparent from the instances that I have given.

92535. (*Bishop of Ross.*) I notice that you have carried out several investigations with regard to disease?—Yes.

92536. And you also have written a number of papers in medical journals and delivered addresses to medical societies?—Yes.

92537. You have made a very particular study of disease, especially of infectious disease in relation to public health?—That is so.

92538. The first portion of your Paper gives a very interesting account of the agencies at work in Brighton to deal with the public health, and the second part of your Paper deals with the more general questions as affecting the whole country?—That is so.

92539. You point out that in Brighton you have municipal agencies, Poor Law agencies, and voluntary agencies?—Yes.

92540. And amongst the municipal agencies you regard, I think, as most important the isolation hospital including the sanatorium branch?—That is so.

92541. For four or five years past you have had some beds in the isolation hospital for phthisis, I see?—Yes.

92542. You began with ten beds?—Yes.

92543. And then afterwards the number was increased to twenty-five?—That is so.

92544. I see that you warn the patients when entering that you do not take them in with a view of procuring an immediate cure?—That is so; but more with the view of guiding them in the management of their illness.

92545. And also, I presume, with the view of guiding them so as to prevent the infection of their families?—Yes.

92546. I understand that the greatest danger of infection comes from the sputum of these patients?—Yes.

92547. The bacillus seems to infect the sputum and thus to get into the air?—Yes.

92548. What proportion would you think exists between the infection coming from the sputum, and the infection coming from all the other causes?—I should say that a very much higher proportion comes from the sputum than from any other sources.

92549. Do you go so far as to say that as high a proportion comes from the sputum as from all the other sources?—The proportion in my opinion is much higher.

92550. Much higher from the sputum than from all the other sources combined?—Yes.

92551. Consequently, in the fight against phthisis, the main object would be to regulate the sputum, I presume?—The sputum and the coughing, because occasionally spray is emitted when coughing.

92552. That is so when the cough is violent, and particularly, I presume, in the more advanced stages?—Yes.

92553. Then the bacillus may be ejected in the coughing?—Yes.

92554. In addition to taking those cases into the sanatorium, you have external agencies for looking after these persons, have you not?—Yes. Each case is visited once by myself or by the assistant medical officer of health, and then quarterly by a skilled sanitary inspector; and aid is given to the patients at those visits as required—advice, the provision of sputum bottles and handkerchiefs, hospital letters and tickets, and their admission to the sanatorium when needed. At the same time, disinfection is done when required, the room is cleansed, and any sanitary defects are remedied.

92555. You attach considerable importance, I presume, to those household visits, do you not?—Very great importance.

92556. Do you think the treatment in the sanatorium itself would be ineffective without following the cases up in this way in their own homes?—The two together complement each other, and make a much more complete arrangement. The sanatorium has the great advantage that you train the patients how to manage without being a source of infection to others.

92557. Do you regard it as more valuable as an educational institution, than as a curative institution?—Yes. At the same time it is only right to add that a large proportion of the cases get better for several years, and undoubtedly their working life is prolonged, even though the average treatment does not exceed five or six weeks.

92558. Something will depend, will it not, on the conditions of life that those patients have when they go home?—Yes.

92559. If the conditions of life were very bad, very insanitary, and very poor before the patient entered, and then after he has spent the five or six weeks in the sanatorium, he returns to the same conditions, both as to housing and as to food, would you expect much benefit from treatment in that case?—No doubt, he would relapse more quickly than in other cases; but the public would have got the very great advantage that they would be protected, assuming the man were intelligent and able to follow out the instructions as to his sputum which had been given him, and in the following out of which he had been accurately and persistently trained.

92560. There would be two advantages therefore—first, that the man would have been removed for the period of five or six weeks?—Yes.

92561. And secondly, that after he returned he would be able to so regulate his conduct as to protect others?—That is so.

92562. But personally, do you think he might relapse even more quickly than if he had not gone at all?—No, I should not say that. He would relapse more quickly than another patient who returned to a fairly comfortable home or to fairly comfortable work.

92563. But he would not be in a worse condition than if he had never gone?—He would be in a better condition.

92564. Of course, the number of permanent cures cannot form a very large percentage, but the permanent cures are effected mainly, I should think, by a change of climate and a change of conditions altogether.—A permanent cure depends very largely on the stage at which the disease is discovered and treated. Unfortunately, in the majority of cases among the working-classes the previous medical treatment has been unsatisfactory, and the disease is already too far advanced for permanent cure.

92565. If a case were taken in its very earliest stages, would you think a permanent cure would then be possible?—A very large proportion of those cases are permanently cured.

Dr. Arthur Newsholme, M.D., F.R.C.P.

3 Feb. 1908.

Advice and domiciliary visitations by sanitary officers to consumptives

Educative value of sanatorium treatment.

Effect of insanitary surroundings on ex-sanatorium patient.

Unsatisfactory treatment of working-classes.

Cure of incipient phthisis, and period of incubation.

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3 Feb. 1908.

Cure of
incipient
phthisis, and
period of
incubation.

92566. The period of cure takes a long time, does it not?—Yes, I think at least six months in a sanatorium. Even with a good class of patients, it is reckoned that you cannot guarantee a cure in less than six months.

92567. At the end of six months would you be able to certify that the patient had got rid of the bacilli, and that he was back to his normal health?—No, you could never say that. A man who has had consumption, though he probably will remain well for the rest of his life, may be sitting, so to speak, on an inactive volcano which may flare up again.

92568. The disease, of course, is very slow?—Yes.

92569. What would you say is the period of incubation of the disease?—That is a moot point. I believe it is often very much longer than is usually recognised, and that it is as long as five, ten or even fifteen years. Children are often infected in childhood, and the disease does not develop until adult life.

92570. Taking your own figures, you say that in Brighton there are about 170 deaths annually from phthisis and about 700 notified cases?—Yes.

92571. Taking those two figures, the period of the disease would be at least four years?—It comes out on an average at four years at least.

92572. That is taking those figures alone?—Yes.

92573. Although you have brought notification to considerable perfection, still I presume you would admit that all the cases are not notified?—They are not.

92574. Of course, the cases of those children you have just mentioned would not be suspected by anybody?—That is so.

92575. Therefore, even on those figures the course of the disease would be longer than the four years?—I think there is no doubt it is.

92576. That it is longer than four years?—Yes, taking the average.

92577. And that constitutes the great difficulty of the disease as compared with other diseases?—Yes that is so; and it emphasises the importance of so training them that they will not, during the prolonged course of the disease, be a source of danger to others.

92578. During the greater part of the time the people are at work?—Yes.

92579. And if they are withdrawn from work very often you have got to deal with the family too?—Yes.

92580. I met a gentleman the other day who told me that his ploughman had developed the disease; the employer sent his ploughman to a sanatorium and was paying for him there, and while the ploughman was away he had to pay his full wages to the ploughman's wife, otherwise the wife and family would starve?—That is a practical difficulty we have found in Brighton. That was one of the reasons which led us to select the shorter term of treatment, during which a man has to leave his work, rather than a longer period, because though the latter would give a better chance of cure, it would enable you to treat only a smaller number of patients. Under the present system, we have passed over 50 per cent. of our known cases through our sanatorium.

Statistics of
death-rate
from phthisis.

92581. I see you have stated that. I presume your machinery has been far too short a time at work for you to be able to draw any conclusion; but up to this date, do you think you have affected the disease substantially in Brighton?—I do not think you can show anything by the statistics of the death rate, as the interval is too short. One must look ahead ten or fifteen years before one can hope to be able to show satisfactory statistical returns.

92582. I quite agree with you that the time is too short; but so far you have made no impression on it statistically, have you?—There is no evidence of that.

92583. The population of Brighton I see is 128,000?—Yes.

92584. And the deaths from phthisis on that population are 170?—Yes.

92585. That works out to 1·33 per 1,000, I think?—Yes.

92586. That is slightly higher than what you state in another portion of your paper as being the general death-rate for all England, that figure in the table given in Paragraph 24 being 1·23?—Yes, it is rather higher, and the reason I should like to mention, as it is of importance locally. People who become consumptive, not only well-to-do people but carpenters, joiners, plumbers and working-men generally, leave their occupation in London and other big towns and come down to Brighton.

92587. As a health resort?—Yes. They try and get work there, and so we have a large imported consumptive population.

92588. So the ratio of consumption on your 128,000 inhabitants is beyond the normal?—That is so.

92589. And consequently if your death rate is also beyond the normal, that is what you would naturally expect?—Yes.

92590. You have already told me, I think, that you attach a good deal of importance to following people up in their own homes, and to home treatment?—Yes.

92591. If that same education which you give during the five weeks in the sanatorium could be brought about in the home itself—I quite understand that I am making an assumption which you probably will not admit—then you would say, would you not, that that home treatment would have the same effect as the sanatorium treatment?—In the first place, I do not agree, even if you could bring about the same education at home, that the home treatment would have the same effect; and secondly, you cannot train them in the same way at home as you can in five weeks in the sanatorium.

92592. I assumed that you would not agree with that portion of the proposition; but if you could bring about the same education, why should it not have the same effect?—Because the proper hygienic and medical treatment of consumption involves specialised education, and that the patient cannot get under home conditions. A doctor comes in hurriedly for three minutes, and he has not time to give it, and if he gives it without the object-lesson which a man gets by residence in a well-ordered sanatorium, it would not have the same effect on the man's mind.

92593. I admit that a mere hurried visit on the part of the doctor would not have that effect?—It is the difference between an object-lesson and a mere discourse.

92594. Certainly. I have before my mind a scattered population such as we have in Ireland. The suggestion has been made to set up a rather elaborate system of public health administration with regard to phthisis. The proposal is that there should be a county officer of health with a number of subordinate medical officers of health under him, that these officers would have to settle down in the midst of the people—the population, you remember, are all scattered in Ireland—and that each doctor should spend his entire time and go from house to house to instruct the people, not merely with regard to phthisis, but in all sanitary matters—that he should spend his whole days at that and do nothing else. The idea is that he would deal with perhaps two or three families each day, then go on the next two or three houses and return again to the first houses, and in that way that he would deal in the course of twelve months with, it was thought, a population of 9,000 or 10,000 people, which would be about 2,000 houses in twelve months. He would be doing a great deal more than a doctor paying a hurried visit, because he would instruct the people in the houses, and he would return to them again and again. He would supply these sputum bottles, and insist that they should be used. Also as part of the idea, he should have at his control a certain amount of money by which he would be enabled to give additional nourishment where nourishment was required, but where the people were far too poor to secure the nourishment for themselves. He also would have to arrange the place domestically with regard to ventilation and with regard to sleeping accommodation and all that. Would you think that that system would be reasonably effective?—I do not assume for a moment that that system would be as effective as taking all these people into a sanatorium and keeping them there for twelve months, but do you think that system would be as effective as keeping the people for five weeks in a sanatorium?—We have tried it in Brighton, and it has been a relative failure.

Superiority
of
sanatorium
over home
treatment of
phthisis.

92595. Have you tried it in the fashion which I have stated?—I, as the medical officer of health, and my medical assistants have gone to these homes.

92596. Have you sat down in the house for hours together?—Not for hours together. We have given detailed definite instructions, and we have gone again in a month or two months and found that these instructions had not impressed themselves on the minds of the people. Really, in a chronic disease like consumption, in which the hygienic method of spitting is so contrary to their usual habits, you have to impress them with what other people are doing in a well-ordered institution, and to show them the need for it, and to teach them how to do it for four or five weeks before they will actually follow it out. That has been our local experience.

92597. There is this difficulty, I presume—that some of those who have gone to a sanatorium and who have been taught how to manage their sputum, owing to the spirit of shame and self-consciousness and so on, when they return amongst their neighbours are ashamed to take out the spit-bottle and use that?—Yes.

92598. If those persons were instructed in their own family and in their own neighbourhood, all the other members of the family would know the necessity of using this spit-bottle, the neighbours would also be aware of the necessity of using it, and all would know that a particular person in the district was affected with the disease; would that not consequently prepare the way for the person using that bottle and using the other personally defensive methods?—I do not wish to argue against the proposal. Both proposals are good, and they supplement each other. If you cannot adopt one, adopt the other, but it would be much better to adopt both.

92599. But, of course, the question of money comes in?—Yes.

92600. By the method I have been suggesting to you, a certain sum of money would go a great deal farther than if it were spent in sanatorium work?—I suppose that would be so.

92601. I have to deal with the county of Cork, and they have agreed to strike a 1d. rate over the county, which 1d. rate will bring in £5,360. According to the method I suggest, they will be able to have a medical officer of health for the county and eight young medical officers under him, and it is hoped that in the course of a few years they would be able to make a house-to-house visitation of the population, consisting of 400,000 people scattered over an enormous area, whereas if the money were spent in a sanatorium, they could only expect to treat 200 persons in a year?—I think the answer to that would be that you need not build expensive sanatoriums. You can use a detached wing of your workhouse infirmary and get very good results there, as long as you have proper nursing and instruction.

92602. The capital money spent in building does not count much; it is really the expense of feeding, the expense of attendants, and the expense from day to day, that is the important thing, though of course the capital sums should be protected also. The real difficulty is the attendance on those people in the sanatorium?—Yes, it is.

92603. By the other method, they maintain themselves in their own houses, except that you might give them a few additional medical comforts, and 2s., 3s., or 4s. a week would go a long way in that, would it not?—Yes.

92604. Whereas 2s. or 3s. or 4s. a week would have no effect on their treatment in the sanatorium?—Relatively little.

92605. Therefore, the idea is that you could get at the population much faster and cover the whole county in the course of a few years—about three years, and so get at the whole of the people, whereas if we were to take them into a sanatorium we would never see the end of it. Do you think if we could not afford the sanatorium treatment for all these sufferers, that that would be a good method?—It would be doing good work.

92606. As regards the cost of the municipal services in Brighton I see that the total cost of the Public Health Department is a little over 1d. in the £., about 2½d. in

the £ for the isolation hospital, and about 1d. in the £ for the housing of the working-classes?—Yes.

92607. That is about 4d. in the £ altogether for these public works?—Yes.

92608. You point out that is a small sum as compared with what is spent upon educational and other purposes?—That is so.

92609. I suppose we need not go into your figures as to the number of patients in the hospitals, as they seem clear enough. On the question of confinements, you point out that there is a difficulty in dealing with midwives?—Yes; there is considerable difficulty in that. We have no arrangement for paying the fees of the doctors who need to be called upon for operative midwifery, and the result is that the private midwives do not call in doctors when they ought to do, whereas the midwives who attend in connection with the lying-in institution do. That is a serious hardship which is not met under present arrangements. I believe that as a matter of fact the Corporations of Liverpool and Manchester and of one or two other places have already undertaken to pay those fees.

92610. It is a question of the fees, of course?—That is so.

92611. You make a remark in your Statement that the practitioner is sometimes unwilling to examine the patient, because he is afraid of carrying infection to his paying patients?—That introduces another difficulty—the question of septic poisoning. When a midwife has a case which, as they say, goes wrong, she calls in a doctor to help, and he is afraid to help lest he should injure his own patients. In Brighton, at any rate, there is no definite arrangement at present for taking those cases of puerperal fever either into the workhouse or into the isolation hospital. They take them into the Monsall Fever Hospital at Manchester, but that is not generally done all over the country and it is an arrangement which needs developing.

92612. With regard to infection, does not the same difficulty arise amongst the doctor's paying patients?—It does arise.

92613. If he treats amongst his paying patients a case exactly similar, is there not exactly the same danger of his carrying the infection to his other patients?—The money difficulty does not arise there.

92614. That is what I want to get at—how?—He gives up the rest of his midwifery practice, and gets a qualified assistant or deputy to attend to that whilst he attends to this case only.

92615. And so he confines himself to the one case during that time?—Yes.

92616. Therefore, it comes back to being a monetary difficulty, in other words, he must be paid for confining his whole attention to that individual case?—Yes.

92617. You complain that there is a good deal of overlap between the municipal work, the Poor Law work, and the private work?—Yes, there is.

92618. You suggest that the service should be under one authority?—I do.

92619. I do not know whether I have understood you rightly, but there seem to be two views running through your Paper—one view being to get the services under one authority, who, I presume, would be the Public Health Authority?—Yes.

92620. And then towards the end of your Paper you go farther still, and say you would give free medical relief, the relief to everybody that asks for it. I do not know whether I have understood you rightly that there are two views before your mind, or is there only one view?—Free medical relief is the medical ideal. I was asked to give evidence from the medical point of view, and that is, undoubtedly, the ideal from the point of view of the utmost medical efficiency.

92621. I suppose that politically that is not practical. That being so, would you think it an improvement to get the services as far as possible under one head?—It would be a very great improvement, I should say.

92622. Would you think it worth while to discuss that side of the question for a moment?—Undoubtedly.

Dr. Arthur Newsholme,
M.D.,
F.R.C.P.

3 Feb. 1908.

Payment of doctors called in by midwives.

Overlapping of various medical agencies.

One authority for medical agencies.

Free medical ideal.

Unification of medical services.

Dr. Arthur Newsholme, M.D., F.R.C.P. 92623. Free medical treatment may or may not be a long way off—I do not know; in the meantime, I suppose you would greatly prefer to have all the services under one head?—All the medical services should be unified.

3 Feb. 1908.

92624. And, I presume, should be under the municipal medical officer of health, or in counties under the county medical officer of health?—That would be so.

Administra-
tion under
suggested
reform.

92625. How could you fit together the Poor Law men and the public health men?—I take it that under any such arrangements, the district medical officers who now attend the poor medically would come under the sanitary or public health committee instead of being under the board of guardians as at present. In that way, they would be at once correlated to the superintendent medical officer, who would direct their efforts from the preventive medicine point of view, and who would receive from them valuable information as to the domestic conditions under which the sick poor are living, which would enable him to prevent the recurrence of those conditions, or the continuance of them.

92626. At present, the public health service is under the authority of the municipality, is it not?—Yes.

92627. And the district or parish medical officers are under the Poor Law authority?—Yes.

92628. The public health officers are paid, I presume, out of the county funds or out of the municipal funds?—In boroughs they are paid out of the municipal funds, and in the counties, I believe, the county council pays half the salary and the local sanitary authority pays the other half.

92629. The parish doctors are paid out of the poor rates by the board of guardians, are they not?—Yes.

92630. And as a sort of corollary the board of guardians has the selection or the appointment of the parish officers?—Yes.

92631. Under the new arrangement who would have the appointment of the parish officers, and by whom would they be paid?—They would clearly be paid by those under whom they worked, that is, by the sanitary authority.

92632. We have a county sanitary authority, and we also have another sanitary authority which is either the municipality or the urban district council, or the rural district council?—Yes.

92633. In the municipalities, the thing works out smoothly, because of course, the municipality covers the whole town or borough; but in the counties you have the county council, which is the sanitary authority, and then you have a number of rural district councils and a number of urban district councils within the area of the county, and those are also sanitary authorities?—Yes.

92634. Under the proposed arrangement, the parish doctors would be the officers of the sanitary authority?—Yes.

92635. And, therefore, presumably would be appointed and paid by them. Then we come to this: Would you have them appointed by the county sanitary authorities and paid out of the funds of the county at large, or would you have them appointed by the urban sanitary authority or the rural sanitary authority?—I am not prepared to give an opinion on that point. I have not worked that out in detail; it is a matter for consultation. The point of principle is the unification of the public health and the Poor Law medical service; the working out of the details need not give any great difficulty.

92636. I quite see the ideal, but, of course, when you come to work it out there are always obstacles in the way of working things out?—Yes.

Adminis-
trative value
of larger
authorities
for Poor Law
and Public
Health.

92637. You would not undertake, I gather, to express a preference for the county system rather than the local system, as you have not considered the matter sufficiently. I will just put it in this way: The present Poor Law union does not correspond exactly with, say, a rural district or an urban district?—That is so. May I put it shortly, as I see your point? I think larger authorities are very much to be preferred either for public health or for Poor Law administration. That is the general principle, I think; and it would mean greater efficiency and greater economy. As to details I am not prepared at the present moment to express any opinion.

92638. That is quite sufficient. As far as you have made up your mind, you incline towards the county authority rather than the local authority?—I am strongly in favour of larger authorities.

92639. So far now for the public health medical service and the Poor Law medical service. Have you any suggestion to offer how you could work in the private practice in any way—apart, that is, from the general question of free medical relief, have you any suggestion to make as to how you would bring the private medical practitioner into co-ordination or harmony with the public medical service?—In what respects? He would remain a private practitioner, and he would be chosen by those who preferred not to come within the public system.

92640. But you complain of the want of co-ordination?—Yes.

92641. And also of the valuable information that cannot be availed of?—Yes.

92642. Now, under your proposal we shall get together two of the agencies, namely the public health medical agency and the Poor Law medical agency; but outside of those two you still leave the very extensive agency of the private practitioner?—Yes.

92643. If you had a free medical service, I presume the private practitioner would practically disappear?—I do not think so. I think very many people would always prefer to have their own private practitioner.

92644. Apart from the free medical service, would you in any way suggest how you might get more information from the private practitioner in order to help on your general work?—At the present time we have a large amount of information from private practitioners in connection with the notification of infectious cases, and I should suggest increasing the number of notifiable diseases. In the second place, it has to be remembered that the private practitioner, apart from this system, would deal chiefly with well-to-do people, concerning whom it is not so important to the health of the community to have accurate information about domestic cleanliness, over-crowding, and so on, as defects do not occur in their houses to the same extent as in poorer houses. In regard to those matters of course you would be getting the most important part of the information from the district medical officers and those who are concerned in this new system—if it were carried out.

92645. Later on we will come to the question of the free medical service. You think that what you have been just describing would be a substantial improvement on the present condition of things, do you?—It would bring into co-operation means for the prevention of disease which at present are lying dormant and unutilised.

92646. But what you have described is not the medical ideal?—No, it is not the absolute ideal, but it is a large step towards it.

92647. In your Statement you discuss the influence of poverty on phthisis and of housing on phthisis, and poverty on various other causes; of course you admit that poverty and phthisis are connected with each other?—Undoubtedly.

92648. But you think that poverty is regarded as too important a factor in the production of phthisis?—Yes. It is a complex including a number of factors and poverty is only a symptom. To get at the real relation between poverty and consumption, you must separate poverty as far as you can into its different elements. As a matter of fact when that is done, it is found that in the different countries where the poorer consumptives are treated to a large extent in institutions, there you have got a much larger decline in the mortality from consumption than you have in the other countries where there is practically no institutional treatment of the disease. International experience shows that to be the case.

92649. In your paper you go on to show that institutional treatment is perhaps the most important factor in the reduction of the disease?—The word I use is "predominant" factor—I think it goes as far as that. At the same time, I realise to the fullest extent the influence of domestic over-crowding, of uncleanness, and of insufficient nutrition, which are undoubtedly important factors.

Effect of free medical service on private practitioners

Need of increasing number of notifiable diseases.

Advantages of unification of medical services.

Incidence of phthisis.

Effect of institutional treatment on mortality from phthisis

92650. You point out that there has been a considerable increase in the ratio of the number of cases treated in institutions in England and Wales in later years?—That is so—the increase has been enormous. As a matter of fact, one out of every three consumptives in London dies in a workhouse infirmary; in Brighton one out of every five; and in Sheffield one out of every four.

92651. That increase in the institutional treatment is only for the cases of the sick?—Yes, and more particularly the more advanced cases of consumption.

92652. And there is no increase in the ratio of general institutional treatment in England and Wales?—Yes—as you will see—taking all diseases together in the table in Paragraph 24.

92653. I am not talking of disease now; I am talking of people in institutions and of institutional treatment apart from disease?—Very few people, I take it, are in institutions unless they are sick, if you include those in asylums under “sickness.” Institutional treatment means sickness—chiefly.

92654. You talk about “Workhouses and workhouse infirmaries” and “lunatic asylums”?—They are either sick or infirm. I think institutional treatment means sickness.

92655. (*Mrs. Webb.*) There may be children?—Yes; the children come in.

92656. And there may be able-bodied people in the workhouses?—Yes. I am not in a position to say what proportion of those there are; but of course the deaths occur amongst sick people, at any rate, and, as a matter of fact, 16 per cent. of the deaths in England occur in public institutions, and 35 per cent. of the deaths in London occur in public institutions.

92657. (*Bishop of Ross.*) I have before my mind an article of yours which I had the pleasure of reading about poverty and disease, particularly in relation to Ireland. There, it seemed to me, you dealt not merely with the treatment of the sick in institutions, but with all institutional treatment, that is, with indoor relief, as against outdoor relief?—Yes.

92658. The point I want to make is this—are you aware that there has been no increase in England and Wales in the ratio of people treated in institutions?—That is so; the figures are approximately stationary. The ratio of paupers treated in institutions to total paupers in England, has however, increased from $\frac{100}{441}$ in 1866–70, to $\frac{392}{392}$ in 1901–03.

92659. I have been looking into the Local Government Board Reports, and I see the figures go back to 1849. In 1849, 7·7 per 1,000 were treated in institutions, and the figures are exactly the same now?—I have here a diagram which shows the in-door and outdoor pauperism over a long series of years, from which you will see that the proportion of the total pauperism which is treated in institutions has greatly increased.

92660. That does not affect the case at all. Away back in the year 1849, 55 per 1,000 of the population in England were on outdoor relief and now the proportion has fallen, or it did fall a few years ago, to 15 per 1,000 though for the last five or six years unfortunately the figure has climbed up and it is now a little over 16 per 1,000. But I suggest that does not affect the question at all, because all these people are outside the institutions?—I suggest to you that it affects it very markedly indeed.

92661. How does it affect it?—The real proportion that you want is, out of a given mass of poverty, what percentage of that mass is treated away from the crowded homes? If the total mass of poverty has gone down and the amount of it treated in-doors remains the same, then you have more segregation of that poverty at the present day than you had twenty years ago; so the proportion between the two is a very important factor indeed.

92662. That brings us back to the intimate connection between poverty and sickness?—Yes.

92663. And therefore poverty is one of the main factors in sickness?—Yes.

92664. Consequently, the reduction of poverty would be one of the chief factors in the reduction of phthisis?—Undoubtedly.

92665. I thought you were going rather on the opposite line?—The reduction of poverty will undoubtedly produce a reduction of consumption. How it produces it is another question.

92666. But it will be one of the chief factors in the reduction?—Yes.

92667. In your table in Paragraph 24 you give the number of deaths in institutions; do you wish the inference to be drawn that the number of cases treated is proportional to the number of deaths?—I got the nearest approximation to the facts bearing on that that I could. I think it is practically certain that if the percentage of total deaths in these institutions has doubled, the proportion of cases treated in these institutions has greatly increased—even if it has not doubled.

92668. You would not say it has doubled, would you?—I would not say it has doubled, but it must have increased, evidently; and I think it is highly probable it has more than doubled, judging by the duration of treatment in these institutions, which has increased; for instance, in the Brighton workhouse the consumptive cases now stop a longer time there than they did five years ago.

92669. Of course, the number of people that die of consumption in all the institutions is a very small proportion of the total deaths?—It is one-third in London.

92670. Your table deals with all England and Wales?—That is so.

92671. And the number of deaths from phthisis in the institutions is a very small proportion of the total deaths for all England and Wales?—Yes, but it is a very large proportion indeed of the total deaths from phthisis in all England and Wales.

92672. In order that we should draw a sure deduction from this table we should know the ratio of deaths to cases treated, should we not?—Yes, if we are in any doubt as to whether a decrease in phthisis has really occurred.

92673. And whether that ratio has gone up or gone down in recent times?—Yes, but as no doubt has been suggested as to a real decrease having occurred in phthisis, the ratio is not material to the concurrence of these figures in the general result which you are questioning.

92674. But you would not give us that ratio?—I am not able to give that.

92675. As the Commission went round England there was evidence given to us that would show that this table is not very safe ground to go upon. The number of deaths in workhouses and workhouse infirmaries, your table shows, has increased from 5·7 in 1869–70 to 8·5 in 1901–03. We learn that the number of able-bodied paupers in the workhouses is constantly on the decrease, and the number of deaths amongst the able-bodied would, of course, be fewer than amongst the others. Again, the children and the grown-up youngsters have to be moved to a larger and larger extent out of the workhouse, and the workhouses are becoming more and more places (as you yourself said a while ago) for the aged, the sick, and the infirm?—Yes, that is so.

92676. If you took a workhouse away back in 1849, which had 500 people in it, you would find that it included a large number of able-bodied and of all the various classes; but if you take a workhouse at the present day with 500 people in it, you will find that they will be consisting mainly of the old and the infirm; would not the number of deaths naturally go up under those circumstances?—Undoubtedly.

92677. Without any reference to the additional sickness, because you would have a number of deaths from old age, for instance?—The evidence of the Poor Law inspectors of the Local Government Board—is very emphatic to the effect that workhouse infirmaries have become more and more places for the sick and less and less places for the able-bodied.

92678. Are they not becoming more and more places for the old?—That might be so also; but I am merely quoting from the official reports when I give expression to that view. At the same time if the workhouses and infirmaries contain a higher proportion of aged persons than formerly, inasmuch as there is much less phthisis among the old than among the middle-aged and young, the increase of phthisis cases treated in these institutions becomes the more significant,

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M.D.,
F.R.C.P.*

3 Feb. 1908.

Institutional mortality in England and Wales.

Workhouse statistics as basis for evidence.

Class of cases in workhouse infirmaries.

Workhouse statistics as basis for evidence.

Dr. Arthur
Newsholme
M.D.,
F.R.C.P.

3 Feb. 1908.

Workhouse
statistics as
basis for
evidence.

92679. We have received evidence constantly, and we have heard constant complaints, that the tendency is growing rapidly of children and friends being tired of the old people and sending them into the workhouse to die, and getting rid of them in that way; whereas fifty years ago they kept those old people at home and they died in their own homes or in their children's homes. That tendency would destroy the figures very much, would it not?—That would be so if they stood alone. The age incidence of phthisis, however, and the other considerations to which I have drawn attention prevent this tendency in fact from having any such effect. Unfortunately there are no age statistics in the returns of the Local Government Board on the Poor Law; but it is perfectly clear, I think, that the workhouses and workhouse infirmaries are much more used for sickness than formerly.

92680. Would you not be able to send in the figures of the total number of cases treated institutionally and of the deaths?—Not for the whole country; I do not think those are published.

92681. They would be more reliable than the figures we have, would they not?—Yes.

92682. All that the figures we have will show us is that no doubt the number of cases of sickness treated will have increased, but in what proportion they have increased these figures do not give us any evidence?—There is some side-light thrown on it by the column referring to hospitals, which means voluntary hospitals. You will notice that the percentage for the whole country has gone up from 2·4 in 1876–80, to 5·9 in 1901–03, showing that this tendency towards adopting hospital treatment instead of home treatment is a national phenomenon applying to all forms of institutions.

92683. I have no doubt whatever that the tendency is there, but the point I want to make is that these figures do not supply a sure basis?—They must be taken for what they are worth.

92684. Exactly?—And they are worth a good deal in my opinion.

92685. They show an increase there is no doubt, but if you wish us to infer that the number of cases treated is double, I do not know that we would be on safe grounds? On Saturday I prepared a rough *aide mémoire* of the arrangements for the different forms of treatment which I thought might help my examination, and perhaps I might hand it round now, (*Handing in same.*) (See *Appendix No. VIII (B)*). It is simply a scheme which classifies the different forms of medical aid.

92686. Thank you. Now go to the increase of inmates in lunatic asylums; does that affect your present argument?—Oddly enough, it shows just the same doubling, the same multiplication by two, which has occurred in the case of the workhouse infirmaries.

92687. People are sent into lunatic asylums not because they are physically sick, but because they are insane? That is so.

92688. And if the number of deaths has increased in the asylums, does that not show that unfortunately insanity has gone up in about the same proportion?—The total insanity in the country?

92689. Yes?—There is no certain evidence of that.

92690. We know the number of people treated in asylums fifty years ago, and we know the total population then, so that we know the ratio between the people treated and the population?—That is so.

92691. We know the number treated now and the population now?—Yes.

92692. Has not the ratio more than doubled in the fifty years?—In institutions undoubtedly, but whether the total amount is greater or not is another question.

92693. If the number of people committed to institutions has more than doubled, naturally the number of deaths in those institutions would have more than doubled?—Certainly.

92694. I do not quite follow how that affects the question of public health, except when we come to deal with insanity?—Take the question of asylums; I think a very much higher proportion of those are consumptive than is the case in the general population.

92695. Certainly; but why are they consumptive—because they are insane? Does not insanity lower the vital power of resistance to disease?—No doubt, but it leaves the patients infectious, and their withdrawal reduces the number of sources of infection which threaten the public.

92696. And as a result of insanity are there not two things developed—first, consumption, which is the great cause of death in our Irish asylums, and, secondly, in certain cases paralysis of the insane, of which we have practically none in Ireland, and of which you have a great deal in England?—I must quote against you, Dr. Mott, the distinguished pathologist of the London County Council, who shows by his post-mortem results that in more than half the cases of consumption in these asylums the consumptive disease existed before their admission.

92697. Would you say the insanity arose from the consumption?—No. I simply point out that the asylums were not responsible for it. Probably the consumption existed before they were insane.

92698. Suppose a person is free from phthisis and becomes insane; is not he, as an insane man, much more liable to get phthisis than if he had remained in his sound senses?—Yes, I think that is very likely.

92699. Does not the insanity lower the vital force?—It may be so.

92700. Is he not more liable to get consumption therefore?—On the average, yes.

92701. I do not know whether I might ask you some questions about this article of yours on Ireland?—I have no objection, if it is not spending too much time of the Commission.*

92702. The article has been a good deal quoted latterly in Ireland. The general effect of the article on the mind of its readers has been that phthisis in Ireland has not decreased because there is not sufficient institutional treatment in Ireland, and there is too much outdoor relief. Is that not the general effect of the argument?—Yes; poverty has decreased, but phthisis has increased.

92703. It has increased slightly?—Yes.

92704. It has not decreased as it has done in England and Scotland?—That is so.

92705. The institutional treatment in England of paupers is only 7·7 per 1,000, and in Ireland, as you are aware from your own table, it is 10 per 1,000?—That is so.

92706. Therefore there is a good deal more institutional treatment in Ireland than there is in England and Wales?—Yes, speaking in the gross, so to say.

92707. Again, outdoor relief in Ireland is only 13 per 1,000, and outdoor relief in England is at the present moment 16 per 1,000?—Yes.

92708. Therefore we have less outdoor relief and more indoor relief than in England?—Those figures need to be analysed for this reason: you have a vast dispensary system in Ireland, by which you treat cases of sickness at home who ought not to be treated at home—infectious cases amongst the rest. The gross figures you give need to be analysed into their constituent elements.

92709. We will come to the dispensary system in a minute. So far for the gross figures. Then in Scotland, where consumption has decreased more than even in England—in all Scotland, where you have a larger population than in Ireland, there were only 13,000 people in poorhouses and poorhouse infirmaries, as against the 42,000 that we had in Ireland, and they had 80,000 people on outdoor relief in Scotland as against the 55,000 we had in Ireland?—You attach no importance to the proportion, on which I lay great stress in my two papers, between total pauperism and the amount of that which is segregated. You persistently decline to admit that ratio, which is the fundamental point in the whole subject.

* POVERTY AND DISEASE as illustrated by the Course of Typhus Fever and Phthisis in Ireland, by ARTHUR NEWSHOLME, M.D., F.R.C.P., *Medical Officer of Health, Brighton*. A presidential address delivered on October 25th, 1907, at the first meeting of the Epidemiological Section of the Royal Society of Medicine (*Journal Royal Society Medicine, November, 1907*).

Increase of
inmates in
lunatic
asylums.

Ratio
between
admissions to
lunatic
asylums and
deaths
therein.

Effect on
phthisis of
segregation
of insane.

Pre-existent
consumption
insane.

Extent of
phthisis in
Ireland.

Comparative
statistics of
institutional
treatment in
United
Kingdom.

92710. Take the ratio in Scotland. There you have 7 paupers wandering round for every one segregated; in Ireland you have 42,000 shut up and 55,000 wandering about, and in England you have 263,000 shut up and 550,000 wandering about. So that taking that proportion to which you attach so much importance, the ratio in Ireland is 4 to 5, while the ratio in England is 2 to 5, and the ratio in Scotland is 1 to 7; therefore we have in Ireland far the highest number of segregated of any of the three countries?—Yes, but such segregation!—it is commonly of an abominable kind.

92711. Now we come to the dispensary system. You remark in a portion of your paper that there were so many persons who were treated in their own homes by the dispensary system in Ireland in the year 1903. In order, in my opinion, that the figure which you give should have any effect, you should also have stated whether that figure was greater or less than the number of those who used to be treated in the homes of the people?—If you look at Fig. 4 in my address given to the Epidemiological Society in Oct., 1907, you will see that that shows the increase in the outdoor relief of Ireland.

92712. But that, I think, gives outdoor relief in money, not outdoor dispensary relief? That gives the outdoor relief in number of persons relieved.

92713. But not relieved medically?—It is according to the official statistics supplied by Mr. Courtney.

92714. This is the difficulty in writing about a country that one does not understand; that does not include medical relief at all?—If there is any mistake in that the mistake is that of Mr. Courtney and not my own. I do not think there is a mistake.

92715. Excuse me, doctor, but the medical relief in Ireland is taken altogether apart from the outdoor relief, and the total in your table is the total for outdoor relief in money or in food, the daily number of people relieved by money or food being, as I have said, 55,000 in the year, while the number of people treated in the workhouses and workhouse hospitals was 42,000 in the year. Over and above those figures, you have a number of people treated medically in their own homes by the dispensary doctors. It is not pauperism in Ireland to take medical relief from the dispensary doctor—that does not pauperise anybody, and a number of people are medically treated in their own houses by the dispensary doctors, free of charge, who would not dream of taking monetary relief, or food relief, or indoor relief. I point out to you that unless you can show that the number of people treated in their own homes has been increasing, there is no force in your argument?—I cannot agree with you, but I submit with respect that we are wasting the time of the rest of the Commission in discussing a statistical point which neither you nor I can settle without having the documents in front of us.

92716. I am quite sure of what I am saying. Of course, I quite understand how you fell into the mistake?—I do not admit I have fallen into a mistake, and I do not believe I have. But may I put it in this way: apart from statistics you have in Ireland an enormous excess of home treatment of consumption, which does not occur in England; and in England you have, on the contrary an enormous increase of institutional treatment of this disease. In one country where you have got this increase of institutional treatment you have got a diminution of consumption; in Ireland you have the opposite. It is not simply a case of England versus Ireland; the same conclusion is confirmed by international experience in other countries. Norway, for instance, which has practically no institutional treatment of phthisis, has had an increasing death rate from that disease; but Germany, which has a big institutional treatment quite apart from sanatoria, has a big decline.

92717. I submit that the ratio of the institutional treatment of sickness has increased quite as much in Ireland as it has done in England?—On the contrary, speaking of phthisis, it has approximately doubled in England and halved in Ireland. That brings me to my second point, which is that in Ireland the institutional treatment of disease, judging by the evidence recently given before the Viceregal Commission, is disgusting—the people are allowed to spit on the floors there, and it is the exact antithesis of what occurs in our cleanly English infirmaries and workhouses.

92718. It is not worse now, is it, in your opinion, than it was fifty years ago?—That I am not able to say, but the evidence given by some of the workhouse doctors before that Commission was appalling.

92719. In my opinion, in order that the argument could have any effect, you should show that things were getting worse in Ireland?—That is so.

92720. Do you suggest that they are?—I adhere to the accuracy of that diagram until I have documentary evidence to the contrary.

92721. Here are the documents for you—the Report of the Irish Local Government Board?—May I suggest that, if necessary, I could alter my evidence in proof rather than we should spend the time of the Commission on this one point?

92722. Will you look at the figures? Here are the numbers medically treated in Ireland at the dispensaries, 463,440, and at the patients' homes, 159,871, so that there are 623,311 people medically treated in Ireland, and we have only 97,000 paupers, including those on indoor as well as outdoor relief?—There is a very large number treated in the homes and at the dispensaries; that is clear.

92723. And that number is not included in the statistics of pauperism, as you will see if you look at your own table in your own article, which contains altogether only 97,000 people. Of the 42,000 in the workhouses over 14,000 of those were sick; and in your own workhouse at Brighton, which you regard as a model institution, there were in one half-year 1,207 people as compared with 1,361 in the previous half-year, and the number of sick persons was 400; so that in the workhouse at Brighton you had less than a third of the people treated who were sick people, while in our Irish workhouses, taken altogether, more than a third of the whole of the inmates are sick people?—Yes, that is so.

92724. Then we have a far higher proportion of indoor treatment in Ireland, than you have either in England or in Scotland?—That indoor treatment must be taken in proportion to the total amount of sickness.

92725. In proportion to the amount of poverty we have a far larger proportion of indoor treatment in Ireland than you have in England and in Scotland; and when we come to deal with our indoor treatment we have a higher proportion of sick than you have in England or Scotland. Therefore in a compound proportion we treat more sick in our workhouses than you do in England?—That point I will look into, and, if necessary I will, with the permission of the Commission, alter the proof of my evidence. (*The witness subsequently added the following*): Exact details to the above effect are given in my contributions on Phthisis in the *Journal of Hygiene* and in the *Journal of the Royal Society of Medicine*; but no inference can be drawn from comparing the ratio of admissions to sick in Ireland with the same ratio for England. In the period under consideration the treatment which followed admission was much longer and more effective in England than in Ireland, and a given number of admissions in England represented therefore a much larger curative and preventive effect than the same number in Ireland.

92726. There are some other of your arguments about emigration, for instance, that I would like to discuss with you, but I will not introduce that subject now. I will go to the system of free medical relief: Will you kindly say what you wish to say on that point? We have discussed already what would be the amelioration, but this would be your ideal?—I have stated in Paragraph 17 what I regard as ideal—such a system of medical aid “as will assure effectively the early recognition and the proper treatment of all disease”; that is the ideal. The conclusions at which I have arrived in respect to the present state of things are stated in the last portion of Paragraph 30. The present system does not give medical aid sufficient for the health of the community, and such system to be sufficient for the health of the community can only be provided by introducing the principles of preventive medicine and by making it under one control. The ultimate idea is that every man should have available, and within his reach, immediate, sufficient, and efficient medical treatment.

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3 Feb. 1908.

Medical assistance in Ireland.

Comparison of institutional treatment in England and Ireland.

Free medical relief.

Insufficiency of existing system of medical aid.

Dr. Arthur
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3 Feb. 1908.

Effect of
free medical
relief on
private
practitioners.

92727. You have told me already that you do not think that system will abolish the private practitioner?—I do not see why it should. There are a large proportion of people who would always prefer to have their own private medical practitioner, just as now there are a large number of people who prefer to have their own private schools for their children.

92728. I suppose it would reduce the amount of practice?—Eventually the total amount of practice, both official and non-official, will be enormously reduced if the principle of treating disease from the preventive side is adopted. All doctors in that sense will eventually suffer.

92729. What view do you think the profession would take if a recommendation of this sort were made?—That I cannot say, but for some years I believe they would have more work.

92730. At the present moment you do not know whether they would accept such a proposal or be opposed to it, do you?—I have no means of judging generally, except that I read a paper on this subject at a meeting of the State Medicine Section of the British Medical Association at Exeter last July, and to my surprise, with, I think, only one or two exceptions, out of about fourteen speakers, everyone favoured the principle. That is the only indication I have at the present moment.

92731. That is rather a strong indication. Do you think the system would be in any way abused by people who really do not want medical treatment applying for it, or by people who do not want free medicine asking for it, and perhaps injuring themselves by taking it?—I do not think so. Castor oil is not a favourite beverage; if it were whisky it would be a different matter. I think the medical attendance would be so disciplinary that it would be prohibitive of abuse.

92732. I merely put what is, of course, a *prima facie* objection in order to get an answer on the minutes?—I think it would have the opposite effect, and that ultimately the amount of medicine taken would diminish very much. The reduction in medical attendance would occur through improvement in general health, especially due to its earlier availability. It would not be feared and postponed if the taint of pauperism were removed.

92733. Of course, you quite see that that is an obvious objection, and that it is well to get your explanation on the minutes. You suggest that such treatment should be altogether free from the taint of pauperism?

92734. And so far you wish to follow out to some extent our dispensary system in Ireland of free medical relief without any taint of pauperism?—Undoubtedly. It is admirable in that respect.

92735. Is there any other point you wish to make?—I think not. I think the main points are stated in my proof.

92736. (Mr. Nunn.) There are one or two general questions I should like to ask your opinion upon before coming to your paper. To what extent, to take up what the Bishop has been dealing with, do you propose that the municipal authority, through its public health department, should control the dispensaries or hospitals or club doctors? You propose that it should take in hand the district medical officer of the poor, and you give excellent reasons for that; do not the same reasons apply to a certain extent to the hospitals, the club doctors, and the dispensary doctors, who are almost of equal strength?—I think it would be a grave mistake to tackle them all until you had settled the rest of the problem. Taking over the medical aid of the poor is quite enough to begin with.

92737. But there is a good deal of overlapping at present between the dispensaries and the Poor Law authorities in the matter of medical relief. My point is that the classes are not very different in regard to the poverty and uncleanness of their homes. Any argument that applies to persons who come under the Poor Law, would apply, would it not, with almost equal force to a very large proportion of the people who go to the hospitals, dispensaries, and a certain number of the clubs?—Would that not be met by the fact that freer medical aid to be obtained in connection with the municipal system would drain away the people from the out-patient departments of the hospitals and dispensaries, and so the question would solve itself?

92738. You do not wish for any control of the in-patients' departments of the hospitals, do you?—Speaking generally and broadly, I think it would be a mistake to attempt to deal with that problem. The in-patient departments in the general hospitals, speaking generally, are very well managed, and the treatment of disease is very good. I think it would be a great mistake to interfere with them.

92739. Is that a matter of expediency at all, or what is it?—The problem is too large, and it may never be necessary to interfere with them; at any rate, at the present moment if I were administering the matter, I should regard it as a mistake to have anything to do with the general hospitals.

92740. Take a concrete point: The medical men who are connected with the dispensaries probably come across a considerable percentage of the amount of unsanitary conditions that would be found in the homes of actual paupers; is it not equally desirable to co-ordinate their work under the purview of the municipal body?—I imagine that any scheme for freer medical aid would almost certainly, as a matter of course, bring the dispensaries in. The dispensaries would almost cease to exist in their present form, because the people would go where they can get efficient treatment without having the bother of going for letters and so on.

92741. I thought your point just now was that there was a considerable proportion of patients who preferred to pay their own doctor?—Yes—above the dispensary class.

92742. I see the dispensary in Brighton, for instance, is more largely supported by voluntary contribution than by the workmen themselves?—Yes.

92743. I am speaking now of voluntary dispensaries, and not of Poor Law dispensaries, of course?—That is so; and I am speaking of the same voluntary dispensaries.

92744. The Brighton dispensary is partly provident and partly supported by voluntary contributions?—Yes. The provident element is relatively small.

92745. Would your remarks apply equally to provident dispensaries and to dispensaries voluntarily supported?—At the present moment I do not see how the provident dispensaries would continue to live unless it was decided to give State aid through them by subsidising them. The district medical officers would take their place.

92746. That would produce a very great dislocation, would it not, in the medical profession, and also in the provident habits of the people?—It is a matter of machinery. It might be decided to subsidise the provident dispensaries and aid them to continue.

92747. Under your supervision?—Yes; that would give the right of supervision to the local authority.

92748. That is my point—the extent to which this leads us to the supervision of public practitioners by the various departments of the local authority?—I take it the local authority would have no right to supervise unless it provided some of the funds.

92749. Then with regard to the club doctor, you think that your system would tend to prevent malingering, by club because the doctor would not be in fear of becoming unpopular amongst the members of the club?—That would be so, I think.

92750. I suppose primarily he looks to the committee of the club, does he not, and the committee of the club looks to him to prevent malingering?—Yes; but the committee of the club is elected by the club, and the doctor is subject to re-election annually, and if he has made himself unpopular by restricting the medical aid he does not get re-elected. I have been a doctor of a friendly society myself.

92751. Is there not some doubt whether the doctor does get turned out? We know how conservative club members are, and he rarely loses his post?—I have known cases where they have lost their posts, and, at any rate, the tendency is for the doctor to be lenient with the members who elect him.

Attitude of
private
practitioners
to proposed
free medical
relief.

Effect of
free medical
system.

Question of
municipalisa-
tion of
charitable
and provi-
dent systems.

Question of
municipalisa-
tion of
charitable
and provi-
dent systems.

Dispensary
system in
Brighton.

Question of
state aid for
provident
dispensaries.

Malingering
by club
patients.

92752. Before we leave that subject, what relation do you propose should exist between the prescription of medical aid and of preventive measures, and the provision of medical nourishment and necessities? At present, of course, the district medical officer practically orders what he likes, does he not?—Yes.

92753. Your district medical officers would not have that power, would they?—I think it would be a mistake to let them have it.

92754. What I wanted to arrive at was what machinery, or what provision you would propose, or have you not considered that?—I have not considered that in any detail. I take it that the Poor Law organisation would remain in some form, and that they would give the relief as at present where it was absolutely needed; but, at any rate, the patient and his family, being relieved of one important source of expense, would be in a better position for getting nourishment than they were before.

92755. I think the assumption is that a pauper family is not at all relieved of any expense by this medical aid, as it is so very seldom that it is recovered?—At any rate, I think the two should be absolutely separate, otherwise the doctor would find himself in a very awkward position with regard to the giving of material aid.

92756. You are assuming that there would be some committee or body sufficiently representative to be in immediate touch both with your district medical officers and with whatever person is responsible for providing the relief?—Yes.

92757. Then to take up the question of phthisis, your cases are kept for about five weeks in your sanatorium at Brighton, are they not?—Yes.

92758. That is time for them to learn a good deal, I suppose, but is it time for them to form habits?—On that point I can speak with great confidence, because it is very rare indeed in visiting consumptives after they have left the sanatorium that we find they have gone back to dirty habits. I can only point to two cases of that kind out of some hundred cases treated, and those were cases of laryngeal phthisis where we had unfortunately not been able to do the patients any good, and the patients were rather resentful.

92759. For what cause do you keep a certain number of them for long treatment?—That is under a special charity.

92760. I understand how it happens that you can do it; but I want to know on what ground do you select them?—On two grounds. We have two classes; if they are early cases we think we may get a cure; and then there are other cases, quite advanced cases, who have a wife and a large family, and we think the longer they are kept away from their homes the better.

92761. You are acting there as the relieving agency practically?—That is so.

92762. May I ask when that Act was passed by which you receive the help of a municipal nurse?—I do not remember, but I think it was about 1900.

92763. Lately, in fact?—Not quite lately.

92764. Have you only one municipal nurse?—We send out nurses from the sanatorium as required to a case of puerperal fever, or a case of erysipelas.

92765. It is municipal nursing then in fact?—Yes.

92766. I see you speak of the sanitary inspector as "he"; do you not employ lady inspectors?—No, we have no lady inspector at present.

92767. Which do you prefer?—If I had to choose between the two, a man undoubtedly.

92768. You do prefer a man?—Yes, but I would rather have both.

92769. Is there an open-air ward in the infirmary at Brighton?—They have a large balcony, and some of the patients are wheeled out there.

92770. I do not think you state in your paper that you are in favour of compulsory notification of consumption?—No, I have not said that.

92771. You are in favour of it though, are you not?—With modifications and with safeguards, which I will give if you like.

92772. I should like to hear them?—I think it would be unwise to give compulsory notification of consumption as a general enactment all over the country. I would limit it to those communities which had shown beforehand that they had arrangements for benefiting patients. Consumption is altogether different from an acute infectious disease, and if I ever had the power of regulating it, I would regulate it in such a way that only those who show they had arrangements for inspecting the cases, and visiting them, and helping them, both at home and in sanatoria, should have the option of having compulsory notification.

92773. Would not compulsory notification produce the machinery to a very large extent which would give an impetus to getting rid of the disease?—There is much force in that argument, but I think in a case of a disease like consumption, which has such a chronic course, it is better to go slowly and to educate the people up to it, rather than to run a risk of making martyrs of the patients by persecuting them with visits in connection with which you can do little good.

92774. Have you any corrections to make on your table in Paragraph 11, or is my extreme ignorance the reason why I cannot understand it? In your list of the 100 total deaths from all causes you say: "Acute non-notifiable infectious diseases, including pneumonia and rheumatic fever"—is rheumatic fever infectious?—The germ of it has not been discovered, but the cumulative evidence and analogy are so strong that there is no doubt that it is infectious. As a matter of fact, it has recently been transferred by the Registrar-General from the non-infective to the infective list.

92775. I do not understand what is meant by non-infective diseases?—They are what are commonly called local or constitutional diseases—diseases like cirrhosis of the liver or peritonitis. They are not communicable from one person to another. It means non-infectious; it is almost the same thing as that.

92776. (Mrs. Webb.) Supposing you take medical relief from the Boards of Guardians, would it not be better to transfer all their other functions to other bodies, for instance, the children to the education authority, and so on?—I have not thought that matter out.

92777. Your proposal of transferring the medical relief is not part of any larger plan in your mind, is it?—I think I have mentioned it is likely that this will come within the work of the local authority in the same sense as the school boards came in. To that extent it is part of a larger plan; but that is a matter of administration which I do not pretend to be prepared to give a final opinion upon.

92778. With regard to the number of doctors who might be required if you curtail disease by preventive measures, surely our standard of health might so rise that we should require just as many doctors to raise it still higher?—I think that might be so; but when I gave my answer a little while ago I was thinking of it from the present standpoint. From that standpoint undoubtedly after a few years fewer doctors will be required. But from a progressive standpoint I think that the same number, or even an increasing number, might be needed to raise the standard of health of the community steadily.

92779. Many things which are not considered as diseases now might presently come to be considered diseases?—Yes.

92780. I mean to say, we may have an increase of hygienic knowledge, we may realise what constitutes health, and therefore raise the standard of hygiene?—Yes.

92781. With regard to teaching people good habits, it is not only in phthisis that you require good habits, good habits but there are other diseases where you require them just as much, are there not?—Yes.

92782. Take, for instance, diabetes; is that not largely a matter of good habits?—A diabetic person who would be persistent in taking sugar, for instance, would get steadily worse; whereas if he could be induced to let it be he would get fairly well, probably.

92783. Therefore any system of medical treatment like the present Poor Law treatment, which does not go

Dr. Arthur Newsholme, M.D., F.R.C.P.

3 Feb. 1908.

Non-notifiable infectious diseases

Question of abolishing Boards of Guardians.

Effect of high standard of health on medical faculty.

Influence of good habits on health.

Dr. Arthur
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3 Feb. 1908.

Increase of
personal
responsibility
by free
medical aid.

in for insisting on a regimen, must necessarily be very little good—mere bottles of medicine would not do much good to diabetes, would they?—No. There is an enormous waste of the means of diminishing sickness, which prevents good health at the present time, which might be utilised even if nothing were done to put the present officers under the preventive machinery.

92784. With regard to the individual patients, would you not be increasing the personal responsibility and the personal effort of the individual patient by treating his disease?—That has been my experience in all the diseases which I have had to deal with. From my point of view the giving of aid to the patient has undoubtedly increased the patient's duties and responsibilities.

92785. You mean by increasing personal obligation instead of decreasing it?—That has been the result.

92786. And that would be the result about a very large number of diseases?—I think the same argument would apply generally. Take bronchitis, for instance; a person who has a dusty occupation must take certain precautions; he must wear a respirator or adopt certain means of getting rid of the dust. That is a great nuisance, and the workpeople do not like it, and they would almost rather have the bronchitis. Under a system of preventive medicine, pressure will be brought to bear upon them to use the respirators or other means that were needed.

92787. You might have a body of public opinion growing up against the person who was persistently ill through bad habits?—That would be so.

92788. Has it been brought to your notice that in Germany by giving a greater amount of medical assistance provided for by State insurance you actually increase the obligation to be healthy?—That I do not know.

Possibility
of efficient co-
operation
between
existing
medical
systems.

92789. (*Mr. Bentham.*) I notice that the conclusions you come to after going through the whole of the statement in your paper are: "(a) It is impossible under any practicable or conceivable application of the existing systems to secure complete co-operation, to prevent overlapping, and to provide medical aid which shall be generally sufficient for the health of the community;" and that "(b) the wider application of the principles of preventive medicine would enable this to be done." Really your whole suggestions hang upon this conclusion, I understand?—That is the summing-up of my impressions from what I have said before.

Lack of
co-operation
between
Poor Law
and public
health
authorities.

92790. There is very little attempt now at co-operation between the public health authorities and the Poor Law authorities with regard to medical treatment?—That is so.

92791. That line, I think, has never been adopted by either of those two authorities?—That is so, I believe.

92792. Can you fairly come to the conclusion that no such useful co-operation as could effect the desired results could be brought about provided that were attempted and enforced?—If you will do me the favour of looking higher up in the same column you will see I state that I do not wish to be understood as implying that the possibilities of the existing mechanism have been exhausted.

Need of
unification
of medical
services, and
analogy of
Education.

92793. I have that in mind. Yet although you do not think the possibilities have been exhausted you come to a definite conclusion?—I do not think that you can possibly get such complete and good results if the two sets of officers were working under two different authorities as you would if they were working under one authority. I think it would not be so easy, for instance, for the district medical officer to report over-crowding and dirtiness of houses as it would be if he were working under the same department.

92794. If it became part of his stipulated duty to do so, one would think that he would attend to his duties?—I can speak more definitely from the analogy of education. In past years there has been very great difficulty in getting school attendance officers to report suspicious cases of illness to the medical officer of health—in fact such great difficulty that it was impossible to obtain it although I made various endeavours with the school board, and they agreed on paper, but it did not come off. But since the education committee took over the work of the school board that has come about and we can get it done

now because it is only a question of going from one committee to another of the same town council. That is an illustration which appears to me to point to what I said.

Need of
unification
of medical
services, and
analogy of
Education.

92795. As the committee which has education to deal with is a statutory committee of the county council, in like manner if the whole of the Poor Law arrangements were in the hands of a statutory committee of the county council would not the same result be achieved?—Would you mind giving me that again; I did not quite follow it.

92796. You say your object has been achieved now?—Yes, to a much greater extent, not completely yet.

92797. That is rather a qualification of the original statement?—It is not completely achieved; it is in course of development.

92798. That has been brought about by education being placed in the hands of a statutory committee of the town council?—Yes.

92799. If the whole of the Poor Law arrangements were placed in the hands of a statutory committee of the town council, in like manner you would be able to get close co-operation in the way you desire between medical treatment and the prevention of disease?—That would be a step in advance, but I think it would be a much more important and more successful step in advance if you transferred all the medical functions to one set of men and one committee.

92800. There would still be an item left, would there not, which it is very important to have co-operation upon and that is the provision of medical extras, which I understand you to say you would not give power to the medical officer to give. As they are practically needed in nearly all cases which come under the Poor Law (in my experience a very large percentage of such cases need something in addition) it would mean that those cases would have to be referred to the Poor Law authority in order to get those necessities in addition and to ensure recovery?—Yes.

Need and
provision of
medical
extras.

92801. That would mean a very close co-operation between the two?—Quite so.

92802. And a great deal of the success would depend upon the co-operation, would it not?—Yes.

92803. Would not that be as difficult to get as the co-operation you want now between the treatment and the prevention?—I am not able to say, but speaking from a medical point of view, I think it would help very greatly to have all the medical help given from one headquarters and not from two head-quarters. That is the opinion I have. I cannot speak from experience, of course. I can only speak from the standpoint of an experience of the defects of the present arrangements; what would be the best substitute I cannot say for certain.

92804. You suggest a substitute, do you not?—Yes, Medical that is so; I give my opinion as to the substitute, and there again I speak on the analogy of what has just been done with regard to medical aid in schools. The medical inspection of schools has been brought into organic relationship with the medical officer of health, and I anticipate immensely good results from that.

Medical
inspection
of schools.

92805. In almost a similar way that result could be brought about, could it not, by each district medical officer being also at the same time an assistant under the medical officer of health for other purposes than the mere treatment of disease?—That would be very helpful. It is a matter of machinery really, and it is a question as to which would be the best machinery. If he were made an assistant to the medical officer of health, so far as nuisances and insanitary conditions generally were concerned, that would be very valuable.

District
medical
officer as
assistant to
medical
officer of
health.

92806. There would be one other advantage by an arrangement of that kind, would there not, that you would be in a position, without any reference to any other authority, to order these medical extras which in many cases are absolutely necessary for recovery?—That I am not prepared to give an opinion upon.

92807. In the interests of public health you place a very great amount of reliance upon an earlier cognizance of the diseases?—It is of overwhelming importance.

Need of earl
diagnosis
of disease.

92808. I suppose that leads you to the suggestion that medical treatment ought to be gratuitous so that people would have no diffidence whatever in making their ailments known?—That is so.

92809. And you think that that would be to a certain extent confined to the lower class of people—those who are not in the habit of paying for a medical practitioner and who are not likely to do so?—I think undoubtedly it would be for many years to come. May I add that when I speak of gratuitous medical treatment I state that as the ideal? It might be partially gratuitous or completely; it might be a grant-in-aid or a complete grant. That is a matter on which I have no final opinion.

92810. Really, what you want is increased facilities for getting medical treatment?—I want exactly the opposite principle to what characterises other Poor Law relief. Poor Law medical relief must not, I think, be such as to prevent people availing themselves of it at an opportune and early moment.

92811. The object in passing the Act to take away the disabilities attaching to outdoor medical relief has been of course to make it so that the people would avail themselves of it more freely; has it been your experience that in Brighton people object to go to the Poor Law for medical relief?—The people have objected very greatly and the relieving officers have objected very greatly to having them. It cuts both ways.

92812. In administration the Poor Law unduly restricted the applications of that class—was that it?—I do not know what the regulations are and therefore I cannot say that they have unduly done it; but as a matter of fact, the arrangements are made as nearly prohibitive as they can be.

92813. What you can say is that they have not encouraged people to apply?—They have very much discouraged them.

92814. That may be to a certain extent local, may it not?—I cannot speak with authority on that point because my experience in regard to it is chiefly local; but from what is common knowledge I should say not.

92815. In this paper which you have circulated (*See Appendix No. VIII. (B)*) you put under the head of Poor Law Guardians, “advanced cases of consumption (pauper only) treated by the guardians.” Is it not difficult to say who is a pauper, and who is not among those who happen to be suffering from consumption?—I believe the definition of “pauper” is very difficult, but in actual practice it comes to this, that consumptive patients do not become paupers until they are unfit to work; and then wives may not become paupers because their husbands are in work, and the result is that these wives cannot be treated in the infirmary until they are almost dying.

92816. So long as the husband is able to provide them food they cannot?—So long as he is able to work.

92817. Speaking generally, it is very difficult to define the pauper cases when they are being treated under the guardians?—Yes.

92818. As to what class of case should be admitted for treatment is left very largely to the discretion of the particular board of guardians?—I suppose that is so.

92819. So that board of guardians might treat cases other than those who are advanced if they thought fit?—Yes.

92820. Even when there may be wages being earned in the family?—I suppose that may be so, but in actual practice it only so in one or two places like Bradford where they have a special sanatorium, and Liverpool, I believe.

92821. Encouragement is given at Bradford—I do not know whether it is at Liverpool—to people to make application for treatment in every stage. Every medical man in the town has been circularised asking him to send in cases which have come to his notice which would profit by treatment in the sanatorium and who are unable to pay for treatment in a private sanatorium; and, in that way, all cases are received at once. I am only pointing this out to show what possibilities there are in the present arrangements which have not been universally adopted, but which might have been. Now take as an opposite example of that, where a public authority like Sheffield has had the power of compulsory notification and the power to provide sanatoria, but has done nothing—these consumptive cases are all left to the Poor Law, although the public health authority have undertaken the duty. Therefore it depends very largely whatever scheme you

might have as to what the opinion of the local administrators may be on its worth?—Undoubtedly, that would be so; but still a large proportion of people do not like being treated under the Poor Law, and that seems an insuperable difficulty in getting prompt and satisfactory treatment under the present régime.

92822. But where there is a will there is a way; and pointing out to these people that they can be treated without difficulty—there is practically no disability attached to it; they are removed direct from their own homes, although it is under the Poor Law—has this effect in Bradford, that no one hesitates for a moment, and artisans, labourers, teachers, clerks, cashiers, and anyone else who cannot possibly pay, go there with the greatest possible freedom. I only point this out to show that the stigma very soon rectifies itself, and that it is a matter which is not attached to the body, but is more or less attached to the system?—It has practically ceased to be a pauper hospital there.

92823. No, I do not think so. It is still a pauper sanatorium, because every person there is destitute of the means of providing for his particular disease, and in that sense technically they are all paupers, at least they technically have a right to treatment under the Poor Law?—It is an excellent piece of work anyhow.

92824. You have no guarantee that if all this work were to be handed over to the public health authority, that public health authority would rise to its possibilities any more than the guardians to-day; Sheffield is a case in point?—Except this, that people are governed very largely by sentiment. Although you have managed in Bradford to overcome that sentiment in that one respect, yet sentiment is dead against early treatment under parochial conditions, and prevents it to a very large extent.

92825. I was only thinking that probably regulations which would leave more scope and would give more encouragement to boards of guardians to deal with cases of this character, might have the desired effect without running the risk of giving gratuitous relief to everybody, which might have great dangers?—It need not be gratuitous to everybody necessarily. I have stated the ideal. But there are many stages up towards such an ideal, without going the whole way at once.

92826. If I understand you aright, you do not advocate the municipalisation of the present voluntary hospitals but you would leave them alone, I think you said, in answer to a previous question?—Absolutely.

92827. It would necessarily follow, I think you state, that workhouse infirmary buildings would be utilised as municipal hospitals?—Yes.

92828. As they would be utilised as municipal hospitals with public funds behind them, the probabilities are that that would put an end to the establishment of voluntary hospitals in future?—I do not think so, because, at any rate for a long time to come, you would keep on treating the same class of cases as are being treated—the acute cases and accidents would still go to the voluntary hospitals where they exist, but the more chronic cases like consumption and ulcerated leg or chronic rheumatism would go into the municipal hospital. That would be met, I take it, by regulations.

92829. But experience has taught us, I think, that where a provision of this kind is made, the voluntary contributions begin to dry up when State provision is made, as was found with regard to the provision for unemployment; people will not subscribe to the distress committees because they are already recognised as part of the proper machinery of local government. If that were so is there not a danger that these hospitals would certainly decay, because their subscriptions would fall off and they would be begging for the municipality to take them over?—I can see that danger might arise in the absence of definite regulations as to the class of diseases which would be treated.

92830. Then your suggestion would scarcely be possible to apply all over the country, would it, without enormous expense? For instance, most of these workhouse infirmaries are part and parcel of the Poor Law institution; they may be separate buildings on the same site or they may be wards in a building which may be used for other purposes, but there are only something

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F.R.C.P.*

3 Feb. 1908.

Deterrence
of Poor Law
medical
relief.

Question of
municipalisa-
tion of
voluntary
hospitals.

Class of
cases to be
treated in
voluntary
and
municipal
hospitals.

Effect of free
medical
relief on
finance of
voluntary
hospitals.

Possibility of
utilising Poor
Law build-
ings as
municipal
infirmaries.

Dr. Arthur Newsholme, M.D., F.R.C.P.

3 Feb. 1908.

Possibility of utilising Poor Law buildings as municipal infirmaries.

like sixteen in the whole of the country outside London which have a separately-administered infirmary. Therefore it would only be applicable in those sixteen cases without going to the expense of providing municipal buildings?—I do not see why the present buildings should not continue to be utilised as municipal infirmaries instead of Poor Law infirmaries.

92831. Even when they are part and parcel of the same buildings?—Of the same curtilage, yes.

92832. You see they are not separately administered within that curtilage, there is the over-lapping of lighting and heating and washing—usually in one laundry—and the work of the hospital is done partly by the inmates of the other part of the house, so that it would be impossible to separate the expenses. The only thing that could possibly be done, as it seems to me from my brief experience from administering an institution of this kind, would be to give the municipal authority power to send their cases without any option on the part of the guardians; but so far as joint management is concerned, it seems to me to be out of the question?—If the boards of guardians and the hospital authority were two committees of the same body, that is undoubtedly I think capable of fairly easy adjustment.

92833. If what?—If you imagine that the board of guardians were done away with, and that the Poor Law functions of the board of guardians were carried out by one of the committees of the local authority like the Education Committee, and another committee carried out the medical duties, the adjustment between them as to these two buildings would be quite easy, I should think.

92834. I can understand a system of that kind, but you would not really say the hospitals were under municipal treatment, though they would be managed by a special statutory committee of the council which would have the whole of the other classes probably or many other classes of the nation to deal with? It would lead to closer co-operation, would it not?—Undoubtedly.

92835. But not to a transference of management?—Yes.

92836. Is that what you think would happen?—As I have suggested, I think it would end possibly in the two committees taking it over—one taking over the medical part, and the other the non-medical part.

92837. Two committees?—Yes, one of which would take the place of the present board of guardians.

92838. I do not see how that would work at all unless the duties of the two committees could be very clearly defined. I could understand one committee, a statutory committee of the council, having the management of all the present institutions which now come under the Poor Law and the medical officer of health, having a great deal to do with the outside medical treatment of all cases and with regard to the admissions into the hospitals which were managed by the statutory committee. In that way you would get a close co-operation, probably closer than you would get now between the education authority and the medical officer of health?—I do not wish to commit myself to any point of new administrative detail, but I do want to lay down again the general principle that Poor Law administration so far as the relief of paupers is concerned, should, I take it, be prohibitive or as nearly prohibitive as possible, as at present; but that medical aid must be prompt, and there must be no prohibition in regard to that, if the health of the people is to be maintained and improved. To have one committee or one body doing these two almost incompatible things necessarily means a compromise between the two.

92839. When you suggest administrative changes one must be excused for criticising the changes suggested?—Just so.

92840. I suppose you have in mind a considerable change in the area of the public health authorities?—In smaller districts undoubtedly, I should say.

92841. In small urban districts and in rural districts?—Yes, I should think that would be necessary.

92842. For instance, you could not say that it would be better as they remain at present to transfer the medical treatment of cases in a district like Huddersfield, where there are practically sixteen or seventeen medical officers

of health in the Poor Law area, all of which are working under the several committees of their own urban district councils, so that what is now done by one body in Huddersfield would be done by practically sixteen separate bodies each working independently of the other in the medical treatment of cases now treated by the guardians?—I certainly think, both in regard to Poor Law relief and in regard to public health administration, that the larger bodies are much more desirable and much more efficient. Efficiency of administration by large bodies.

92843. Your suggestion for a transference of medical treatment to the medical officers of health will depend upon an alteration in that respect, will it not? As they stand at present, taking the country as a whole, it would be rather a serious step to take, would it not?—I have not much experience of the smaller local authorities, but I should say that even now the smaller sanitary authorities would do the work of medical aid better than the boards of guardians do it, because it would fit in so well with the public health functions which are enumerated on that scheme, and would at once involve the principle of the preventive treatment of disease rather than the belated treatment of disease.

92844. Of course, you will be familiar with the suggestions that were made by the British Medical Association for a public medical service and a provident medical service; have you any observations to offer on their suggestions?—I am sorry to say that at the moment I have not their suggestions in my mind. I read them through at the time but I cannot recall them sufficiently clearly to answer questions on them without hearing more of the details. Suggestions of British Medical Association.

92845. Are you satisfied with the present powers of medical men with regard to the certification of death?—No, I think that there are many certificates of death and given on insufficient examination. Need of examination and supervision of medical practitioners.

92846. In the interests of public health, is it not necessary that practically every practitioner at least should be subject to examination as to the treatment of particular cases?—Yes, I think that any man, and any doctor does more efficient work through being supervised.

92847. For instance, even with the best possible arrangement of public medical officers, such cases as this might occur—that a death takes place which is certified as ptomaine poisoning and a few days after there are found to be half-a-dozen people with small-pox in the same house, and then they discover after the death that it was small-pox, and not ptomaine poisoning. It is a very serious matter from the public health point of view that a medical man should get so far wrong in his diagnosis, is it not?—Quite.

92848. But there is no remedy for that, is there?—I submit there is a remedy.

92849. That is what I would like to hear?—There is no remedy in that particular instance, but there is a remedy to prevent its recurring in the experience of the same man. You cannot call a private doctor to book for a thing like that, but a doctor who is affiliated to an official system would be under superior officers, and would have to appear before a committee, probably, for having been so careless. I have an instance of the same thing that I can quote. A doctor wrote to me that he had seen that day a boy with a hard constant laryngeal cough, hoarseness, commencing stridor, which means difficulty of breathing; and that his symptoms were suggestive of laryngeal diphtheria. That was sent throughout the ordinary post, and meanwhile the child was kept at home for twenty-four hours, with difficulty of breathing and almost needing the operation of tracheotomy, without the doctor doing anything more. My correspondent was a private practitioner. If I had written an indignant letter to him, I should have made an enemy in my official life, but if he were affiliated to an official service he would be amenable to discipline. There are a number of instances like that.

92850. You do not suggest that a private practitioner who might treat a private patient in that way should be a public officer, do you?—No, this happened to be a dispensary case. I admit that it would not cover the whole ground, but it would go far to cover it. It would only be a gradual reform. Every doctor will do better work through being supervised, but under the present

Applicability of ineligibility of non-medical relief.

Administrative difficulties of existing areas.

arrangements you dare not find fault with the doctors, except very mildly indeed for such things as that.

92851. Would you suggest that after death the treatment of a case should be investigated so as to ascertain whether the diagnosis and treatment had been in accordance with the real cause of death?—Do you mean under a public system?

92852. I mean should the private practitioner be subject to that examination?—I do not think that is a practical suggestion, but I have not thought of it before.

92853. So long as there are private practitioners, it is open for people to be treated altogether wrongly, and to be certified wrongly after death, and no one to be any the wiser?—Yes, but I take it that the field for that would become gradually more and more limited, as the municipal system became more and more extensive.

92854. You lay great stress upon the influence the doctor would have over the habits of the people who are under his treatment; if these people were persistent in their habits, would you resort to any compulsion at all? My own experience at Brighton is that compulsion is very rarely needed. If you take time to get into sympathetic touch with the patients and spend time over it, you can exercise discipline without compulsion. I think that in exceptional cases compulsion will undoubtedly be needed, and that power should be given to local authorities to regulate by by-laws or otherwise, these very exceptional cases.

92855. (*Mr. Nunn.*) Do you apply that to the segregation of acute cases of phthisis?—I would apply the principle of compulsion in phthisis in very few cases—very few indeed. I should be very careful to safeguard that. I do not think we want compulsion yet, unless in very exceptional cases—where a man is in a common lodging-house for instance, very bad, and will not go to any institution at all; or again where he is in an infirmary well treated and well attended to but insists on going out into a crowded house. I think that all those cases should be very carefully safeguarded, although the same thing is being done in New York extensively now.

92856. (*Mr. Bentham.*) Where the people will not take precautions and the subject is a danger to the other members of the household, would you go so far as to ask for compulsory powers to remove such a person?—I do not think at the present time that the public opinion of this country will justify compulsion in such cases except to a very limited extent, and I should proceed warily and cautiously on that point.

92857. (*Mr. Phelps.*) Are you familiar with workhouses and infirmaries to any extent?—Yes, in a general way.

92858. In London as well as in the provinces?—Yes, to some extent in London also.

92859. Have you considered the question whether they could be used in medical education?—I think that the present non-use of them is a very serious calamity to the country. It is extremely desirable that they should be utilised to a very much greater extent than they have been in the past.

92860. You do not see any difficulties in the way of that?—No; my own experience is that any hospital to which medical students are attached is always better administered than one to which medical students are not attached. There is a general uplifting of the whole of the administration.

92861. So in the interests of the institution, as well as the subject, you would urge it?—Yes, I would urge it.

92862. (*Dr. Downes.*) I see with regard to your arrangements at Brighton you lay stress on the importance of tact on the part of the inspector who visits the families?—Yes.

92863. You mention sympathetic relationship lower down?—Yes, I do.

92864. I suppose you would attach great importance to those qualities?—Undoubtedly.

92865. Have you tried any voluntary associations in this work?—In connection with consumption?

92866. Yes, and in visiting the homes?—Not to any large extent. The only voluntary arrangement we have tried is by having health addresses to the mothers' meetings throughout the town. We have a Women's

Health Society; and they pay for addresses to be given by skilled ladies, to fifty and one hundred mothers at a time, right through the winter at all the mothers' meetings in the town.

92867. Do you employ female inspectors for this home visitation?—No; at the present time I have not one.

92868. In a large city where I made enquiry into this point the physicians of the dispensary laid a good deal of importance on the visits being made by others than the ordinary type of sanitary inspector—that the uniformed official who was too much of an official was not always successful.—It is absolutely imperative that the official must not be uniformed. It would damn his effort at once if he went in uniform; but short of that, a great deal depends on the tact of the men you employ. I happen to have an excellent man for the purpose. I should prefer to have a lady inspector for visiting female phthisical cases.

92869. You need individual contact with them?—Yes.

92870. In the scheme for medical arrangements which you have favoured us with you have in C.: "the sanitary authority and education committee." By sanitary authority do you mean the county council?—When saying sanitary authority and education committee I was thinking more particularly of my own arrangements.

92871. You have a county borough?—Yes.

92872. And that, of course, is the sanitary authority?—Yes.

92873. But in the case of a county council it is not necessarily a sanitary authority, I think?—Only very partially.

92874. I only wanted to clear that matter. In that column you state that the sanitary authority should pay the doctor's fees when called in by midwives?—Yes.

92875. Under what statutory power would they do that?—That is not completely Brighton. We have not done that at all in Brighton. I know it is done in some large cities, but under what statutory powers I do not know.

92876. You do not bring it under the head of B., the Poor Law guardians. Are you aware of the powers of guardians under the Poor Law Amendment Act, 1848?—I am not familiar with that Act.

92877. There was a circular of the Local Government Board issued lately drawing attention to them?—I am not familiar with that.

92878. In Paragraph 6 (i.) you state that there is a waste of information. "The Poor Law medical officers are daily in possession of information—at present wasted"—That is so.

92879. Have you ever utilised the Order of the Local Government Board of February, 1879?—What does that relate to?

92880. It relates to the giving of information by district medical officers to sanitary authorities?—I utilised it in my London experience, but I have not utilised it in Brighton. That relates to giving lists of cases of sickness, does it not?

92881. It was before the days of the Notification Act; but it also went on to say: "He shall also furnish from time to time to the medical officer of health to such sanitary authority such information with respect to the cases of sickness and the deaths amongst the pauper patients under his care as the Local Government Board may direct." That is extending it to all kinds of sickness?—Yes.

92882. But I cannot ascertain whether it has been made use of?—I take it the Local Government Board has not directed it.

92883. Has any application been made?—I do not know the machinery.

92884. At any rate you have made no application?—We have made no application from Brighton for such a regulation.

92885. Are you aware of any reason why such application has not been made?—No.

Dr. Arthur Newsholme, M.D., F.R.C.P.

3 Feb. 1908.

Lack of female health visitors.

Arrangements as to sanitary authority.

Payment of doctors called in by midwives.

Extent to which Order of L.G.B., Feb., 1879, is utilised.

*Dr. Arthur
Newsholme,
M.D.,
F.R.C.P.*

3 Feb. 1908.

Dietary for
consump-
tives in
workhouse
infirmaries.

92886. In Paragraph 27 you say: "In workhouse infirmaries consumptives commonly receive the routine diet for invalids, which is deficient in nutriment"?—Yes.

92887. Have you any concrete instances you could give us as an example of that?—Yes, I have; but I am a little averse to quoting them because they are local instances.

92888. The dietary for the sick you are no doubt aware is prescribed by the medical officer?—Yes; and recently in Brighton I have got a pint of milk added to that dietary in order to induce the consumptive patients in the infirmary to stop there. After they have been in our sanatorium, and subsequently, at a more advanced stage, go into the infirmary, they sometimes refuse to stay, because they are not suitably and sufficiently fed.

92889. How did you get that milk added?—By interviewing the medical officer personally. I do not think it is a general order, but he adds it on to the dietary of individual patients.

92890. As you are aware, he has a free hand in dieting each sick patient according to the needs of the case?—That is so.

92891. Then you say that they receive the routine diet for the able-bodied, which is coarse and unappetising?—Yes, in many cases.

92892. Do you find that consumptives are put on the able-bodied diet to a large extent?—I will give you an instance which I investigated. A man about thirty years of age had been an out-patient at the local general hospital suffering from consumption. The physician in attendance had promised to notify the case to me but had not done so; he forgot. In the meantime the man was so ill that he asked for and obtained admission to the infirmary. After he had arrived there and been there about a month, owing to distress in Brighton there was a deficiency of accommodation in the beds of the infirmary; and they sent him across to the able-bodied ward, and then he was put on the diet which is named here. After eating that dietary for a few days he felt so ill that he went back to bed. He was kept in bed two days. At the end of that time he was told that he would have to do the work of the able-bodied, and stone-breaking was mentioned to him, not actually ordered. Then he took his discharge from the workhouse. He came down to the town hall and saw me; and I admitted him to the sanatorium. He is undoubtedly consumptive.

92893. Do you say this on his statement, or have you verified it?—I am glad you asked me that question. I have not verified the allegations made by him. I have only verified the fact that he was at the county hospital suffering from consumption; that he was transferred from the sick ward to the able-bodied ward; and that he subsequently took his discharge and came to me. The other details I do not know, except from the patient's own information.

92894. What workhouse was he in?—In the Brighton Workhouse.

92895. The infirmary there is part of the same curtilage, is it not?—They are in different blocks, I think.

92896. But within the same curtilage?—Yes, within the same boundary.

92897. Was any representation made to the guardians on the point?—That only happened on Saturday, and as I left Brighton on Sunday evening I left it to my successor.

92898. Have you come across many cases of that sort?—No, not many. I have come across odd cases, and I have come across a very considerable number of cases in which the patients have left the workhouse infirmary because they did not like it.

92899. Did not like what, the place generally?—Did not like the conditions under which they were treated; it is not so sympathetic and not so good as it ought to be for invalids.

92900. It is not necessarily a question of dietary in those cases?—Not altogether diet. I should like to add I believe that our local arrangements are above the average in workhouses or infirmaries in efficiency and kindness.

92901. In your suggestion that every man should have the right to call for gratuitous diagnosis, treatment

and provision of medicine, I think you told us that you were treating the matter rather from the ideal point of view as a physician?—I began that sentence by saying: "It seems to me necessary for the maximum economy as well as efficiency." The maximum is the ultimate goal towards which we are approaching. It may be considerably remote from the present time, but improvement should tend in that direction.

92902. Do you regard such a system as immediately practicable?—That is a question which I have not enquired into. I have dealt with the matter in this evidence from a medical point of view, and approximation towards it is practicable; the whole thing would be economical in the interests of the community if it could be carried out.

92903. Can you give any examples of such a system in operation that would lead to that conclusion?—I am not sufficiently familiar with the systems adopted in Germany or Scandinavia to speak in detail about them; aid. but in both those parts of Europe there is approximation towards such a system.

92904. How would you raise the funds to supply the cost of this gratuitous service?—That is an economic question which at the present time I am not prepared to go into.

92905. Have you considered any of the details of such a system?—Only from a medical point of view, from the point of view of what is desirable in the interests of public health, and with the knowledge of the fact that whatever improves the public health conduces to economy and efficiency, and must, in the end, save money.

92906. Do you contemplate that there should be formed a service of medical men?—Yes.

92907. Whose officers should they be?—The officers, in my opinion, of the local sanitary authority.

92908. (Chairman.) A whole-time service?—That I do not say.

92909. Would it not necessarily have to be a whole-time service?—I take it that it would grow out of the present district medical officers; and whether they would become at once whole-time medical officers or not would depend on the size of the districts which would be added to them. It would be impossible to make it a logically complete system at once; it would have to be a matter of evolution.

92910. (Dr. Downes.) Would you retain the sanitary authorities as they are at present?—I have already expressed my general opinion that larger sanitary authorities than the non-county boroughs and the rural districts are desirable.

92911. Could you give any opinion as to the size of such a district as you would like to see?—I am not prepared to go into any details except the general principle that within certain limits the larger the sanitary area the less likely it is to be venial, and the more efficient it is likely to be.

92912. I think I understood you to say that you thought smaller sanitary authorities would do the work better than the present board of guardians?—It is my opinion that wider responsibilities would mean more efficient authorities.

92913. Even taking them as they are?—The unification of the medical service would be an unstinted gain.

92914. You are aware, I dare say, of the number of sanitary authorities in this country at the present time?—May I modify my statement to this extent, if the number of sanitary authorities is larger than the number of boards of guardians—do I understand you to imply that?

92915. Quite so.—Then that would be an urgent reason for the amalgamation of the sanitary authorities.

92916. I believe as a matter of fact, the number of sanitary authorities approaches 2,000, and the number of boards of guardians is between 600 and 700?—That I was not aware of, and to that extent I should like to modify my answer.

92917. Are you aware of the reference that was made in the Report of the medical officer of the Local Government Board for 1904-5 as to the administration by authorities.

Deterrence of
workhouse
infirmaries.

Free
medical aid
the medical
ideal.

Foreign
systems of
proposed free
medical
service.

Efficiency
of adminis-
tration by
large
bodies.

Advantage
of unification
of medical
service.

Report of
L. G. B., of
administra-
tion by
sanitary
authorities.

sanitary authorities?—I do not know the reference to which you refer.

92918. It is on p. 12, and it is headed "Mal-administration."—"Mal-administration by Sanitary Authorities": I quite believe that. In fact there is abundant evidence of the medical inspectors of the Local Government Board to prove that.

92919. Is it not the fact that many sanitary authorities at the present time are, as regards their personal members, almost identical with the board of guardians?—Yes.

92920. And the same would apply to some of the smaller town councils I suppose?—No, I think only to a small extent to the town councils.

92921. You have been asked some questions as to the working of such a form of medical relief as you contemplate with regard to the provision of food and nourishment. I am not quite sure what your position is with regard to that. Do you consider that the medical man should order the food and the nourishment?—The view I stated was that the giving of non-medical material relief should be in the hands of a different committee to that which gives the medical aid; in other words that medical aid should be given freely and liberally; as to the other kind of aid, the same Poor Law principles as at present should apply.

92922. That is to say another body should give what the officer of a different body orders?—Using the word "body" in the sense probably of a committee of the same great body.

92923. An administrative committee if you like?—Yes.

92924. Do you think that would work?—I think it would work very well.

92925. What control would the body that has to give the nourishment have over the officer ordering it?—The necessity for that kind of relief would have to be certified.

92926. One can imagine a medical officer with liberal ideas as to whisky, and the body supplying may object to giving whisky so freely?—I should not blame them.

92927. What would they do?—They would stint the whisky.

92928. Then if we go from whisky to something else it might not be so clear?—I do not think the difficulty in that arrangement would be as great as under the present conditions. The family at any rate would be relieved as far as the most urgent need *i.e.*, for medical aid was concerned. The other would remain as before.

92929. In medical treatment is it not difficult to draw a distinction between treatment by drugs and treatment by food?—Yes.

92930. Take the disease of diabetes, which was mentioned a little time ago, there the treatment becomes almost entirely one of diet, does it not?—It might be put differently, it becomes almost entirely a question of depriving a patient of most of his food and leaving only the nitrogenous food.

92931. He might have to have special provisions substituted, such as gluten bread?—Yes, he might.

92932. With regard to diabetes, you draw attention to the importance of the food there. Do you think any competent medical man would omit to advise his patient as to such a *régime* as you mention?—I am very much afraid under the present conditions of Poor Law medical relief diabetes is very commonly not discovered at all. The diagnosis is very poor in a very large number of the cases on outdoor medical relief.

92933. In what way should you expect the efficiency to be secured by an official system of medical attendance?—Because the doctor who is not competent is under supervision by a superintendent. At present he is under supervision only by a committee who do not know so much as he does.

92934. It is the check of the supervision which you would rely upon?—Yes, the supervision and the fact that sooner or later the lack of competence is discovered. I will take an example. I have had cases of consumption sent to me at my Brighton sanatorium which have been treated for a couple of years by a doctor for chronic bronchitis; the chest has never been examined and the

sputum has never been examined. Under a system such as I advocate the doctor who had gone on for three months, not to say two years, doing that sort of thing, would certainly get his knuckles rapped.

92935. Could not that kind of authority be instituted without a regular break up of the medical system?—I have no right to rap other people's knuckles at the present time. If a private practitioner grossly mis-treats a case at the present moment, and I have to rap him on the knuckles, my future relations with him are much more difficult than they would be if he were acting under my general supervision.

92936. I thought I understood you to say that you did not anticipate that everyone would go to the official service?—No, the people that most need it would have it, and those are the poor.

92937. You say that it should be devoid of parochial stigma?—Yes.

92938. Have you ever analysed what you meant by parochial stigma. What is it in its essence?—It is certainly a deterrent treatment; that is the primary element in it. It seems to me that the people resort to it only at a very late date, whilst the slowness of the illness depends on having early treatment.

92939. What is this thing which is deterrent in its essence?—I am not prepared to analyse it any further, except that in actual experience the poor do not have parochial medical treatment if they can possibly avoid it.

92940. Is it not a thing which can grow up under any system quite apart from the Poor Law. I will explain my meaning; free distribution of soup and bread goes on; there is no Poor Law stigma attached there, but it is not regarded as a stigma for an independent labouring-man to avail himself of the free distribution of soup and bread?—That I submit is not an analogous case. Free distributions of soup and bread are given out of the free gifts of the charitable. Free medical aid is given out of the common funds of the community.

92941. If you have a free medical service, different grades of people will resort to it, and some of those will be undesirable?—Yes.

92942. Will not the tendency be for the undesirables to resort to that source of medical relief?—I hope they would.

92943. Is there not something in the association in the shadow of relief with undesirables, which is at the bottom of this stigma?—I suppose that might be so, but the same thing applies in hospitals and dispensary practice; you get a mixture of decent people, and people who are very undesirable, and yet the in-patient work is on the whole efficient. You get in the next beds in a consumption ward a vagrant and a clerk, I had that last week in Brighton myself; there is no difficulty in that at all, it works perfectly well.

92944. Should you anticipate any objection on the part of the public to the medical supervision which you seem to anticipate would follow on your official system. Let me take an example, you suggest that the use of respirators should be compulsory. How would the public like a regime which compelled them to use respirators, if they did not wish to?—I think I rather over-stated the matter, or you misunderstood me. What I suggested was that the preventive treatment of bronchitis due to industrial dust, would imply pressing the people to use respirators. As to compulsion I do not think that would come in, except through some general Factory and Workshops Regulations. In fact, that is applied at the present time in certain occupations. My own belief is that the compulsion would be very little indeed, but the pressure of medical treatment would be directed in the direction of preventive measures rather than drugs.

92945. You recognise that it might defeat its own object if compulsion were resorted to?—I think compulsion should be used to a very limited extent indeed, and would not be resorted to except in very rare cases.

92946. You said in another answer that the medicine given should be of a disciplinary character?—I was not thinking so much of the medicine given (I do not believe in making medicines unnecessarily nasty), but more of the general arrangements, so as not to tempt people to keep on with them, or begin them unnecessarily. That was the point I think.

Dr. Arthur Newsholme,
M.D.,
F.R.C.P.

3 Feb. 1908.

Deterrence
of Poor Law
medical
relief.

Attitude of
poor to free
medical
service.

Inapplica-
bility of
principle of
compulsion.

Dr. Arthur
Newsholme,
M.D.,
F.R.C.P.

3 Feb. 1908.

Value of
statistics of
tuberculosis.

Provision for
families of
phthisical
patients.

Class of in-
mates in
workhouse
infirmaries.

Adequacy
of doctors
under pro-
posed scheme
for gratuitous
medical aid.

92947. As to the valuable statistics which you have given in reference to tuberculosis in this country and elsewhere, I suppose you do not say that your views are conclusive or accepted on all sides?—No, I only speak for myself, but up to now I have seen no controversion of either the facts or the body of reasoning based upon them.

92948. You put it forward as a piece of evidence without pressing it as a generally accepted conclusion?—It is absolutely personal.

92949. You mention Dr. Mott's statistics of post-mortems in the London County Asylums?—Yes.

92950. And in a large proportion he found old tuberculosis?—Yes.

92951. Is it not the fact that old tuberculosis is found in a very large number of post-mortems, quite apart from inmates of asylums?—That is so.

92952. In fact there is a very strong statement of Professor Osler which is quoted by Dr. Bulstrode. He says: "The germ of tuberculosis is ubiquitous; few reach maturity without infection; none reach old age without a focus somewhere." Would you accept Professor Osler as a very high authority?—Certainly, but the point in connection with the asylum matter was as to whether these lunatics became consumptive after going to the asylum or not, and I was quoting Dr. Mott's statement as bearing on that, and it still bears on that; your quotation does not affect the point. Moreover Professor Osler is referring to the results of post-mortem examinations in persons dying of diseases other than tuberculosis, and disclosing tuberculosis usually healed. Outside the laboratory a tuberculous focus does not become necessarily or probably a source of infection until a condition of "open" tuberculosis has been induced. The quotation is therefore not relevant to the general question of the control of tuberculous infection in the community.

92953. May I ask how you arrange for the maintenance of men who are withdrawn from work under your sanatorium treatment? I think you told us something about those men?—Inasmuch as the average stay is only about five weeks, the point quite seldom arises, and when it does arise aid has been given out of the friendly society funds, or by means of the Charity Organisation Society (which has done admirable service in that respect), or occasionally by clergymen and ministers, who subscribe. In the vast majority of cases the working man is quite prepared to come away from home for a month or six weeks, but he cannot afford to come for longer than that.

92954. You quote a Local Government Board Poor Law Inspector; who said that workhouse infirmaries were more and more places for the sick, and less and less places for able-bodied?—Yes.

92955. Is that correct? They never were places for the able-bodied, were they?—I think I can find the exact quotation. Are you referring to workhouses or infirmaries?

92956. The words used were, "workhouse infirmaries." That is why I took a note of it?—I meant workhouses more generally. I think I can give you the exact quotation. Mr. Fleming in the Report of the Local Government Board for 1902-3 speaks of the general change in the character of workhouse inmates: "during recent years the able-bodied inmates have gone, and the sick inmates have come."

92957. (Mrs. Bosanquet.) I think you were careful to say that in advocating free medical relief, it was from your point of view as a medical man?—That is so.

92958. Could you divest yourself of that point of view for a few moments?—I do not think I could.

92959. Then I must turn to another point. I gather you think that imperfect diagnosis is generally the result of medical men trying to deal with too many cases?—That is a very common cause of it.

92960. I am a little puzzled to think how you are going to meet the enormously increased demand which I suppose you hope for under a system of free medical relief. You cannot increase your staff of medical men very largely at once, can you?—No, but early treatment will shorten the duration of the sickness in a very large proportion of the sicknesses; and although you are

giving more help with one hand, you will be diminishing the necessity for the help with the other hand.

92961. But that is to come in the future. For the immediate effect you want an immediate staff to meet it?—It will come in the immediate future, because in a case of rheumatic fever treated in the first day or two, the illness can be cut short in a week, but if it is allowed to go on longer, it may be an illness of two or three months.

92962. That can only be subsequent to this desire, that you have to get all the cases in; the immediate result will be that a given number of doctors, now very much overworked and unable to diagnose their cases properly, will have still more work to do? Would not that question assume that the system will grow up at once? It will not grow up all in a minute, it will surely be a very gradual and slow growth.

92963. I should have thought if you passed a law to give free medical relief to-morrow you would get them at once; is not that what you hope for?—I have no hope for that; whatever is passed will be very gradual.

92964. You cannot get your improved result until you have increased your number of cases?—You will get the improved results by the improvement in methods, and the improved methods I take it, will come gradually.

92965. Then pressing a little further what Dr. Downes has already mentioned, I can quite understand that your health authority works well in places like Brighton and Finsbury, and half-a-dozen other places that have been brought before our notice, but one has been about the country where the sanitary administration is abominable, where the authorities are corrupt, neglectful and ignorant; I cannot see how you are going to improve anything by putting the medical administration under such authorities as those?—You will get single instead of dual control at once; though I quite agree that the small sanitary authorities, mentioned by Dr. Downes, should be amalgamated and made larger, in order to get the best results.

92966. You think that in these cases where the boards of guardians are doing much better work, you would be prepared to put the sanitary authority under the board of guardians, and get your control in that way?—I think it might be possible, until you can arrange for a fusion of sanitary authorities.

92967. Then as to the question of free treatment; it has been tried in Ireland has it not, for many years?—Yes, the dispensary system.

92968. Is there any result in diminishing disease; is it any lower there than in England?—It has been tried in Ireland under the very worst possible conditions, both indoor and outdoor, and without an element of preventive medicine in it.

92969. Then it is not merely the freedom of it so much, as the better organisation that you anticipate?—Yes, if it were centred round a system of preventive medicine, it would make all the difference in the world.

92970. Do you think it would make all the difference in the world without making it gratuitous?—It must be gratuitous so far as you give it. The parochial medical service now is gratuitous, so far as the patients themselves are concerned. If you keep on the present arrangement, simply adding the parochial medical aid to the sanitary authority's functions, it will be gratuitous.

92971. You are not prepared to attempt to institute any provident system?—I should welcome any such system if it could be made applicable. I do not see how it could be made applicable, unless it were compulsory, as in Germany.

92972. Under your system, are the people to have a choice of doctor?—That is a point on which I cannot see my way clear; it is a point of detail on which one may reserve one's judgment.

92973. You are not tied to having only the one paid officer?—That is a matter which I think might be left to the local authority to decide. My own impression is that at any rate so far as those who have absolutely gratuitous treatment are concerned, it would be necessary not to allow a choice of doctor.

Adequacy
of doctors
under pro-
posed sche-
me for gratui-
tous medical aid.

Transfer of
of medical
relief to
sanitary
authorities.

Experi-
ence of free
medical
treatment
in Ireland.

Gratuitous
versus paid
medical aid.

Choice of
own doctor
by poor.

92974. That would at once have a deterrent effect, would it not?—I do not think so to any great extent, if at all, probably not at all.

92975. That is the chief objection that is made to the Poor Law doctor now: that is, that he is the doctor for the poor, and they do not believe in him.—I submit it is not the chief objection. The objection first of all is that the relieving officer wards them off as long as possible, and secondly they get, under the present conditions, unsatisfactory treatment, when they actually get it.

92976. (*Miss Hill.*) If you do not establish at present an entirely free system, do you think it would be possible to transfer to an authority, which has no machinery for investigating, the medical attendance of the poor?—Might I ask what investigation you are referring to?

92977. I meant with regard to means?—If the medical aid were free, what investigation would you require?

92978. I thought you agreed that it would not be possible immediately to establish an entirely free system, but you said, or at least I gathered that you meant, that you thought it would be a step in the right direction if the medical attendance on the poor was transferred to the present public health authority?—Yes.

92979. Then I understand that the public health authority has no machinery for investigating the circumstances of the poor. Do you see how that difficulty is to be got over?—Assuming that the local sanitary authority take over all the functions of the board of guardians it simply means using the officers of another committee of the same local authority to investigate.

92980. Your plan of any improvement of the medical attendance on the poor is dependent on the same authority taking over the whole of the Poor Law work, is it?—I think there is very little doubt that if one part, viz., free medical aid were taken over there would be a taking over of the other functions just as has happened with the education authority.

92981. Only free medical aid at present depends on the circumstances of the applicant?—That is so.

92982. Would you propose to retain that or only retain it until you get your entirely free ideal system?—I should remove the prohibitive conditions under which medical aid is given at the present time.

92983. That means you would immediately make it all free?—In practice I do not think it would come to that, because for some years to come a very large proportion of the population would not avail themselves of it.

92984. They would have a right to free medical service, whatever their circumstances were?—You could limit it by some wage limit.

92985. In answer to Mrs. Bosanquet I think you said you did not think it was a great deterrent to the poor in places where they had no choice of a medical man, where they had compulsorily one and only one?—I think the main difficulty is first of all that they do not like the idea of going to get Poor Law relief, and secondly the relieving officer wards them off as long as possible.

92986. Have you any experience of the poor who belong to clubs? Having no choice of a medical man is a very great difficulty to them, is it not within your experience? That is one very great objection made by many people to joining provident clubs?—Yes, that they can only have one doctor.

92987. And that wherever the provident society puts on their list a considerable number of doctors and the people have their choice, the system is very much more welcomed?—That may be so. I have no experience on that point.

92988. You consider that a good number of people would continue to employ general practitioners; they might prefer to pay and have their own choice of a doctor?—I think that would be so.

92989. In that case they would pay doubly, in rates and fees?—I suppose that would be so, just as in school matters now.

92990. You see no objection to that?—No, if they wish to pay twice over I should give them an opportunity. They are doing that at the present time in education

matters, and in vaccination, so I see no objection to the extension of that practice.

92991. You say you find five weeks' training in a sanatorium very effectual in educating patients?—That has been our experience.

92992. I wonder why you despair of people under proper instruction learning in their homes?—That is simply based, as regards consumptives, on actual experience. It was that actual difficulty of training these people that led us to use our fever hospital for phthisis.

92993. You think it worth while to incur what I suppose would be the enormous cost of sanatoria all over the country rather than wait till the people themselves develop more intelligence and knowledge, even in spite of the way that knowledge is spreading in various directions all over the world?—I think that that question presupposes no difference between general knowledge and specialised knowledge: a knowledge of how to prevent the spread of consumption is specialised knowledge, and however intelligent the population may be they would still need training in respect of that particular disease.

92994. Do you not think they get a good deal of special knowledge?—It is not effectual in actual life in my experience, even amongst the fairly educated people, unless they have received the training personally.

92995. You do not see a considerable tendency to sleep with open windows now which did not exist before?—Yes.

92996. Does not that help at all?—That helps immensely.

92997. In the same way would there not be several other directions which were more or less known amongst the people—would not they spread amongst the people? Does not that seem the natural way to develop it?—It is a very natural way of developing it, but it is very slow, and in the meantime people are being infected.

92998. (*Mr. Patten-MacDougal.*) Do I understand you rightly that you do not advocate the compulsory notification of phthisis in all cases?—I do not.

92999. You, I think, would determine it in this way, if there were effective measures provided for curative treatment by the authority applying for the compulsory notification, then you would have it compulsorily notified; is that so?—Those are the circumstances under which, if I had a voice, I would at present sanction it, but, as a matter of fact, when you get institutional treatment notification becomes a success without compulsion. We have in Brighton a higher proportion of cases notified under a voluntary system than they have in Sheffield under a compulsory system.

93000. By whom are these measures to be taken; by the Poor Law authority or by the public health authority?—The public health authority.

93001. They are to provide the sanatoria?—Or some means of treating the disease, but it need not necessarily be in a separate building.

93002. Does that mean you would support the removal of all phthisis cases from the Poor Law to the public health authority?—They could remain in the same buildings. I do not think it would be necessary to build new infirmary buildings. The same buildings may be utilised.

93003. Assuming the conditions remain as they are, apart from the large scheme which you advocate?—I would not remove them.

93004. Would you have two different authorities treating cases within the same building, the Poor Law authority treating cases other than phthisis, and the local authority treating phthisis?—In Brighton we have twenty-five cases being treated at the present moment in the borough sanatorium or fever hospital; there are about thirty cases of consumption being treated in the workhouse infirmary a couple of stones' throw away.

93005. By whom?—By separate doctors and separate administration completely. It is a waste of effort, and is not so good as if they were all under one doctor, but under present conditions it cannot be altered.

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3 Feb. 1908.

Institutional
versus domi-
ciliary treat-
ment of
phthisis.

Arrange-
ments
for adequate
help to be a
sine qua non
of compul-
sory notifica-
tion of
phthisis.

Dr. Arthur
Newsholme,
M.D.,
F.R.C.P.

3 Feb. 1908.

Treatment of
phthi-ical
paupers by
sanitary
authority.

93006. Would you not think it would be an improvement on that system if all cases of phthisis were moved from the Poor Law authority and handed over to the public health authority?—I think it would, but I do not think it can be done under the present conditions; the board of guardians would not be willing to pay the sanitary authority for their thirty patients.

93007. That involves a payment to the sanitary authority by the board of guardians?—Under present conditions.

93008. If there is a duty upon the local authority to treat all cases of infectious diseases themselves, the cost being paid out of the rates, then that difficulty would be removed, would it not?—I am not prepared to say at the present moment there is that duty upon them.

Immigration
of consump-
tives to
Brighton.

93009. You said in answer to the Bishop of Ross, I think, that there was a considerable importation to Brighton at present of cases of people suffering from phthisis?—A steady stream every year.

93010. Is that because of the health conditions of Brighton, or is it because there you have special facilities for the treatment of phthisis?—It is because of the health conditions of Brighton, and because doctors in London and elsewhere say: You are gradually breaking down in health; you had better go and get a job at Brighton or some place like that. With regard to the municipal facilities for treatment, we have had to protect ourselves in Brighton against importation. We have a rigid rule that no patient can be treated in our borough sanatorium until he has lived two years consecutively in Brighton, so the consumptive coming down with the intention of being treated by us has to live there two years.

93011. Is that under your Act?—It is not compulsory under the Act, but we are not taking any case under two years. This is not compulsory treatment.

Notification
of phthisis.

93012. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) You found your voluntary system of notification successful in Brighton?—That is so.

93013. It has been objected sometimes to notification of phthisis being made compulsory, I think, that it would be feared that phthisis would then be thought to be a dangerous infectious disease within the Public Health Act, and therefore persons would be subject to the penalties which attach to a dangerous infectious disease?—That is so.

93014. Have you had any difficulty of that sort in Brighton?—Not at all. We have found that notification has not led to any friction whatever, and the whole thing has been private. We have had practically no trouble in carrying out the proceedings following on notification. I think eventually we shall in Brighton go in for a system of compulsion, if we get the consent of Parliament, but at present we are better off without compulsion than some towns with.

Deterrence
of Poor Law
medical
relief.

93015. (*Chairman.*) You have given us a most interesting and able paper, and it is a subject upon which you have written and thought a great deal, as we all know, for some years past. I want to ask a question in regard to the scheme you put forward being on a gratuitous basis. I understand that you are much impressed with the deterrent effect which the attachment of medical relief to the Poor Law has upon the applicants?—That is so.

Overlapping
of various
medical
agencies.

93016. Also, as your paper shows, you are very much impressed with the overlapping or the want of co-operation there is between the different medical authorities?—Yes.

Mr. Sidney
Webb,
LL.B.

3 Feb. 1908.

93030. (*Chairman.*) You are a Member of the London County Council, and Chairman of the Board of Studies in Economics and Political Science of the University of London?—I am.

93031. You have been good enough to prepare answer to questions submitted to you by this Commission, and if you will kindly hand them in, we will treat them as your evidence-in-chief?—Very well. (*The Witness handed in the following Questions and Answers.*)

93017. And the third, though perhaps not the least of Evils of the evils, is that the system of gratuitous out-patient patient relief which is given by the hospital results in your judgment in perfunctory diagnosis?—Yes.

93018. It being dissociated from domiciliary visits is not calculated to do the patients anything like the amount of good that would be done if they were attended on domiciliary visits?—Yes.

93019. I gather from your evidence that, to get over these evils, you make certain suggestions, and gratuitous relief treatment is put forward because you do not think that the suggestions you make could be effectively put in operation unless the system of relief were gratuitous?—That is so.

93020. But, assuming that it was possible to give effect, I do not say in their entirety, but to a very considerable number of your suggestions without making a system of free medical relief, you would not object to such a course being taken as adopting a scheme which would go in a considerable direction with your views, though not based on purely gratuitous relief?—My idea was, when I said that, that any step in that direction is so far to the good.

93021. You suggested this because it seemed to be the easiest and most practicable way of getting over some of the difficulties?—I was asked to state from a medical point of view what, in my opinion, was the best, and I stated the best.

93022. Have you a mortuary at Brighton?—Yes.

Public
mortuaries.

93023. Is not a public mortuary rather a necessity in a very crowded district?—That is so, but unfortunately there is a great difficulty in getting the working classes to use it.

93024. There is a dislike to it, is there?—Yes, they object very strongly in many cases.

93025. I suppose there is no doubt that the largely increased number of deaths in the workhouse infirmary is due to people being removed there in order that they may not die in their own houses?—I had not thought of that before, but there is another influence acting at the same time, that many people take their relatives out of the infirmary so that it shall not be said that they died in the poor house. That acts to a very large extent.

93026. Still the number of deaths has very largely increased?—Yes, it has doubled in the last twenty or thirty years. In London 18 per cent. of all the deaths occur in workhouses and workhouse infirmaries.

93027. You are afraid that with the prejudice there is against mortuaries their universal establishment would not be very beneficial?—What would be more beneficial and "rest places" would be compulsion to make them used, or some adoption of the German system of rest-places in the cemetery itself before burial. That is an excellent plan. For several days before burial they are in the cemetery.

93028. That is a less repugnant process than to lay the body out in a mortuary?—Yes.

93029. (*Mr. Gardiner.*) You were asked what you thought of the British Medical Association's scheme; would it be asking you too much to add to your evidence a criticism of this scheme? It would be very valuable to us?—I do not think I am at liberty to do so. I am taking on other official duties, and I can only discharge those official duties.

Mr. SIDNEY WEBB, LL.B., called; and Examined.

PART I.

Question I.—What is the general effect:—

- (a) Of the spread of machinery;
- (b) Of more highly organised processes; and
- (c) Of industrial legislation

on the demand for labour?

Question II.—In particular, do modern developments tend to displace:—

- (a) Middle-aged by younger persons;
- (b) "All-round" skill by specialised mechanical skill;
- (c) Skilled labour by unskilled; and
- (d) Adult men by women and young persons?

Question III.—Do modern developments tend to reduce temporarily or permanently the total demand for labour within the trade where such developments occur?

Question IV.—Are the changes indicated in Questions I. and II. fully compensated for by new demands in other directions for the labour displaced?

Question V.—Do such changes call for greater mobility of labour:—

- (a) As between different trades, and
- (b) As between different branches of the same trade?

Question VI.—If so, in what way is the mobility being, or should it be, provided for?

In reply to questions I. to VI. inclusive I am afraid that I have no information or suggestions likely to be of use. I am not aware of any statistical investigations that would enable these questions to be answered with any assurance. I see no reason to doubt the ordinary conclusion that there has been, in the past half-century, a considerable substitution of intelligent machine-minding for mere mechanical effort, with a corresponding transformation of part of the labouring class; quite possibly to the serious detriment of another part of that class. There has also been a considerable decrease in the industrial employment of children and, apparently also, of women; whilst there has been a greatly increased withdrawal from industry also of the mentally and physically afflicted, who are now segregated in institutions to a much greater extent than used to be the case. In this sense the proportion of "skilled" labour in employment has risen relatively to "unskilled." All this must have meant a rise both in the average capacity of the wage-earners employed, and a still greater rise in the minimum capacity considered worth employing. This rise appears likely to continue. It may have a bearing on the problem of how we ought to educate our future workers. It may also (though of this we cannot be sure) afford some explanation of the apparent surplus of common unskilled labour in the great towns. It certainly promises no hope of any automatic absorption of this surplus.

Question VII.—If the demands on the adult worker are now more exacting and if the apprenticeship system is falling into disuse, how would you suggest that youth be trained?

Answer VII.—A Proposal for Industrial Training.—I regard the growing up of hundreds of thousands of boys without obtaining any sort of industrial training, specialised or unspecialised, as a perpetual creating of future pauperism, and a grave social menace. Mr. Reginald Bray, L.C.C., and Mr. Cyril Jackson, L.C.C., will have explained to the Commission the enormous extent to which this is happening in London. Similar conditions prevail, I believe, in Liverpool, Manchester, Glasgow, and other large towns. Without going into detail, I may be permitted to draw attention to the four-fold evil aspect of this phenomenon. There is, first of all, the evil, through the multiplication of van boys, errand boys, messenger boys, etc., of recruiting a chronically excessive army of unskilled, casually-employed, merely brute labour. There is, further, the illegitimate use, by employers, of successive relays of boys, not as persons to whom a skilled trade has to be taught, but, by ignoring that responsibility, as cheap substitutes for adult workers, who are thereby deprived of employment. There is, as the other aspect of this, the failure to provide for the healthy physical development of the town boy, whose long hours of monotonous and uneducational work leave him a "weedy," narrow-chested, stunted weakling, whom even the recruiting sergeant rejects, and who succumbs prematurely to disease. Finally, there is the creation of the "hooligan"—the undisciplined youth, precocious

in evil, earning at 17 or 18 more wages than suffice to keep him, independent of home control, and yet unsteadied by a man's responsibilities.

I regard it as essential, if there is to be any effective grappling with what may be termed the pauperism of casual employment or of unskilled labour, that this four-fold evil should be remedied. At present it is scarcely too much to say we re-create every eight or ten years our whole army of paupers. If, by some miracle, we could get rid of the present million or paupers, we should, if we made no other change, simply have an equal number on our hands within a decade. Nothing is of any real use that does not stop the sources of pauperism. And one of these sources is our present failure in London to turn our boys into physically strong and industrially trained men.

HOW WE AT PRESENT RECRUIT THE ARMY OF UNSKILLED LABOUR.

What stares in the face the exceptionally careful parent of the poorer class who tries to start his son well is, in London, the difficulty of discovering any situation in which his boy can become a skilled worker of any kind, or even enter the service of an employer who can offer him advancement. We have, on the one hand, a great development of employment for boys of a thoroughly bad type, yielding high wages and no training. We have, on the other hand, a positive shrinkage—almost a disappearance—of places for boys in which they are trained to become competent men. London employers not only refuse to teach apprentices, even for premiums—they often refuse to have boys on those parts of their establishments in which anything can be learnt. Many employers won't have boys at all, and take adult recruits from the country. In 1899, when I was a member of the Technical Education Board, I found that London building firms employing over 12,000 men had in their service, not 2,000 or 2,500 boys, as would have been the proportion necessary to recruit the trade, but a few score only. All the skilled grades of the building trade—that most typical London industry—are almost wholly recruited by adults from the country. Enquiries of a large number of builders' foremen show that they were nearly all born and brought up outside London. Corresponding with this must be put the investigations of Mr. Wilson Fox (of the Board of Trade), which show that various large employers of labour, such as breweries, railway companies, etc., employ predominantly country-born workmen, in the proportion of 40, 50, and sometimes even of 65 per cent. of the whole. The Metropolitan Police Force, the Metropolitan Fire Brigade, the teachers in London elementary schools, the porters in City warehouses, the junior clerks in the "entering desk" of the great wholesale firms, the subordinate officers of the Excise and Customs services, all include a quite surprisingly small percentage of Londoners. What happens to the London boy? The answer is given in the grim statistical facts, that the district having the highest percentage of born Londoners is Bethnal Green, which is practically the poorest; and that, so far as we can make out, the London industry in which there is the highest percentage of born Londoners is that of unskilled general labour. This section must now comprise something like half a million of population in the Administrative County of London alone. Its social condition may be judged from the fact that not less than half of it lives in an "overcrowded" condition (*i.e.*, more than two persons to a room). It may be added that Poplar has a larger amount of it than any other London Union, nearly one-tenth of the whole class being herded together in this one district. It is an ominous fact that this particular class, if we may rely on the statistics, seems to have doubled in numbers in London in the last forty years, and to have increased at a greater rate than the population as a whole. It is impossible not to feel that this may have something to do with those other grim facts ascertained by Mr. Wilson Fox, namely, that the applicants to the London Distress Committees, the inmates of the Salvation Army and Church Army shelters, and the inhabitants of some large common lodging-houses are to the extent of 86 to 93 per cent. London-born.

This army of general labourers it is—numbering, with their families, half a million persons—that we are, this year, recruiting (notwithstanding that it is demonstrably already far in excess of all social or

Mr. Sidney Webb,
LL.B.

3 Feb. 1908.

Casual labour conditions in London and lack of skilled employment for London boys.

Mr. Sidney
Webb,
LL.B.

3 Feb. 1908.

industrial requirements) by some tens of thousands of boys now leaving school, who are starting as van boys, errand boys, messengers, yard boys, etc. It may interest the Commission to note that something like a thousand among those who will thus so unsatisfactorily start their industrial life each year are actually paupers, maintained by the Guardians' doles of outdoor relief. I cannot ascertain that any one Board of Guardians in London ever does anything to ensure that its outdoor pauper children shall receive any sort of industrial training whatsoever, or shall be helped or directed to start in some branch of industrial wage earning which may be expected to keep them from reverting to pauperism.

THE FAILURE OF APPRENTICESHIP AND EVENING CLASSES.

What must we do to remedy this continuous and progressive evil? We cannot restore the old apprenticeship system, even if that had anything like its commonly-supposed advantages. At no time did it provide trade teaching for more than a small minority of the population, and then by a method which Adam Smith denounced as extravagantly costly to the community.

There is now no method by which the great mass of London boys can be technically educated—whether we mean by this the teaching of manual crafts or merely a wider education of hand, eye, and brain into all-round industrial capacity—other than that of trade schools. I see no other way of turning the London boy into a trained and fully developed man than that of providing the necessary training between 14 and 21 by the community itself. The parent demonstrably cannot do it. The employer will not, and (under the present industrial conditions) is really not in a position to do so.

London is, I believe, now far better supplied with evening classes, and with a more varied array of opportunities for evening instruction, than any other city in the world. But useful as these are to individuals, they are of advantage chiefly to classes above the half a million of whom we are speaking. Even if we could make it compulsory for every youth to be enrolled at some evening school—useful though such a law would be—we should not have touched the spot. My fifteen years' experience in the administration of education in London makes me quite convinced that it is hopeless to expect to convert boys of the unskilled labour class into competent trained handicraftsmen by evening classes alone. The hours of wage-labour are too long, and the possible duration of the evening lesson is too short, for this kind of instruction to be ever really technologically effective.

HALF-TIME TRADE SCHOOLS.

I have come to the conclusion that, if we want to turn into trained and competent workmen the fifty thousand boys who now annually start wage-earning at something or another there is only one practicable plan; and I think I have satisfied myself that this plan is an effective one. *We must shorten the legally permissible hours of employment for boys, and we must require them to spend the hours so set free in physical and technological training.*

There might be, for instance, an extension of the present "half-time" clauses of the Factory Act, so as to prohibit the employment of any boy between 14 and 18 (or even 21) for more than 30 hours a week, and so as to require the youth to attend for 30 (or even 40) hours per week at the local polytechnic or similar institution.

Such a law would have the following results:—

(1) The employer would find it less advantageous to employ boys, even if he took them in double shifts and paid them no more per hour than he did before, and he would consequently not be so anxious so to alter his processes as to substitute them for adult men. But (as the supply of boy labour would be halved) there would be a positive scarcity of boys, and their rate of wages per hour would probably rise, so that the employer would tend to employ, instead of boys, actually more adult men than at present.

(2) The youth, who now has even too much pocket-money, and gets therefore too soon independent of home, and too easily led into evil courses, would find his earnings reduced, perhaps not by half, but probably by one-third, and his leisure absorbed under discipline.

(3) At the Polytechnic it would be possible, in 30 hours a week, from 14 to 18 (or 21) to put the youth through a course of physical training, under medical supervision, under which he would learn to swim, to row, to box, to ride, etc.; and it could be ensured that the adverse hygienic conditions of town life would be rectified.

(4) There would be possible, in the course of four or seven years' half-time at the trade school, an education of hand, eye, and brain; a practical ability to use competently the ordinary tools; a knowledge of drawing, practical geometry, and workshop arithmetic; and even a groundwork of training in particular handicrafts, such as few even of duly indentured apprentices get. We need not try, or even desire, to convert every boy into a skilled engineer, cabinet-maker, or compositor. But we could make every boy, whatever his occupation, into a man of trained hand, eye, and brain; disciplined and good mannered; of sound muscle and fully developed lungs; with a general knowledge of common tools and simple machines; able to read a plan and make a drawing to scale; ready to undertake any kind of unspecialised work; and competent, even if he does unskilled labour, to do it "with his head."

I may add that, if it should ever be deemed necessary to introduce universal military training into England, it would be possible under such an extension of the "half-time" system as I have described, carried on until 21, to devote the school half-time of the last three years to military drill and rifle shooting. In this way it would be possible to get the entire male population trained to arms (provided that the instruction was undertaken by competent teachers) without a single day's interruption of industrial life and wage-earning, and without any of the demoralising barrack life.

Such an extension of the half-time system, at least to 18, is, I believe, absolutely necessary to save London, and probably many another great city, from producing an ever-increasing crowd of stunted, half-grown, and degenerate weaklings, who grow to such manhood as they attain undisciplined, untaught, untrained, and unskilled; to be gathered, in growing numbers, in the stagnant pools of casually employed general labour, and in the common lodging-houses, the casual wards, and the Salvation Army shelters. It is within the power of the community to stop this evil. The only question is whether it cares to take the necessary steps.

THE TRAINING OF GIRLS.

I have so far said nothing about the girls. But Training of their problem is an analogous one. They all need girls. the training of body and brain, hand and eye; they all need the instruction in the use of the household implements and tools; they all need the technical education that is necessary to produce competent housewives and mothers. If girls, in any social class, ever got this effectively from their own mothers, they do not get it now in the London working class. They do not, and cannot, get such training before they leave the elementary school at 13 or 14. An extension of the half-time clauses of the Factory Acts up to 18 would benefit girls no less than boys.

PART II.

Question VIII.—In view of the greater complexity of economic conditions, do you consider that some public organisation (such as, e.g., distress committees, labour exchanges, and the like) is necessary?

Answer VIII.—A proposal for dealing with unemployment.

I regard it as of quite vital importance to social health and in particular, as absolutely indispensable to the prevention of pauperism, that there should be a public authority dealing with "unemployment." The Unemployed Workmen Act of 1905 is of importance only as explicitly recognising the need and the public

Failure of
apprentice-
ship and
evening
classes, and
necessity of
trade schools.

Half time
trade schools.

Reduction of
hours of boy's
work, and
compulsory
attendance
at trade
schools.

Reduction
hours of boy
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attendance
at trade
schools.

responsibility in the matter. It is plain that the principle is destined to be greatly developed. It is, of course, politically quite impossible, even if it were conceivably desirable, simply to repeal that Act, and relegate the unemployed once more to the soul-destroying mixed general workhouse and the demoralising stoneyard. If it is desired simply to revert to "the principles of 1834" for the unemployed, it is clear that there must be established in all the great towns a series of "test workhouses" strictly confined to the able-bodied, and under entirely separate administration from the institutions for the children, the sick, and the aged. Whether or not this is politically possible is another question. In my opinion, it is the only conceivable alternative to a positive and comprehensive scheme.

WHAT THE PROBLEM OF UNEMPLOYMENT REALLY AMOUNTS TO.

I will first state the problem as it appears to me. Any day we find, in every large city, almost at all times, a considerable number of men actually without wage-earning employment for that day, or for many days in succession. At particular seasons of each year this number is greatly augmented. In some years it is greater than in others. These men are occasionally skilled mechanics, or men who have held responsible posts at thirty shillings a week or more, but to the extent of 80 per cent. at least they belong either to the great army of general labourers, or else to that slightly specialised section of it which calls itself painter or "builders' labourer." They are predominantly men in the prime of life, mostly between 20 and 50, with wife and children. They have practically no savings beyond the scanty contents of a one or a two-roomed home. Whether or not they ought to have saved may be matter for argument; but it is to be noted that the vast majority of them have never in their lives earned as much as £60 in any consecutive twelve months—a sum which would not, at best, leave much margin after providing the housing, food, clothing, and other daily necessities of the family group. There is, in their occupations, hardly ever a trade union giving unemployment benefit to which they could have belonged; in fact, no such trade union has ever been able to collect from so poverty-stricken a class the shilling or eighteenpence a week which any adequate unemployment benefit requires. The fact that we have to face is that they do not have savings adequate to tide them over periods of unemployment.

If the community arranges nothing better for these men than the "test workhouse" or even the stoneyard, the vast majority of them do as the Poor Law administrators wish and intend them to do, namely, struggle on outside—pawning one bit of furniture after another, picking up odd jobs, living on the scanty earnings of the women, making a shilling or two out of the children's labour, begging here and there, getting help from churches and chapels, children's dinner funds, and so on. Every now and then there are "demonstrations of the unemployed," and "Mansion House Funds." The total result is (a) the rapid demoralisation in *physique* and *morale* of a large proportion of the men; (b) chronic semi-starvation for the women and children, with the most frightful results in preventable mortality, disease, and permanent physical impoverishment; (c) the reduction of wages to the barest minimum for all the unskilled labour class; and (d) the annual recruiting of the army of permanent paupers to such a degree as to nullify all attempts to reduce its total by the wisest curative treatment. I believe this to be one main reason why the number of paupers does not decrease. These results, which are always going on, are alike so patent and so invariable, at once so costly and so injurious to the community as a whole, that it is, in my opinion, worth spending almost any sum, and taking any amount of trouble, to remedy the evil.

HOW TO APPROACH THE PROBLEM.

We may agree that the work of the Distress Committees has so far resulted in very little. But the last five years have taught the public a great deal, and in my judgment it is now politically possible, if we really wish to cure the evil, for a statesman to do so. Of course, we may not really wish to remedy the evil, or we may prefer the evil to the remedy. But I do not

think it is now possible to say with honesty that we do not know how to remedy the evil, or that there is no remedy.

I think we can get little help from the various suggestions that are made for "classifying" the unemployed. I believe that classification is necessary for any form of charitable relief. Classification of individuals in this case corresponds with diagnosis in medicine. It is indispensable to the selection of the proper method of treatment of the individual. It ought never to be used as a means of refusing all treatment. Moreover, it in no way contributes to a solution of the social problem. For this we need a diagnosis of the social disease, which is not the disease of any individual.

The salient fact that emerges from the experience and studies of the problem during the last twenty years is the comparative unimportance, from a statistical standpoint, of the popular figure of the skilled artisan thrown out of work by the introduction of new machinery or other industrial changes, or the man dismissed because of his grey hairs. The conditions with which we have to deal are not spasmodic or exceptional, but chronic. They concern, not individuals alone, but a whole class. The evil is not even measured by the extent to which the aggregate volume of employment—the total demand for wage-labour—waxes and wanes from month to month or from year to year. Even in the best times there are tens of thousands of men in the conditions that I have described. The total number exposed to these conditions can scarcely be estimated, but it is plainly many times larger than the difference between the aggregate totals employed at the best of times and at the worst of times.

The evil to be grappled with is, in fact, not the loss of permanent situations by the particular men who are found to be out of work, for the vast majority of them have never held such situations. It is the casual nature of the employment that, even at the best of times, is afforded to the whole class, of whom they are only an accidentally selected sample. Though there are among the crowd some men who are really suffering from being thrown out of regular and continuous employment, and who quite reasonably aspire to get back again into durable situations, these can at present neither be accurately distinguished nor effectively helped, because of the crowding of the others, who are immeasurably more numerous. What is depressing and destroying the lives of these others is not unemployment in the ordinary sense. The social problem which is presented, for instance, by the Liverpool dock labourers, is as grave on the days when they get work as it is on the days when they get none—that is to say, we have to take into account not only the particular 10 per cent. who may be starving to-day, but also the other 90 per cent. who will quite certainly be equally destitute some other week in the year, or some other year of the trade cycle. No scheme dealing only with the sample of the whole that happens to-day to be without work can ever be of any real use. It is the chronically intermittent character of the employment of the whole class for which we must find some remedy. What we have primarily to deal with is, as Mr. Beveridge puts it, not so much unemployment as "under-employment."

CASUAL LABOUR.

It is the existence of this large class of men living on casual employment—getting a day's work here and a day's work there, occasionally working four or five days in a week, and then perhaps only four or five days in a month—that both intensifies the evil of unemployment and renders nugatory all kinds of "relief works." It intensifies the evil, because (as Mr. Beveridge has shown) reliance by individual employers on casual labour creates little crowds of surplus labour at each dock gate, by each wharf, even around each builder's foreman—each crowd waiting wholly or mainly for jobs from that particular source. It is to the interest of each such employer to have waiting for his jobs a crowd large enough to get through the maximum amount of work at any moment that he is ever likely to need to get done. Thus there are now collected on the Thames and the Mersey, at Bristol and at Newcastle, at Glasgow and at Hull, not merely enough casual labourers to supply the maximum needs of the

Mr. Sidney Webb, LL.B.

3 Feb. 1908.

Question of "classification" of the unemployed.

Chronic under-employment of casual labour.

Effects of excess of casual labour.

Mr. Sidney
Webb,
I.L.B.

3 Feb. 1908.

Effects of
excess of
casual
labour.

busiest day of the port as a whole, if all the needs were combined, but enough to supply the aggregate total of the separate maxima that the several employers may, on many different days, individually require. And what is true of dock and wharf labour is true to a greater or less extent of the slightly specialised manual labour employed by the builders and the contractors for engineering works, of the workers in practically all the seasonal trades, of the outworkers in the clothing and furniture trades, and, in fact, in all industries in which there is not a definite regular staff, filling permanent situations, but in which labour is "casually" employed. The result of this excess is that the casual employment is rendered even more intermittent and "casual" than it need be. Moreover, so long as there exists this huge army of labourers who never are "employed" (in any regular situation), every attempt to provide for the comparatively few skilled mechanics displaced by machinery, etc., the steady man who has lost a situation at 25s. or 30s. a week, through the bankruptcy of his employer, and the other meritorious cases that turn up occasionally at the Distress Committees, is doomed to failure. The practically inexhaustible flood of casual labourers flows in and swamps the register, swamps the relief works, and swamps everything else that a despairing Distress Committee attempts. And this series of stagnant crowds of casual labour is apparently getting larger and more casual in its character.

THE ORGANISATION OF CASUAL EMPLOYMENT.

Decasualisa-
tion.

Thus it is a necessary preliminary to any useful action for "the unemployed" (in the strict sense) that there should be some organisation of casual employment. After much consideration of the problem and of the various suggestions made, I have come to the conclusion that the following plan offers a practicable remedy, and, as far as I can see, the only practicable remedy. I owe this plan mainly to the discoveries and the stimulating suggestions of Mr. Beveridge; but he has, I believe, not yet worked out his own ideas to the extent that I am now taking them; and in any case he has no responsibility for my proposals.

We must postulate, to begin with, the great desirability, from the standpoint of the community, of putting an end to all "casual" or intermittent employment of wage labour if we could do so, because of its social effects. No housekeeping can stand a demoralising uncertainty as to whether the week's income will be five shillings or five and twenty. I do not believe that, if industry were at all deliberately organised on a large scale, an abolition of casual employment would be impossible. But stopping short of a legal prohibition of a method of hiring labour which is demonstrably quite as injurious to the community as was the Truck System, we may reasonably ask those employers who continue to adopt it, to submit to some restrictions calculated to reduce the social evil that they undoubtedly cause. I propose that it should be made legally compulsory on employers, being persons carrying on industrial or commercial operations for profit, either to guarantee a minimum period of employment—which might be put at a month—(subject, of course, to the power of dismissal of any particular individual for misconduct, and even to the arbitrary replacement of one man by another if desired); or, in the alternative, in so far as they are unable or unwilling to offer employment for a month, then to hire such labour as they want, whether for a job, a day, or a week, exclusively through the public Labour Exchange.

Proposal to
put compul-
sion on
employers to
guarantee
minimum
length of
engagement,
or to use
public labour
exchange.

National
labour
exchange
system.

I propose the development of the existing Labour Exchanges of the Distress Committees into a complete national system; with offices opened exactly where most convenient to employers (for instance, actually inside the dock gates, or at the principal wharves, or at any other places where sudden demands for labour occur); keeping whatever office hours were required (ready, for instance, to supply labourers at five in the morning); and, of course, telephonically interconnected, and organised up to the maximum efficiency. As there would be no other opportunity of getting casual employment at all (with the possible exception of the odd jobs offered by private persons, not engaged in business; and even these we may hope to diminish), it would not be necessary to make it legally compulsory on the labourers to enrol themselves at the Labour Exchanges, except under circumstances to be hereafter described. Nor would it be necessary legally to

prohibit the existence of other agencies for filling situations. As employers would be forbidden to use them for casual labour, such agencies would automatically cease to compete with the public Labour Exchanges, and would have, perforce, to confine themselves to filling such situations of at least a month's duration as might be offered to them.

This plan, it will be seen, reduces to a minimum, the proposed restriction on the employer, or the interference with his business. It would cause him absolutely no increase of expense. In so far as he can offer regular employment of a month's duration, he is not affected at all. Even for casual labour, he remains as free as before to hire it by the job or by the day only, for as short a period as he chooses. He will have at his disposal all the men in the whole town who are not already engaged. He may have his own choice of men (assuming that they are momentarily disengaged). He may ask for this man or that; he may keep his own list of "preference men"; he may send for ten or a hundred men in order of his preference, or send merely for so many men without naming them. He may even bargain privately with the man of his choice, and virtually secure him beforehand, provided that he lets the formal hiring take place through the Labour Exchange. All that he is forbidden to do is, at any time or under any circumstances, to take on casual labour otherwise than through the Labour Exchange.

Results of the
scheme to
employers
and to
labourers.

The result to the labourer living by casual employment will be that he will find effectively open to him, not merely the particular demand for labour of this or that wharf, or this or that foreman, on which he has been in the habit of waiting, but the whole aggregate demand of the town. We may assume that the policy of the Labour Exchange would be, subject to any preferences expressed by employers, so to distribute the available men, and so to dovetail the engagements offered to each of them, as to secure to each man who was employed at all five or six days' work in every week. In so far as this was achieved, we should have done for casual labour what has been done for skilled nurses in most large towns by the various nurses' institutes, etc., and for the members of the Corps of Commissionaires in London, namely, combined freedom to the employer to hire only for a job, with practical continuity of work to the person employed.

THE ASCERTAINMENT OF THE SURPLUS.

There will remain, after the Labour Exchange has met all the demands upon it, a residuum of men, who are demonstrably not wanted at that moment, in that place. This "surplus labour" will be a varying amount from day to day. Some of it will be needed to meet the periods of increased demand for labour—the "wools" and the "teas" at the docks, the pressure on the railway companies at the holiday seasons, the extra postmen at Christmas, the "glut men" at the Custom House, the curiously regular irregularities of the printing and bookbinding trades, the increased demand in winter of the gas companies on the one hand and the theatrical industry on the other, the spring rush on painters and builders' labourers, on dressmakers, and trouser-finishers, and so on. But we shall be surprised to find how easy it will prove after a year or two's experience to forecast these requirements for the town as a whole; and, very possibly, how comparatively small is the variation in the aggregate volume of employment for unskilled and casual labour of one day or of one month, or of one season of the year, compared with another. What remains to be discovered is how far the different sporadic demands can be satisfied interchangeably by the undifferentiated labour that is available. Complete interchangeability of labour, and complete dovetailing of situations may, of course, not be possible. But probably it would become every year more practicable; and it will obviously be part of the educational training, to be now described, to promote a more complete interchangeability.

Residuum of
work-
people after
decasualisa-
tion

The Labour Exchange would, of course, not confine itself to filling situations in the ranks of casual employment, or from among those whom it had to support. It would receive, and in every way encourage, voluntary applications from employers for labour of better grades, for durable situations; which it would do its best to fill from the best of those whom it had on its register.

Scope of
labour
exchange.

When the whole of the anticipated requirements of each town are provided for—and, of course, at all times as regards individual cases—it should be the duty of the various Labour Exchanges to communicate with each other as to the actual or anticipated requirements of other towns. Just as all the Labour Exchanges in one town would report, day by day, and even, telephonically, hour by hour, to a central office in that town, from which they would all be advised as to the localities where additional men were required, so the Labour Exchanges of all the different towns in the United Kingdom would report, at least once a day, to the Ministry of Labour stating (a) what surplus labour they had, and (b) how much of it was not needed for the proximate local requirements; or, on the other hand, (c) what shortage of labour they had, or expected to have. Particular Labour Exchanges could then be put telephonically in direct communication with each other, either with a view to filling particular situations or with a view to an offer, to those labourers who were disengaged, of the chance of migration to the town in which additional labour of any particular sort was required. It might well be part of the help afforded by the State to make this mobility possible by advancing any necessary railway fares.

THE TREATMENT OF THE SURPLUS.

Theoretically, as Mr. Beveridge quite logically insists, it is not necessary for the Labour Exchange to do anything more than organise, for the common benefit of employers and men, just whatever private demand for casual labour happens at the moment to exist. But it is, in my opinion, politically impossible to stop at this point. The hundreds of thousands of casual labourers would in that case bitterly resent being deprived of their present gambling chance of getting situations for themselves. They would still more resent the dovetailing of chances which, whilst securing practical continuity of work to some men, left others without any at all. Public opinion would support them in this resentment. It is therefore, in my judgment, an essential part of the plan that there should be full and frank public provision for the residuum for whom the Labour Exchange can find no employment. The men and their families have to be fed somehow. Nothing can be more costly to the State than the way in which they are now fed, nothing more destructive of character and health, nothing more demoralising to the community. We are already driven—first, in the form of "Labour Test" relief by the Boards of Guardians during the whole of the last 70 years, and now in the various activities of the Distress Committees—to provide for these men and their families out of the public funds. Instead of doing this unscientifically and wastefully, because on no well-thought-out and deliberate plan, it would be far better for the community, and less demoralising for the men, and possibly, in the long run, even less costly to the State, to put the matter on a systematic basis.

I propose that the disposable residuum of labour—the labourers for whom no employer can be found by the Labour Exchanges—should be given, without stigma of pauperism, or any attempt to prevent them from applying, *full maintenance in return for training*. It is necessary to keep them; it is necessary that they should not have their time on their hands; it is necessary to make these days of waiting less pleasant to them than days of employment. It follows, from the nature of the case, that there is no room here for any sort of "relief works" or "labour test." We shall know that they cannot secure private employment. Moreover, the residuum of labourers, whom all the employers in the town have preferred to leave to the last, will inevitably be men of relatively inferior physique, relatively bad physical condition, relatively unsatisfactory habits, and relative lack of skill, for whom it would be absurdly extravagant and ridiculous to engage to do public work at wages. To create artificial work at wages for them would, in fact, be to defeat the whole object of the proposed organisation. These particular men—the residuum, be it remembered, of a far stricter selective process than any one Distress Committee can now apply—must be regarded as temporarily "out of condition" for useful work. They would, in fact, almost invariably be found eminently suitable subjects for physical, mental, and technological "remedial drill," with a view to bringing them up to a higher

standard of productive efficiency. Any improvement which it may be found possible to effect in them must not be expected in itself to prevent their future "unemployment" or "underemployment"—that will not be the object of the training, and it will only mislead the public to advocate it on that ground. Whilst the training will be useful in itself to the community, as well as to the men themselves, its real object in the scheme is (a) to occupy the men's time, in order to prevent the demoralisation of idleness; (b) to supply the necessary deterrent element, so that the men may find their periods of unemployment less "pleasurable" than their periods of employment at wages. This deterrent element would be found in taking from them, for the whole day, not only all indulgence in alcohol, but also all leisure for idle gossip. They would sacrifice rather more of their liberty whilst they were in training than if they were in employment at wages, and they would get no beer.

THE TRAINING OF THE SURPLUS LABOURER.

I propose, therefore, that there should be attached to the Labour Exchange organisation a series of graduated training establishments of different kinds, partly day and partly residential, to which all those men should be relegated for whom no employment could be found, other than those who had insured themselves (as hereinafter described) against this contingency, or who possessed other means of subsistence for themselves and their families. If they refused to submit to this training they would get no relief of any kind; they would be liable to be proceeded against as rogues and vagabonds; and they could be committed to the penal settlement or to prison. In return for putting in their whole time at the training establishments, and submitting to the necessary regimen and discipline, the men would be fully fed (and adequately clothed when necessary), but would be paid no wages or pocket money, whilst adequate home aliment would be granted for the support of their families under suitable conditions.

I visualise these training establishments for the unemployed as graduated and specialised in various ways, as experience may dictate. There will be (1) Central Labour Depôts, in close propinquity with the principal Labour Exchanges, for what I may call the first class reserve of the industrial army; (2) day industrial schools of various kinds, for the second class reserve; (3) farm colonies, of at least three different grades, adapted to the needs of the real surplus, which may be found not to be wanted in the towns at all; and (4) a penal settlement, to which the recalcitrant and the incorrigibly idle would find themselves committed by the magistrates.

(a) The Central Labour Depôt.

Let us consider these somewhat more in detail. It might well be the best of the surplus labourers, selected for physique, regularity of conduct, and intelligence, who would each day be kept within call, ready to meet not only the already notified demands of employers, but also unexpected sudden requirements. For this section, who may be regarded as the first class reserve, we may imagine the utilisation of the existing trade schools within the town; the provision, near at hand, of lecture rooms, gymnasia, and reading rooms; and the organisation of suitably alternated technical classes, physical exercises, plain meals without alcohol, lectures, and drill, so as to absorb the whole day. This constant attendance and continuous mental occupation is essential. From these centres would be fetched, hour by hour, such labour as was demanded from any part of the town. At present it stands about at street corners, loafs in and out of the beerhouses, and, in an atmosphere of congenial gossip, goes rapidly to seed.

(b) The Day Industrial School.

But there would be another contingent of men for whose services there would be no probable demand that day, or even that week or that month—men who would be demonstrably inferior in physique or qualifications to the selected first class, and who needed more improving in body or mind. Some of these might be sent to specific day industrial schools for particular forms of training, expected to extend over a few weeks, or even a few months, but liable always to be interrupted

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Webb,
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3 Feb. 1908.

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LL.B.

3 Feb. 1908.

if there came an abnormal demand for labour, when the Labour Exchange would send for them. At these day industrial schools they would have to attend from 6 a.m. to 9 p.m.—the object being to absorb their leisure and organise their whole waking life—for a properly varied curriculum of gymnastics and drill, trade classes and stimulating lectures, swimming, and organised games, interspersed with good, plain meals, and no alcohol—the whole dictated by a consideration of what is calculated most to increase their physical and mental efficiency. This absorption in varied mental and physical occupations of the entire day is essential. Their wives and families (to whom they would return at night) would receive home aliment.

(c) *The Farm Colony.*

Farm
colonies.

Possibly, at some future time, we should find that there was no further surplus labour in the towns than what could advantageously be relegated for the slack season to these Day Industrial Schools. But for the present, at any rate, as the result of any success in "dovetailing" various forms of intermittent employment, we should undoubtedly have a clear surplus for which the town had no use. Moreover, there would always be particular men to be prepared for country work, or for emigration. Thus, though the farm colony on a large scale may be only a temporary need, there will probably always be room for a certain amount of training accommodation of this kind. But this, too, should be organised and regarded strictly as educational training and discipline, not as providing employment. The choice of work should be dictated by its educational effect on the men, not by its profitability; maintenance should be given, together with home aliment for the family, but no wages. There might be grades of farm colonies; some very rough and physically laborious, others specialising in fruit culture and the finer sorts of market gardening. Men could be moved upwards or downwards, as their conduct and character required, and there might have to be provision for "incurables"—men found really incapable of satisfying any employer, but neither physically ill nor morally vicious—for whom, as for the *sane epileptics*, who constitute an exactly analogous class, we can do no better than keep them in segregation in the country at such light and easy jobs as they can perform.

(d) *The Scope for Religion and Philanthropy.*

Scope for
religion and
philanthropy.

In this connection there would be great opportunity for making use of the fervour and zeal of philanthropy and religion. The greatest results in the way of the reclamation and training of individuals have always been achieved by religious organisations. It may well be wise for the State to make a greatly increased use (with proper inspection) of farm colonies and similar settlements and homes, conducted by religious and philanthropic committees, for such of the residuum as may be willing to be sent to them in preference to the Government establishment. It may well be that for all that important side of training that is implied in the strengthening of moral character, the building up of the will, the power to resist temptation, and the formation of regular habits, the most effective instruments are a degree of love and of religious faith that a Government establishment with a Civil Service staff may not always be able to secure. The Ministry of Labour would therefore be well advised to let the denominations and the philanthropists have all the scope that they can take, and only to establish such additional Government farm colonies as are found needful to supplement the private effort. This private effort could be subsidised by payments for each case, as has long been done for a whole generation in the reformatory schools, and as is now being done in inebriate homes.

(e) *The Penal Settlement.*

Penal
colonies.

At the base there must evidently be a Penal Settlement, with whatever drastic disciplinary treatment may be found most curative. But I suggest that the object must always be to raise and stimulate, never to depress; and the principle adopted ought to be that of the Indeterminate Sentence (subject, if desired, to a fixed extreme maximum). Every person committed should be committed for as long a period as may prove necessary. He should stay there until he had given to the authorities of the Settlement reason-

able assurance of being reformed in body and mind; he should always know that he could emerge just as soon as he was able to give that reasonable assurance, when he would rise to the farm colony, and through the various grades of farm colony to the Day Industrial School, and so back to the Central Labour Depot, and the chance of a regular situation—subject, of course, to being degraded and again committed every time he lapsed. There would be great advantages in transferring all prisoners to the Penal Settlement for the latter portions of their sentences, instead of merely discharging them on ticket of leave or otherwise, in order that they, too, may have, first of all, a secure provision of subsistence in return for labour, some industrial training, and then a real opportunity of rising to the ranks of honest employment. An analogous working arrangement between prison and Labour Exchange is apparently acting well in Illinois.

A MINISTRY OF LABOUR.

It will be evident that such a scheme as is here contemplated must necessarily be organised on a national basis. The necessary series of institutions could not be provided by any one local authority. Moreover, as any local authority would always try to exclude outsiders from its district, it would be impossible to secure the necessary geographical mobility of labour unless all the Labour Exchanges were intimately connected together, and freed from the influence of local jealousies and local exclusiveness. I propose, therefore, that it should be the work of a Minister of Labour (or of the Board of Trade) to organise (a) a complete system of Labour Exchanges in every town; (b) the utilisation as far as possible of philanthropic training establishments; (c) to provide the necessary series of institutions for the common use of all the Exchanges, extending from the Central Labour Depot for the first class reserve through the various kinds of Day Industrial Schools and Farm Colonies for the second and third class reserves, down to the Penal Settlement. This national Department of Labour would take over the duties and the offices and institutions of the hundred or two Distress Committees and other organisations of the Unemployed Workmen Act. I propose that the expenses, including the maintenance provided for the men for whom work was not found, should become a charge upon national funds. On the other hand, the home aliment awarded to their wives and families had better remain a charge upon local funds. It would, in fact, be dealt with as out-door relief by the Superintendent of Relief, or other officer who seems to form a necessary part of any reform of the Poor Law.

STATE-AID TO PROVIDENT INSURANCE
AGAINST UNEMPLOYMENT.

It might be undesirable, even if it were politically possible, to propose a national organisation of Labour Exchanges, with maintenance to the unemployed in return only for further training, except side by side with an offer of encouragement to the workmen to make themselves, by provident insurance, independent of the whole machinery. Such insurance against unemployment is at present provided by some of the trade unions, and scarcely at all by any other institutions. At present, however, only about a third of the total of two million trade unionists (and none of the ten or twelve million non-unionists) are insured against unemployment, this "out-of-work benefit" being provided only by the trade unions in the more skilled and better paid trades, which alone are able to afford the necessary premium. For instance, neither the bricklayers nor the stonemasons, though very skilled workmen, have ever been able to get beyond the very objectionable "tramping pay." It would be a good investment for the community to aid and develop this trade union insurance against unemployment by a grant-in-aid, calculated, perhaps, at one half what the trade union paid. It would be very desirable to make it a condition of the State-subsidised "out-of-work pay" that (a) that all tramping pay should be abolished, and (b) the recipient should be required to spend some of his idle hours at a technical institute, where he could be given instruction in his own trade. The unemployed compositors, for instance, who daily "sign the book" at the trade union office in London and draw two shillings, now usually loaf about Ludgate Circus on the chance of a job. They are generally men of not the highest skill—mostly, in fact, men of very inadequate

Ministry of
labour to
organise
labour ex-
changes and
training
establish-
ments.

Insurance
against un-
employment

Desirability
of State
grants to
trade union-
giving out-
of-work
benefit.

training and range of work. They had far better be required to spend some hours a day at the neighbouring St. Bride's Institute, in technical classes, at work on those parts of their craft in which they are not proficient. With such State subsidy the provision of "out-of-work benefit" would be made possible in many of the poorer trade unions; a greatly increased number of workmen would be induced to insure against unemployment; a corresponding relief would be afforded to the public organisation that had to provide for the unemployed; the last excuse for vagrancy would be removed; and it would be put within the capacity of every provident artisan (but still only of the men above the grade of casual labourer) to provide against the contingency of unemployment in the method most congenial to himself. But there is no need to attempt to force this subsidy on the workmen's organisations. The thrifty workman may, in fact, be left to do as he likes. So long as he fulfilled all his social obligations whilst out of work, whether by means of insurance or otherwise, the State need not interfere with him. If he did not beg, did not commit a nuisance, and did not let his wife and children suffer from inanition, he might, if he chose, abstain from enrolling himself at the Labour Exchange; but if he was found begging, or tramping without means of subsistence, if his home became unsanitary or his children were reported to be unfed, the first question would be, why are you not at the Labour Exchange? And commission of any of these offences, by a man who was not taking this obvious means of fulfilling his social obligations, would, of course be a serious crime. If a man made no provision for the future when the State had made this possible for him, he could hardly complain of the way in which the State dealt with him *for his good* when he became destitute. Government subsidies of trade-union insurance against unemployment will not rashly be declared—by any educated person—to be impossible, because the system actually exists, Germany, with the assent of both employers and trade unions.

TRADE UNION LABOUR EXCHANGES.

A further encouragement might well be afforded to the provident workman. As the great majority of the situations in the skilled trades are not of the nature of casual employment, but do, as a matter of fact, last for a month or more (or could easily be so arranged as to do so), it would be in no way necessary for these to be filled through the Labour Exchange. It might even be desirable to make arrangements also for the shorter engagements and "casual" jobs of the skilled mechanics in such trades to be independently organised. It might be well to provide that where a trade union, giving out of work benefit, desired, perhaps in conjunction with an organisation of employers, to manage its own register of men unemployed and situations vacant, it would be permitted to do so in close connection with the public Labour Exchange, which would transfer to it at once any applications from employers in that trade, and not fill any such situations unless and until the special office for the trade failed to do so. In this way there would be secured, to those workers in any trade who had been provident enough to insure themselves against unemployment, a practical preference for all the employment that might be offered in that trade. This conjunction of the trade union register of unemployed workmen with the public Labour Exchange cannot be summarily dismissed as impracticable or as ruinous to the employer—by anyone who knows what he is talking about—for it is in full force in some parts of Germany, and is apparently working well.

THE VOLUNTARY ORGANISATION OF CASUAL LABOUR.

Moreover, it would be open to the employers in any particular trade to undertake, if they preferred, the organisation of their own casual employment. The Liverpool shipowners, who now refuse to take any trouble to avoid creating a quite unnecessary congestion of surplus labour at the Liverpool docks, with the gravest social consequences, might elect (rather than submit to a public Labour Exchange) to establish such an organisation for themselves. Provided that they offered continuous employment of not less than a month to their men—as a very little organisation and a small insurance premium would enable them to do—they would be free to make their own arrangements. They might, for instance, establish a mutual

society, which itself engaged the labourers by the month, and supplied them to the shipowners as required. They might even combine both advantages, the mutual society engaging and supplying the regular corps of men, of the number up to which constant employment could be guaranteed, and also drawing on the Labour Exchange in any temporary emergency (as any individual shipowner could also do).

TRANSITIONAL ARRANGEMENTS.

In any comprehensive scheme for dealing with the unemployed there are, I believe, two conditions that must be satisfied before it will be adopted. One is that the humane public, no less than the unfortunate labourers themselves, must have assurance that there will be no cessation or interruption, whilst the new and comprehensive scheme is getting under way, of the provision already made for the relief of the unemployed workmen and their families. The other is that the scheme shall afford, at its other end, some prospect of eventually providing, in some permanent way, for the ultimate residuum of the unemployed. Both these conditions must be met. The first is fully met by the fact that nothing now existing will be abolished by my proposals until a larger and more satisfactory provision is made. The present Labour Exchanges of the Distress Committees will go on until they are absorbed in the local offices of a National Labour Exchange. The present relief works of the Distress Committees will go on until the National Labour Exchange can undertake to provide, somewhere, for all the men whom it is unable to place in situations. The existing farm colonies will continue until they are actually merged in the national system. The existing Poor Law arrangements for relief to the able-bodied need not be interfered with. It is a positive advantage of the proposal that it need not necessarily be put in force simultaneously all over the kingdom. A beginning could be made with London, every other place continuing as at present, and the operations being gradually extended from town to town.

THE DISPOSAL OF THE ULTIMATE RESIDUUM.

The second condition, that the scheme shall afford a prospect of eventually providing in some permanent way for the ultimate residuum of the unemployed, must now claim attention. At present we can do nothing effective for them, because (a) we are not convinced that there is any such residuum; or, at any rate, (b) we have no idea how large it is; and (c) we cannot distinguish it amid the crowd of merely "underemployed" casual labourers. But once a National Labour Exchange had filled all the demands of employers from one end of the kingdom to the other, and had estimated the probable total of their demands in the approaching busy season, or the ensuing busy years of the trade cycle, the number of the residual unemployed would be demonstrated and their personal identity established. The ten or twenty thousand men who might then be under training in the various farm colonies would be an unmistakable object lesson. The nation would have to make up its mind what to do with them.

It would, for instance, be open to the Government, at the instance of the Minister of Labour, to decide upon any schemes of afforestation, or land reclamation, or road making, or, for that matter, the calling out of the Militia or Army Reserve for extra training, the building of additional battleships or Militia barracks—being socially desirable, but not commercially profitable undertakings, which would not otherwise have been started, but which it might be worth while undertaking in order to increase the aggregate demand for wage-labour.*

* It is, I believe, an economic blunder, still current among people otherwise "enlightened," that any such increase in the aggregate demand for labour is, without an increase of capital, logically impossible. But, as a matter of fact, the actual demand for wage-labour visibly fluctuates considerably in amount without any alteration in the momentary amount of capital; and is, in fact, determined largely by states of mind, and made effective by all the machinery of credit, both of which can be altered by Government action. It is then sometimes objected that the cost of any Government action, being levied as taxes, necessarily causes as great a diminution of private employment as the Government can cause increase. This is to assume—an assumption for which there is no sort of economic warrant—that a restriction of the individual consumption of luxuries necessarily causes a decrease in the volume of employment equal to the amount of the retrenchment of personal expenditure.

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LL.B.

3 Feb. 1908.

Necessity of continuing present means of relief pending reorganisation.

Disposal of residuum of unemployed after de-casualisation.

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3 Feb. 1908.

Disposal of
residuum of
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The Government might well resolve, rather than maintain 20,000 men in idleness, to give out contracts for such works as have been mentioned, with the view of getting that number more men into situations. The Government would do well not to employ the particular 20,000 men who were on its hands, and not even in any way to fetter its contractors in their choice of men. All that it need do to achieve its object is to put its orders on the market or let its manufacturing departments take on more hands, in the usual way, so as to increase the aggregate volume of demand for wage-labour. Then, with all the safeguards of each employer selecting the best men, the residuum on the hands of the National Labour Exchange would be indirectly drawn upon, and might be practically absorbed.

On the other hand, we might come to the conclusion that the 20,000 men whom we might find on our hands—or many of them—could be best disposed of by settling them on the land that they had reclaimed, either as small holders or as co-operative colonies, in order that they might produce their own subsistence.

Or, again, we might find that these 20,000, or many of them, could be best disposed of by being settled on the land in new countries; or, for that matter, merely enabled to emigrate to Canada.

Or, again, we might decide that, if there were 20,000 men standing idle, the time had come for a reduction of the general hours of labour by a fraction—say, half an hour a week—sufficient to absorb the surplus labour.

Probably the nation would use a combination of all these methods, for particular individuals, at particular dates. But not until we have got the existence of a residual surplus actually demonstrated by a National Labour Exchange shall we be in a position to make the necessary decision.

"UTOPIAN."

Such a plan for dealing with unemployment by the organisation of casual labour will, of course, be dismissed as "Utopian." Experience shows that this may mean nothing more than that the plan will take some years to come about. I will conclude by mentioning two instances in which schemes of remedying social evils, that seemed wildly "Utopian," have, even within our own lifetimes, come about. Less than a century ago the problem of dealing with the sewage of London seemed insoluble. Half a million separate private cesspools accumulated each its own putrefaction. To combine these festering heaps into a single main drainage system seemed, to the Statesmen and social reformers of 1820 or 1830, beyond the bounds of possibility. We now take for granted that only by such a concentration is it possible to get rid of the festering heaps and scientifically render innocuous the ultimate residuum. And, to take an even larger problem, less than half a century ago, when millions of children in the land were growing up untaught, undisciplined, and uncared for, it would have sounded wildly visionary to have suggested that the remedy was national organisation. Could there have been anything more "Utopian" in 1850 than a picture of what to-day we take as a matter of course, the seven million children emerging every morning, washed and brushed, from five or six million homes in every part of the kingdom, traversing street and road and lonely woodland, going o'er fell and moor, to present themselves at a given hour at their thirty thousand schools, where each of the seven millions finds his or her own individual place, with books and blackboard and teacher provided ready for him—surely a triumph of the "regimentation" in which there is the truest freedom? What has been done with the London cesspools and the English children can be done, if we like, with the casual labourers, and probably in much less time.

93032. (Chairman.) I gather that with regard to Questions 1 to 6 you think that there are influences at work which would tend to rather increase this surplus of common unskilled labour in towns?—I think that is so. I think perhaps what is most influential in that is not so much the introduction of machinery and new processes as such, but the constant changes which are always going on, which are incidental, of course, to the introduction of machinery. I think any changes in industry tend to increase the number of men who fall out and sink down.

93033. The people so displaced would add themselves on to the common unskilled labour that was under employed?—Yes, a large number of them do.

93034. As to whether it is possible to revive the apprenticeship system, I see both from your answer there and from subsequent answers, you are very much impressed by the large number of boys that are annually turned out of schools in London who go into an unskilled and very uncertain means of occupation?—Yes, that is, I believe, almost the greatest of all evils in London.

93035. That is an evil that is not on the decrease, is it?—No, it is apparently increasing, because it has relation to the substitution of large firms and large works for individual employers. The village blacksmith can take an apprentice, but a large engineering firm does not take anything like a proportionate number of apprentices.

93036. The occupation to which these boys go does not in your opinion tend to properly develop them physically?—That is so. I do not quite understand why, but you do have the result that the boy at nineteen or twenty is not properly developed. It is not because he is indoors, because mainly these occupations are out of doors, but apparently there is not sufficient muscular exercise.

93037. Then I suppose he is what I may call a very irregular feeder?—He is an irregular feeder, and his hours are very irregular, especially his hours of going to bed, I am afraid.

93038. You think so seriously of it that you use these strong words: That it is not too much to say we are creating every eight or ten years a whole army of paupers?—Yes, excluding the aged, I think it is clear that if you could get rid of all the paupers now existing in some drastic way and leave everything else unchanged, you would in a very few years, ten or twelve, have practically as many paupers on your hands, apart from the aged.

93039. This process of breeding or creating paupers is perhaps more rampant in London than in the big provincial towns?—I know it more in London, but I am not sure that it is not just as bad in places like Glasgow, Manchester and Liverpool and perhaps other ports.

93040. The result therefore is that the great bulk of the London boys in your judgment get pushed out, or do not go into trades of a skilled organised character which would give them permanent employment and the chance of a rise?—That is so: demonstrably so.

93041. You have no doubt whatever in your own mind about that?—The great example is the building of country trade, which is the largest London trade; I think an enormous proportion of the building trade of London is recruited by young men from the country districts.

93042. If that is so, I assume it must be that the London boy is physically inferior, because he would be quicker than the country boy?—I do not admit that he is inferior: I think it is that at the age of nineteen or twenty when the little builder is taking on a bricklayer's improver the London boy has not acquired any art of bricklaying: the little builder can get the country man and he cannot get a London boy.

93043. I rather read your paper as arguing that they got pushed out because they were physically less strong?—I do not think that is so at nineteen or twenty: I think it is so later on in life, when the country man who has come to London, on his superior physique and perhaps his superior regularity, is preferred for situations like that of a draper's porter, for instance, but I do not think that applies to the Londoner of nineteen. It is sheer lack of instruction which keeps the Londoner of nineteen from entering the building trade.

93044. Lack of instruction of the proper kind?—Yes.

93045. You make certain suggestions, you think the evil is so serious that we ought to enact a law by which a period of half time should be very much extended and made general?—Yes.

Evils of un-
skilled boy

Advantage
country
boys over
Londoners.

Practical-
bility of
"labour ex-
change and
training"
scheme.

Industrial
changes
tending to
increase un-
skilled labour
surplus.

93046. Would you make any exception for certain trades: take for example agriculture?—I think I should not make exceptions, but special arrangements. It ought to be possible, I should think, in agriculture to divide the year rather than the day or the week. Half time need not necessarily mean half the hours of each day. It may be the year that is divided.

93047. So far as health is concerned, occupation in the open air would be much less detrimental?—Yes.

93048. (*Mr. Nunn.*) It is the year that is divided in some cases, is it not?—I do not think there is anywhere any division of the year.

93049. There is the Swiss exemption of children during the summer?—Yes, for school children, but not for youths.

93050. (*Bishop of Ross.*) The agricultural schools are very commonly winter schools?—That is so.

93051. (*Chairman.*) Would you put these boys or young persons through a continuous course of schooling up to eighteen? Was that the idea?—I would take what I could get, but I should not object to see it extended to twenty-one. It would be a great advantage to get it even up to eighteen.

93052. Would special schools have to be built for them or is there enough accommodation, should you say, in London now?—There would have to be additional accommodation. In London part of the accommodation in the Polytechnics is not so fully occupied during the day as it is in the evening, but it would be quite insufficient for any general measure.

93053. Would it be possible to associate this training assuming there is rather a tendency to physical degeneration in towns, with physical training?—I think so with great advantage. I believe the earlier years had better be very largely occupied with systematic physical training of all kinds, which would include games, because it would be possible with great advantage to organise some of the leisure of the boys; in fact, the physical training would come in as a substitute for the present amusement of their evening hours to some extent.

93054. Assuming it was ever thought advisable to give some sort of general training to the youth of this country, I gather you think that industrially and physically, putting all military considerations on one side it would be a great benefit?—I think it would be a great advantage if you could get it without the drawback of barracks and barrack life, as you could by some such plan as I suggest. I am not prepared to weigh the incidental drawbacks of barrack life against the undoubted advantage of universal military training from an educational point of view.

93055. But supposing you put them through a system of training which, for the limited time which would be available, would be a tolerably stiff system, you would probably have to feed them too?—I think there would be a great advantage in giving them the evening meal, for instance, which would be comparatively inexpensive, which would teach them to some extent how to eat and what to eat.

93056. If you did bring it in, this sort of training must be universal?—Yes.

93057. You could not confine it to any one particular class?—No, it ought to be universal.

93058. You are looking at it much more from the economical and physical side than the purely military side?—I may say entirely from the economical and physical side: I make the military suggestion just by the way.

93059. Assuming there was a general feeling in the country that some military training of this kind was necessary, it could easily be fitted in to what you suggest?—Yes.

93060. Now we come to the question in the second part of your Statement, namely, unemployment. Your contention is, I think, in the first paragraph, that one of two things must be done in the future, either you must push back all these unemployed and able-bodied on to the Poor Law, in which case some much more efficient test must be provided than that which now exists in the workhouse, or else you must go in the other

direction, and take up more seriously the question of registration or of trying to find employment for them?—Yes.

93061. In your judgment there is no alternative between the two; you cannot go on as you are now?—I think there is no alternative. I am not even sure that the policy of relegation to the Poor Law is an alternative, because you are face to face with the dilemma that if you make your test efficient you keep your people out, and if they are out they are not provided for.

93062. Your judgment is that the spasmodic efforts periodically made to raise the funds, tend to increase the evil and demoralise both mentally and physically a great many of those who participate in them?—That is so. I feel that very confidently, but at the same time I do not think it is possible to prevent those funds being collected and free food and so on being given so long as you have any large class of persons who are in absolute distress. However bad they may be, it does not seem possible to in any way prevent them.

93063. Going on, you endorse very much what Mr. Beveridge put before us, that the great evil at the present day of our industrial system is the under-employment of so large a body of men?—Yes.

93064. Do you think the number of those who are under-employed has increased relatively to the rest of the population in recent years?—That is a point on which I have been able to find very little statistical assurance, but taking short views, comparing the present day with merely twenty years ago, I think that in cities like London it is increasing; that there is more tendency to take on and dismiss people at short notice than there used to be and much less employment of men for long periods and, apparently, from such inferences as I can draw from the census, the classes of men who are so employed are increasing relatively to the rest of the population.

93065. What are the causes at work which are tending to diminish the duration of the actual engagement. Is it that the nature of the business is now changed, or is it because both master and employee like to have a free hand for the future?—It is very difficult to say, but you can see some of the causes; if you take, for instance, a small country village, the employer has to put up in the main with the men who are in the village, and he tends to employ them permanently; if you get to a large city like London, a builder will have a job at one end of London this week, and a month hence, he may have a job the other end of London, twenty miles away, where he will take on by preference the labourers of the locality therefore, the larger the cities get the more tendency there is for the men to be taken on and dropped when the job is over. That, I think, is one cause, and that ramifies very largely. The mere increase in the size of the unit in which industry is carried on, tends, as it seems to me, in the building trade especially, to cause men to be taken on and dropped as required.

93066. The building trade apparently provides more unemployed than almost any large trade?—I put it in this way, that of the applicants to distress committees, 50 per cent. of the men are of the general labourer type, and 25 per cent. belong to the building trades.

93067. The term of engagement in London is by the hour is it not, or it can be broken at an hour?—That is only nominal. The men are not in practice taken on and dismissed hour by hour. It is only a way of calculating the wages, and dispensing with any sort of notice on either side. If a man is taken on, I think he usually works for at least a day, generally for several days, and frequently for the whole job.

93068. You think it is more a convenient method of calculating the wages?—A convenient method of calculating the wages, and a convenient way of being free to dismiss men at a moment's notice, but it is not a guide to the actual period of the men's engagement.

93069. We have had it in evidence from persons connected with the dockers and that kind of work, that the strong man reveals a good deal of desire to be able to break his engagement or his work, and not lose it?—I do not know how that may be. I have been very much impressed, generally speaking, with the eagerness and anxiety of men of the lowest grade of labour to get permanent employment. They will take any wage,

Mr. Sidney Webb, LL.B.

3 Feb. 1908.

Demoralising effects of relief funds, etc.

Increase of under-employment.

Unemployment among general and builders' labourers.

Term of engagement in London building trade.

General eagerness of labourers to get permanent work.

Mr. Sidney Webb, LL.B. however low, for a weekly employment of permanence, compared with higher earnings by the day.

3 Feb. 1908. 93070. That is your experience?—Yes. The demand, for instance, of men to get into permanent service of any kind, on the tramways, or on railways, or in any place where they can rely on running on for years, is such that they will take 17s., 18s., or 20s. a week, whereas they could earn 4s. or 5s. a day.

General eagerness of labourers to get permanent work.

93071. To put it in another way, it is the regularity of wage, more than the actual wage per hour which prevents people becoming paupers?—That is so, very strikingly. I think if you could ascertain what occupations supplied the paupers, you would find that they did vary very much in proportion to the regularity of the employment; and if you could change the unskilled labour into a regular disciplined service, however low the wage, you would find that the paupers from that class would decrease enormously.

Surplus labour at docks.

93072. Coming to the question of casual labour at the docks, you estimate that the amount of labour there is not only in excess of the maximum needs of the busiest day, but practically of all needs combined, that is to say, if the aggregate total of all the separate maxima were taken, there would be still a surplus?—Yes, that I think is the new fact which has been discovered principally by Mr. Beveridge in the last ten years; that you have created separate pools of stagnant labour, so as to have in the town more labour than the town requires even at the busiest time.

93073. So that the reservoir, so to say, is in excess of what any employer or any number of employers can want?—Yes, because each employer tries to keep a reservoir big enough for his maximum, which is not, of course, the day of maximum of any other employer.

Uselessness of local and of voluntary labour exchange system.

93074. Then you put forward certain suggestions with regard to casual employment. You have taken the idea from certain writings of Mr. Beveridge, but your scheme goes very much further than Mr. Beveridge?—Yes, because I come to the conclusion that this is a matter in which a small cheap proceeding is no use at all; that it must be done, if it is to be of any use, on a large scale, and, in fact, I think it can only be done by compulsion. I do not think that a local labour exchange, or even a voluntary national labour exchange would be really effective. It must be a national system depending upon compulsion somewhere.

93075. That is to say on compulsion so far as the establishment of the exchange is concerned, and being linked up with others?—No, further, I think you must make it compulsory upon all employers who want to engage labour which you would define as casual, to make their engagements through the labour exchange. I think that is essential. Unless the employers are compelled to go there for their casual labour, I do not think it will be effective.

Casual labour and the labour exchanges.

93076. Taking your proposal, you would begin by describing all work as casual which was for a less period than a month?—Yes.

93077. Would that not enormously increase, or put casual labour into a different category to that which it now occupies?—Yes, it would, but then I want to do that.

93078. Let us follow up what would be the result. Would not the result be that you would have an enormous number of people at every one of your exchanges, who could not get employment except through that exchange?—That is so. That is the object.

Treatment of those squeezed out by decasualisation.

93079. Let us see what it entails. If the Government say you shall not get employment except through this exchange, and the man is able and willing to work, and the exchange cannot find him work, the Government must find him work?—The Government must provide for him. I do not think it need find him work, but I do think it is essential to every system of organising casual labour that there should be an undertaking to provide fully and freely in the wisest possible way for those who are absolutely squeezed out of work altogether

93080. You see the obligation would be rather a direct obligation under your scheme. If you preclude a man getting work elsewhere, and he is willing to work, then I think logically you must find him work through the only channel you allow him?—You must find him maintenance I quite agree; I think that is essential.

93081. Many of these men could not live say for a week without employment?—Without wages.

93082. Without some monetary assistance?—I think it is inevitable in any better organisation of casual labour that a certain percentage of the men who now scramble for work should get none at all, and therefore it is essential that in such a system, those men should be guaranteed complete provision in some way which we can discuss later.

93083. Have you any idea what the surplus would amount to?—No, it is impossible even to form any estimate. It will be remembered by this Commission that in 1834 there was said to be a surplus in all the agricultural villages and it was found after things had settled down that there was practically no surplus at all, or very little. It is quite conceivable that if you had organised casual labour in this way you would find the actual residual surplus in a place like London much smaller than you expected, but leaving that contingency out of account, I think you would have to estimate the surplus for the Kingdom in tens of thousands. Places like London, Glasgow and Liverpool would perhaps leave on your hands some tens of thousands of men who for the moment were squeezed out of employment, but that can only be a speculation. We do not know how many there are.

93084. Let us deal for a moment with the labour exchanges. You would not confine the labour exchanges to dealing only with casual labour?—No, I would have them dealing as far as possible with all applications for labour or employment. I think there is an enormous loss of time and energy at present in looking for work in all trades.

93085. To be really effective it must be associated with labour above the grade of the lowest unskilled?—I do not think it is essential, but I think it is very desirable.

93086. You think also that something might be done through the labour exchanges to promote thrift?—I think you could in connection with a scheme like this give a great deal of encouragement and stimulus to forms of insurance against unemployment.

93087. Supposing you did that the man who would insure himself against unemployment ought to have priority of employment?—Yes, I think that would be quite desirable. I would give him priority. The tendency would be the other way; the labour exchange feeling that the man who did not get employment would be on their hands to be kept, would rather want to give the un-insured priority, but I think from the beginning they should be told to give the insured priority, in order to encourage insurance.

93088. Naturally there would be no inducement to insure if the un-insured got priority of the insured?—That is so.

93089. (*Mr. Nunn.*) In compelling the employer to use the exchange you said you were going to give him as much freedom to select his men, as possible?—Yes, I would give him absolute freedom; therefore anything I say as to giving one man priority over the other, must be taken subject to the employer's right to pick his own men, which should be absolute.

93090. He might not always choose those men?—He might not.

93091. (*Chairman.*) Your labour exchanges you would have under the Government, and not under the Municipalities?—I think they must be national in their scope, and for that reason I think it must be a Government Department. I do not see otherwise how you could get any sort of mobility; just as all the Boards of Guardians are forbidden by law to pay the travelling expenses of paupers to another town, because the other town objects, so if your labour exchanges be on a local basis they would

Probably amount to?—No, it is impossible even to form any estimate. It will be remembered by this Commission that in 1834 there was said to be a surplus in all the agricultural villages and it was found after things had settled down that there was practically no surplus at all, or very little. It is quite conceivable that if you had organised casual labour in this way you would find the actual residual surplus in a place like London much smaller than you expected, but leaving that contingency out of account, I think you would have to estimate the surplus for the Kingdom in tens of thousands. Places like London, Glasgow and Liverpool would perhaps leave on your hands some tens of thousands of men who for the moment were squeezed out of employment, but that can only be a speculation. We do not know how many there are.

Scope of labour exchanges.

Encouragement of thrift by labour exchanges.

Necessity of Government Department over labour exchanges.

never get rid of their men to another locality. Only by a Government system can you get real mobility, as between different parts of the country.

93092. Coming back to the surplus, would you propose to treat the surplus by two methods. You would try and train them by schools, and so on, and you would also in certain cases send certain of them to farm colonies? —Yes. May I say that I do not propose training for the sake of the results that I expect to get from the training. I should propose this exactly the same if I was convinced that the men were absolutely unimprovable. The dilemma is that you have to keep the men. You cannot, in my judgment, give them work at wages; you cannot let them be idle; and you must make it more disagreeable to them to be kept out of work than to obtain employment; therefore I propose the training simply as an occupation and a deterrent. It is a good and useful thing in itself; but the advantage of it does not depend on whether it makes them better or not. It would be necessary even if it did not make them better.

93093. That is an important point: that you would make (we will use the old word) the condition of the persons under training less eligible than those who could get employment?—I would make it less pleasurable even if it were more advantageous. The word "eligible" is, of course, ambiguous, but it must be less pleasurable.

93094. Does the feasibility of your scheme very much depend on the numbers with whom you have to deal?—Yes; but on the other hand, if the numbers are large it means that the necessity for such a scheme is all the more pressing. I admit the difficulty if the numbers are large.

93095. Have you ever thought at all of what number you could train in the way you suggest? Could you train several thousands in London without much difficulty?—Yes, without difficulty. It would depend on how they were distributed between what I call the central labour depot, the industrial school and the farm colony. For instance, we should find that in London there was a large number of men, perhaps several thousands, who although they were not wanted to-day would be wanted to-morrow or this week. Those must be kept at hand in the middle of London. On the other hand there would be other people whom we should ascertain to be not wanted this season, but they would be wanted next quarter. Those you could send away to what I call the day industrial school.

93096. If labour exchanges are established on anything like the dimensions or with the thoroughness you suggest, a system of registration would be necessary?—Yes, the registration of all casual labour. I should be very glad to see the registration extend further than that.

93097. Does it not really come to this: that if we want to deal with this question of casual labour it is absolutely essential there should be more or less an ideal system of registration?—Yes, I think that is essential for this as well as other reasons.

93098. Is there a great dislike on the part of the individual to register?—I do not think there is such a great dislike. For instance, there are 2,000,000 trade unionists, they are most of them registered; and their whereabouts should or could be known to their trade union general secretary, if the trade union cared to take the trouble of book-keeping. A trade unionist never objects to being registered by his trade union.

93099. There is no registration of his periods of service, is there?—There is a register of the period during which he has reported himself as unemployed, so that in that sense there is a register of service.

93100. I suppose the tendency of a trade unionist is always to report himself when unemployed?—Yes.

93101. Otherwise he cannot get his out-of-work pay?—No. This applies, I ought to say, only to the best third of the trade unions. It is a mistake to suppose that all trade unions give out-of-work benefit. It is only one-third of the numbers who are entitled to out-of-work benefit; it is that third only that is registered to the extent that I am speaking of.

93102. One idea occurs to me about this training or schooling of this man. Supposing he goes to this school and improves, and he comes back to the labour exchange and cannot get employment, what would you do with him then?—I would never let him come back until the labour exchange sent for him, as requiring more men. He would go to the farm colony or the day industrial school, and he would stay there until he was wanted, not necessarily wanted individually, but until more men were wanted.

93103. I think somewhere in your paper you have said that if you had organised labour exchanges the fluctuation in the number of people employed through-out a big area would be comparatively not very great?—That is one of the facts that we do not know; but what is clear is that there is a very large amount of compensation, that one trade is busy while another one is idle; and that goes on to an extent which is greater than the knowledge of anyone to say. If we all made an investigation and put our knowledge together we should be astonished at the amount of compensatory action which exists; although it is compensatory in a statistical sense it does not at present compensate, because the men who are slack in one season in one trade do not very frequently go and work at another trade which is busy at that season; but if we had them all organised in a labour exchange I think the variation in the total would be found to be comparatively small. It is true that many seasonal trades are busy in the summer and slack in the winter, but the gas works and the theatrical industry and the Post Office are all busiest in the winter.

93104. Would it be possible to do anything through the labour exchanges in the way of insurance for the casual labourer who was seasonally unemployed?—No, I think that is financially impossible. It has hitherto been found impossible by those trade unions which have a large number of their men out of work every winter to institute any out-of-work benefit. For instance, the stone masons and the bricklayers, although they are highly organised trades, earning good wages, have never yet been able to institute out-of-work benefit; the plumbers, who have lately instituted out-of-work benefit, are feeling it a very severe drain upon them indeed. If it is not possible for the bricklayers and stone masons it is quite out of the question for the bricklayers' labourers and the stone masons' labourers. I think the premium might very possibly have to be something like 5s. a week, or a sum quite out of the range of an unskilled labourer.

93105. As regards the farm colony, one of your difficulties and a difficulty which is common to all forms of employment at a distance is that it separates the married man from the family. How would you get over that?—That is a difficulty which I am not sure that I want to get over. It is one of the elements of deterrence. I do not think you can always afford to keep a man out of work living with his family. It would be outdoor relief on a large scale, and I do not think you can always afford to do that. A certain number who are sent away to farm colonies at present away from their wives and families do find that a very large element of deterrence. I admit there are objections, but I should have to appeal to the experience of the Poor Law that it is one of the necessities of relieving the men.

93106. You think separation acts as a deterrent?—Yes, I think it is a deterrent. I will not attempt to analyse exactly what is deterrent.

93107. Coming to these farm colonies or labour colonies, your suggestion, of course, entails their being organised on a considerable scale?—Yes, but you will notice that I only suggest the farm colony for the men who need to be sent away from the large towns. I assume there is a surplus which we shall have to send away from the large towns, and it is for that surplus that I suggest a country life.

93108. We will come back to the towns. You do not believe it is possible through these distress committees or in any other way to create work inside the towns on any large scale which is useful in itself, which does not anticipate public works or does not interfere with private enterprise?—Speaking generally, I think it is quite impossible.

Mr. Sidney Webb, LL.B.

3 Feb. 1908.

Restriction on men in training establishments.

Compensatory action of different trades.

Possibility of the insurance of seasonally unemployed casual labourer.

Value of separation of man from family at farm colony.

Use of farm colony.

Impossibility of providing enough work in towns.

Mr. Sidney
Webb,
LL.B.

3 Feb. 1908.

Function of
the farm
colony.

National
works.

Question of
tests.

Penal colony.

Ministry of
Labour.

State aid to
trade union
insurance.

Possibility of
voluntary
decasualisa-
tion by
employers.

93109. Not on any scale ?—Not on any but the smallest scale, and under exceptional circumstances.

93110. If your ideas were at all carried out, it would be necessary by consultation, somewhat on the Indian plan, with the engineers of the Local Government Board to prepare in advance big schemes in anticipation of famine : these farm colonies would have to be on that sort of scale and worked out in that way ?—I am not sure that I would suggest that. I would rather regard the farm colony mainly as a place of training. I would subordinate the question of what the men do there to the fact that you must keep them employed. I think the aim should be the training, mental and physical, and not the utility of their work. I think the Indian Famine Organisation would come in at the end, when you had ascertained that there were 10,000 men for whom the cities had no use ; then the Government might, as one possible thing, undertake large works with a view to absorbing that amount of men by adding that amount of demand to the labour market.

93111. Ultimately there is the penal settlement. What I suppose is at the bottom of all your proposal is that you think the real test of whether a man is unemployed or not is whether he complies with the test imposed upon him of working when work is found for him ?—I do not think you must regard that as a test. I think it is our business through the labour exchange to know what opportunities there are for the man and if the superintendent of the labour exchange had no situation at all on his books he would know that this man could not get employment, therefore you need not test the man in any way. I disbelieve in any way of testing whether a man can get employment or not.

93112. It was not so much testing whether he could get employment but his *bona fide* willingness to work. The penal settlement comes at the end, because that would be applied to persons who would not conform to what you call the rules or tests you impose under easier conditions ?—I should visualise sending all the men to No. 2 settlement, from which they could rise to No. 1, if they were very good, or from which they could be degraded ultimately to the penal settlement if they did not work and obey the rules.

93113. These proposals would entail a Central Government Department ?—Yes. I venture to suggest as one of the small advantages that it at last finds something to do for a Minister of Labour.

93114. You also suggest that there should be State aid to provident insurance, but that I think, as you pointed out before, would mainly apply to skilled labour ?—Yes, I think that should be offered to the trade unions : it need not be pressed upon them. If they would prefer not to have State aid we need not trouble them, but it would be a great advantage, because, as I have mentioned, only about one-third of the trade unions are at present able to provide out-of-work benefits at all. There is a large field below the skilled and regularly employed mechanic and above the casual labourer where they could be induced by a little encouragement to provide insurance against unemployment.

93115. You go on and make an interesting suggestion as to the particular organisation of casual labour, that if shipowners or owners did not approve of your suggestion, that they might be allowed to establish an organisation themselves. Would you amplify that a little ?—If I may point out that is merely carrying a step further what actually was done by the London and India Docks after the dock strike. They did arrange by means of their preference lists to give practically continuous employment to a large proportion of the dockers, leaving those who were not on the preference lists still more discontinuous than before. It seems to me quite clear that on any such system as Mr. Charles Booth of Liverpool worked out, it would be quite possible for the Liverpool shipowners to arrange to give permanent employment to 10,000 men while depending for their whole surplus upon the casual labour of Liverpool. I think it would be all to the good if they would so organise as to give permanent employment to 10,000 men even if they then came on the surplus of casual labour for all their emergencies.

93116. You say they would take casual labourers on for a period of more than a month. It would be rather difficult, would it not, to manage, because assuming they only took the man on the next time for a fortnight, he would drop out of the category of this organisation and become a casual labourer who had to be registered at the labour exchange ?—Yes, there would be marginal cases of that sort, but I should assume they would give continuous employment throughout the year to their nucleus crew, their 10,000 men.

93117. But even without the organisation, under your scheme every shipowner who engaged a man by the month would keep that man so engaged outside the labour exchange ?—Yes, I should hope that that would be a great encouragement to employers to make their period of employment extend over at least a month.

93118. Do you think that what you have proposed would make short periods of employment less agreeable to the employer of labour ?—I think I should so word the regulations as to make them less agreeable. I should try to induce the employer only to resort to casual employment when the conditions of his industry made it really necessary. I should try to prevent him wantonly having casual labour.

93119. You would put pressure on to try and regularise as far as possible the great mass of the employment which he could give ?—I believe it might be regularised by employers taking thought to a very much larger extent than it is.

93120. What is your idea about the changes that were made in the docks. Do you think that has tended to regularise dock labour much ?—I think it did at first very much for the men who were on the preference lists, with the corresponding disadvantage which I do not in the least mind, of making things very much worse for the men who were not on the preference lists. But I am informed that that has very largely silently fallen away : that, whether by an increase in numbers or otherwise, the regularity of work at the docks is not now so great as it was immediately after the dock strike, and that you may see to-day the same sort of fighting for work that shocked London so much twenty years ago.

93121. Has it got worse in the last two or three years ?—I cannot say with any certainty, but my impression is that it has.

93122. I am afraid the result of regularising labour so far has not diminished the number ?—It was not the regularising that failed to diminish it. The regularisation while it lasted had in my opinion a good effect. It is rather the falling away from regularisation which has reproduced the old conditions.

93123. You think looking at this question from a broad public point of view, that two conditions must be satisfied in any scheme ?—Yes.

93124. The first is that during the transition stage everything should be done to mitigate the suffering of those who would be in a worse position from the change ?—Yes.

93125. The other is that there should be some prospect of providing for the ascertained residuum afterwards ?—Yes, that is essential.

93126. I understand what you would argue would be that assuming the residuum is very big, it is just as well the community should know it ?—Yes, there is all the more necessity it should know it.

93127. It may be a very difficult problem, and a very costly problem to solve, but you would contend that it is better for the nation that it should be probed ?—Yes, I think however costly it is, it is bound to be far more economical than the present chaos is. We are losing more every day by not solving it than what it would cost.

93128. Assuming you are right in your sort of general contention that this class of unemployment is rather on the increase, that the boys and young persons in the big centres like London, Glasgow, and so on, are tending more and more rather to swell the ranks of the unemployed, this evil of under-employment must be growing ?—Yes,

Possibility
voluntary
decasualisa-
tion by
employers.

Failure of
casualisation
scheme at
London
Docks.

Two
necessary
conditions
in any
scheme for
dealing with
unemploy-
ment.

Increase of
under-employment.

I am afraid that is so. It is not a matter on which you can get statistical evidence, but I am afraid that the under-employment in London covers a larger area than it did twenty years ago, and apparently the increase is still more marked in Glasgow, Liverpool and Manchester.

93129. Would you say it produces an inferior race?—It produces an inferior character in those who are subject to it without doubt. None but the very strongest and finest characters can stand up against this paralysing uncertainty.

93130. And the disposition of those it affects would be to try and get through life with as little difficulty to themselves, and put as little obligation upon themselves as possible?—Yes, it breeds a state of mind and body in which regular employment presently becomes almost impossible.

93131. And after a certain time there is a great reluctance on their part to submit to restrictions?—Yes, almost a physical impossibility to submit.

93132. (*Mr. Nunn.*) With regard to the three principles of 1834, you drop the principle of the test altogether, do you not?—As regards able-bodied men saying that they are unemployed, yes, I think the test is illusory, and I think it is time that the fact was otherwise ascertained.

93133. Because it has not really tested?—That it has not really tested, and we can ascertain otherwise whether there is employment to be had.

93134. You still retain the principle in a milder form of deterrence?—Yes.

93135. And a much stronger form of detention?—I would introduce for a certain proportion of the men the principle of compulsory detention.

93136. Of course, that exists under the present Poor Law, but you would introduce it under a very much wider range?—Yes, very much.

93137. In addition to that, quite a new feature of the administration you would introduce is the principle of the training which would develop the men for their own sakes?—Yes, as I said I put in the training chiefly in order that the men may have something to do and something to which they object. It happens also to be useful for them more or less.

93138. In order to get the men into this machine you propose to introduce a series of sets of machinery; at the top of the scale you are going to compel the employer to employ him for a certain length of time, if he employs casual labour?—To compel the employer if he employs casual labour to come to the labour exchange, and, if he wishes to be free, to employ for a certain length of time.

93139. Then you have a series of institutions for catching different grades of workmen, practically classifying them according to their industrial efficiency?—Yes.

93140. The first difficulty that appears to me is whether you will catch all the unemployed. A good many of them are employed, not so much for wages as for tips, are they not? The people who loaf about the street corners and who earn the scantiest livelihood going of the honest livelihoods, practically earn it by tips?—I have not seen my way at present to deal with that class. I should be very glad to do so, but I do not know how to do it at present.

93141. There is a suggestion in one part of your paper, by introducing some system of economic test, such as Mr. Charles Booth suggested some time ago at the end of his "Life and Labour of the People," by which certain persons who did not come up to a certain standard of sanitation should come under the tutelage?—That would be the effect of the system I propose. At present it is not possible really to punish a man for falling below what we call the national minimum of sanitation, or not providing for his children, but if you could always say to the man: "Why are you not at the labour exchange, where you will be provided for?" then you could be absolutely strict. With regard, for instance, to all the children who are at

school unfed, there would be no need for feeding children at school, because any child who was at school without food would be revealing that his father was not at the labour exchange, and you could instantly punish the man severely for neglecting any one of his obligations, if you offered him that alternative.

93142. Send him to one of your penal settlements?—I should send him to prison. Failure to provide for your family is already a penal offence.

93143. Do you propose to give aliment to the wife of the man in prison?—Certainly, you do at present. You may not give outdoor relief, but you undertake the obligation to keep the wife and children.

93144. In what way?—By the Poor Law.

93145. That is not connected with the criminal law at all. The Criminal Code does not undertake to care for the wife and children?—The Prison Department does not, but it sends a man to prison knowing the board of guardians will care for the wife and children. You would find the magistrates would not send the man to prison as freely as they do now if they did not know the wife and children would not starve. If they were assured the wives and children would be well provided for they would send men to prison much more freely than they do now.

93146. That would not come into your scheme for dealing with the unemployed at all?—It is an incidental consequence.

93147. The people who slip through the meshes which you have described would not come into your machinery at all; you would leave them to the Criminal Code?—I should leave them alone so long as they fulfilled all their social obligations, but I should watch them very strictly, and when they failed to fulfil any one of their social obligations, such as maintaining their children or maintaining sanitation, then they would be at once proceeded against, because you would know they were wilfully neglecting an opportunity.

93148. To begin at the top with the employer, it would be exceedingly difficult to prevent the employer from avoiding this obligation; he would have ample opportunity of turning men off before a month, would he not?—I do not think it would be so difficult; to begin with, the employer would not particularly want to avoid it. Of course, there is no objection to an employer dismissing a man, but it would be a comparatively easy thing to ascertain whether the employer really had as many men in employment during the month as he said he was going to have. They need not be the same individuals, but if you found that his staff was reduced in numbers, it would be an inference that he had been using his power of dismissal to reduce his staff. You would not necessarily put him in prison for doing that, you would only warn him.

93149. One of the things which you abandon with regard to the unemployed, is any previous inquiry into their circumstances?—I do not abandon inquiry in the sense of knowing as much about them as you can, in order to enable you to find them work, but I do not think any inquiry ought to be made the means of refusing to deal with them at all, any more than the doctor's diagnosis is a means of the doctor refusing to treat the patient.

93150. On the other hand, would it not almost necessitate the introduction of some dossier system, especially if the men were sent to different parts of the country?—My suggestion about that is that it should be optional; that either you would have men on your register about whom you knew nothing, or you would have a supplementary column in which the man could give such particulars as he chose, which could be verified, so that you could either supply to an employer who asked for a man, an individual man with a character, or you could supply the undifferentiated man. Some employers, the dock companies, for instance, would send for 500 men, and then you could send undifferentiated men, but an employer who came and said: "I want a particularly good man," could be allowed to look at the list of available men with such particulars about themselves as had been ascertained.

Mr. Sidney Webb, L.L.B.

3 Feb. 1903.

Method of dealing with men below sanitation standard or who neglect children.

Difficulties in regard to employers under proposed decasualisation system.

Question of inquiry into circumstances of workmen.

Optional registration of character etc. at labour exchange.

Mr. Sidney Webb, LL.B.

3 Feb. 1908.

Objections of higher class of workmen to labour exchanges.

93151. The employment exchange would come to be used mainly by this casual class would it not?—I hope it would be found to be the most convenient means of finding other situations as well.

93152. Would not the presence of persons of this class, with a possible descent to a penal settlement, rather deter the better class of worker from using it?—I do not think so, so long as they were able to distinguish themselves from the others.

93153. You have not touched in this paper upon another difficulty which the upper-class workmen feel, that is the difficulty of affording facilities to employers who are locking out their workmen, or whose workmen are striking?—Yes, it would be absolutely necessary for a labour exchange to be prompt to refuse to supply men to employers who had any dispute with their workmen.

93154. Instead of disregarding disputes, you would make it the duty of the superintendent to ascertain exactly what disputes were going on, and have absolutely nothing to do with them?—I would make it his duty to have nothing to do with them, when he was aware of them. I would leave it to the workmen's organisations to make him aware of them.

93155. Would there not be a danger, to turn to your third class, of men getting on the farm colony, and staying there for the sake of the rather easy life it would afford them in the country?—There would be the danger of what you may call moral malingering. I think you would have to deal with that in analogous ways to that in which the hospital superintendent deals with physical malingering. You would have to find out that man and pin-prick him out in one way or the other.

93156. He would go down to the penal settlement?—Yes, eventually.

93157. Then with regard to the administration of these depôts, the school, the colony and the penal settlement, you said a series of graduated training establishments should be attached to the labour exchange?—Yes.

93158. It is really better that it should be attached to what is a purely industrial organisation, rather than to be administered by some such body as would look after relief and public assistance generally?—Yes, I should agree if I thought that the treatment of the unemployed could ever be made a part of the relief of public assistance generally. I regard it as essential that all the able-bodied should be dealt with by one organisation, which as I have indicated, must be national, and that being so, I cannot have anything to do with boards of guardians as we know them now. You would take the able-bodied completely out of the Poor Law.

93159. But the consideration of a man's case and a man's character would be quite alien to the duties of the superintendent of a bureau which was simply dovetailing employment would it not?—No, I think not, because he would not be able to ascertain for which employment this man was suitable, or what opening he could find for him without ascertaining what his character and capacity was. I visualise the superintendent of the labour exchange as racking his brains to think: Now, how can I find a place for John Jones? and for that purpose he would have to know as much as he possibly could about John Jones, but even if John Jones were a convicted criminal or loafer, he would still have to deal with him somehow, therefore his enquiries would never be for the purpose of excluding anybody, but only for the purpose of knowing how best to deal with him.

93160. Then whose decision would it be that he should go to the central labour depot or the day industrial school, for instance?—I would vest that in the superintendent of the labour exchange of the City.

93161. Without any committee of any kind?—We might perhaps have a supervising committee, but in effect it would have to be vested in the superintendent.

93162. He is not the superintendent who racks his brains surely, to dovetail the men's employment?—Yes, I think you will not get any committee to rack its brains, it must be the superintendent.

93163. You could get the individuals to rack their brains, who work in connection with the committees, but surely you are not allowing a man to have the magisterial power of sending a man to a penal settlement who would be the man who was finding out what Tom, Dick or Harry could do for the next two or three days?—I do not think you could commit a man to a penal settlement except by going before a police magistrate. The penal settlement where you have the power of detention, it seems to me, must be entered through the portals of a police court.

93164. If he refused the depot, the school or the colony what would you do with him? Would you not be in the same position with regard to the test? You would say to the public who wanted to feed him: "This man applied to us for employment; we could not find it for him; we offered him a series of modulated tests, but he has not accepted them." Would you give the advice to the public not to feed him?—I should let that man alone for twenty-four hours, having in the meantime telephoned to the agent of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, the sanitary inspector, and the inspector of police for his district. In forty-eight hours that man would be had up before the magistrate, either for not feeding his children or letting his house be in an insanitary condition, or something of that sort, and his case would be removed from off your books.

93165. A number of these men have already deserted their families?—Then they will be imprisoned. I think you are not reckoning on the very drastic tightening up there could be in the existing laws once you had this opportunity opened to every man.

93166. I was only trying to find out how you could get them all into your meshes; it seemed to me some might escape in this way?—Yes, for twenty-four hours as they do in Belgium, but only for twenty-four hours.

93167. Does it not seem to you that it would demand a system of dossier, if you are to do it at all?—"Dossier" is a French word which carries an injurious connotation. I think there would be a record of every man as there is of every trade unionist.

93168. Then you would have one body to send a man to a home, and another body to decide what his wife shall have?—I think the case of the wife and children had better be dealt with by the superintendent of relief, if a superintendent of relief is established.

93169. By whatever local authority we have for public assistance?—Yes, that is my suggestion.

93170. You say under the heading of "A Ministry of Labour" "On the other hand the home aliment awarded to their wives and families had better remain a charge upon local funds"?—That is my suggestion. It is not essential, but for convenience of administration it seemed preferable.

93171. That would be rather distantly connected with the body that first sent the man to the settlement and afterwards kept him there?—Yes, I think it would. There would be some advantage in their not being too closely connected.

93172. What advantage?—The advantage would be that you would keep the provisions for the unemployed men entirely free from the encumbrances of Poor Law relief, which is a very important consideration if you want the men to come willingly and voluntarily to you.

93173. With regard to the universality of your proposal, you say it is a positive advantage of the proposal that it need not necessarily be put in force simultaneously all over the kingdom. I should have thought that it was almost of the essence of it that it should be put into force all at once?—I think it would be a great advantage that it should be national; but I can quite imagine, for instance, that very great gain would come to Liverpool if Liverpool were dealt with even alone by the organisation of this casual labour at the docks, and elsewhere in Liverpool, even if you could not send it out of Liverpool; and similarly in London, you could get very great gain by the organisation of casual labour in London even if you could not send it to any other town. I do not think there would be so much necessity for sending men from town to town as you may suppose. The variation of demand in towns, in London or in any other town, is not, in my opinion, in the aggregate very great.

Penal methods certain ca

Proper authority for relief of wife and children man sent instituti

Advanta in possi- bilities o local app cations o proposed casualisa scheme.

Malingering at farm colony.

Proper authority to deal with all able-bodied.

Duties of superin- tendent of labour exchange.

93174. Then as to this person who is going to send the men off either to the dépôt, the industrial school or the penal colony without any resort to a magistrate, what type of man would you propose for that?—The ablest man you can get in the market for the task. The mere organisation of the casual labour for London would be a gigantic task; and you would want the very best man you could hear of.

93175. He is not the man who would know Tom, Dick and Harry and send them off to the colony?—No; but he would see that all the separate subordinates were acting under his own orders. He would settle the principle. He would have a very close knowledge of what each of his subordinate labour exchanges was doing. There would have, of course, to be a considerable number of separate offices for London, each of them under its own head; but probably the decisions would be taken by the superintendent for London on information supplied to him from all these offices.

93176. How many do you think he would have to deal with? Perhaps that is rather a difficult question; it may be a great number. ?—I have been thinking whether I could give any kind of rough forecast; it seems to me that for London you might want something like 100 separate offices, if you were going to be in a position to supply labour conveniently to employers all over London. That is, roughly speaking, not quite two to each Parliamentary constituency, which does not seem to me too many.

93177. (Chairman.) What sort of staff would they want?—That is almost impossible to ascertain.

93178. But, taking these branches, they would want a large staff?—They would want a very competent superintendent, who would have to be paid a quite substantial salary of, say, £300 a year, and then they would want a number of mere clerks, from two up to half a dozen.

93179. (Mr. Chandler.) There is one point I would like you to clear up. You spoke of the reluctance of London employers to teach apprentices, or even to have them on their premises, where anything can be learned. Is that not general throughout the country in the works of large employers of labour?—Yes, I think it is general, but I think it is accentuated in London by the high rents. The governing economic reason in London is that an employer does not want his workshop room taken up by a mere boy because of the high rent, consequently that cause operates more strongly in London than in any other town.

93180. You do not think it is that the specialising of the work and the introduction of machinery has rendered the opportunities for boys' services less desirable?—Less desirable to the boy; from the point of view of the boy, yes, I think that this also operates, but that is not particularly the case in London as compared with other towns.

93181. It has been asserted that the trade unions are largely responsible for this restriction of apprentices. What is your experience? You know pretty nearly all there is to be known in respect of trade unionism?—The trade union rules are old fashioned survivals, which have mostly been given up. Where they still exist, they exist in an almost entirely nominal state, and they certainly are not responsible for the restriction of apprentices, as a rule, because the limit imposed by the rules is far in excess of the actual number of apprentices. For instance, in London no employer in the building trade has anything like as many apprentices as the trade union would be quite glad that he should have. It is only in certain trades, usually a few small old-fashioned trades, that the restriction of apprentices is at all effective. There is one exception to that, perhaps, the compositors, where they have a restriction which seems to me an unwise one, but it is not a universal one.

93182. In Ireland the trade unions are rather fond of restricting?—Yes, I think the Irish trade unions, amongst their other qualities, are on the whole rather old-fashioned.

93183. What are your views on the subject of trade union responsibility for the unemployment of men advancing in years, in consequence of the desire to uphold a minimum wage?—I do not think that that is at all true. In the first place, the trade unions, as far as I know, are always willing to allow their older members to work at a lower rate if their older members come and ask them for permission to do so, and that frequently happens, but also I would point out that the employers' desire for a young man instead of an old man does not have any effect upon the total volume of employment. It may be that the employer takes a young man instead of an old man, but that only means that an old man is out of employment instead of a young man being out of employment, and as the large majority of applicants to the distress committee are young men, it is clear they have not been excluded by any preference of the employer for young men over old.

93184. (Dr. Downes.) You conclude your paper with a picture of the children who now attend the public elementary schools of the country. Is not the first part of your paper rather an indictment of the results of the present system of education?—No, I do not think so, because the mere fact that we are only able at present to teach elementary reading and writing to these children does not, I think, have any bearing at all upon their being out of employment. If you could have all these children admirably well educated, I think there would still be fluctuations in employment, and therefore still men out of employment. They must be more adaptable and better equipped, if they were better educated; but it would not prevent them being thrown out of employment.

93185. What do you mean by better educated?—I should say not receiving less literary education than they have at present, but receiving in addition to that a great deal of what we call for short, technical education.

93186. By that, do you mean thorough technical education?—I do not think you can make a man a good carpenter in any school, but you may teach him the use of tools, you may teach him accuracy of hand and eye, and so on.

93187. There is an impression among the public, it may be rightly or wrongly founded, that a certain portion of the elementary education at the present day is not altogether useful in its results?—I have obtained a memorandum which I think would be of interest to this Commission about the industrial schools of the London County Council, where a great deal of technical training is given and rather less literary education than is given in the ordinary schools. This memorandum gives very elaborately the facts about those schools, but does not deal with any question of policy, as to which a witness will come from the London County Council. I shall be very glad to hand in this memorandum if the Commission wishes, because it has a bearing upon the possibility of the use of these industrial schools for Poor Law children. (See Appendix No. IX. (A).)

93188. The point to which I was leading up was whether you would consider there was any possible saving of cost on the present system of elementary education which might assist towards the cost of the scheme which you outline to us?—I am afraid not. I am afraid you must look forward not to a diminution of the present school-leaving age, but to a raising of it from thirteen or fourteen to fifteen; and I think your technical instruction must come after that age. I do not believe that you can give a boy or a girl of twelve or thirteen any effective technical instruction which will affect him in after life; and what we find in the industrial schools which attempt to do that is that the boys do not follow the trade which we have taught at school, therefore their training in the industrial school cannot have been of any use to them in the trade. It has been of great use to them as a method of education, and they do very well; but you may employ a boy at shoe-making or carpentering at school and you will find that he does not become a shoe-maker or a carpenter, but something entirely different; though the training at shoe-making and carpentering has been of great use to him educationally, I do not think you can get real trade teaching in school years.

Mr. Sidney Webb, LL.B.

3 Feb. 1908.

Effects of trade unionism in employment of old men.

Mr. Sidney
Webb,
LL.B.

3 Feb. 1908.

93189. I am afraid from a remark you make with regard to the training of girls, you have not a very high estimate of the result of family training. You doubt if girls of any social class ever get any training from their own mothers such as to make them competent housewives; but have you considered this, that the evil of the unemployed in the class which you depict to us in your paper is more accentuated in London and in the great towns than in the smaller towns and country districts?—That is so.

93190. Is there not a tendency in the great towns for a loosening of home life and family ties as compared with the country districts?—That may be so.

Cause of
greater
under-
employment
in large
towns.

93191. Have you considered to what extent that may have a bearing on the problem we have to deal with?—I am afraid I do not see very much connection. I think the reason why problems of under-employment are so much greater in the large towns is that it is due to the necessary conditions of a large centre of employment as compared with a small one, and I am not prepared to admit that they have any relation to the loosening of family ties which may go on in the large centres.

Permanent
physical im-
poverishment
traceable to
under-
employment.

93192. My next question is rather a scientific one. You speak on the first page of the second part of your paper of the frightful results of chronic semi-starvation, amongst those you mention permanent physical impoverishment. Do you mean by permanent physical impoverishment permanent deterioration of the racial stock?—I would prefer not to express an opinion as to what deteriorates the racial stock, because I suspect that scientists know very little about it at the present moment. I do not know; I meant permanent in the individual. I will give an instance of what I mean. I am convinced that a large part of the low standard of health which perhaps goes along with chronic dyspepsia in a large section of the wage-earning class has reference to occasional under-feeding in early life; I suggest that.

Aliment to
families of
men sent to
training
establish-
ments.

93193. In the paragraph with regard to the training of the surplus labour you say you would give them no wages or pocket money, but you would supply home aliment to support the family. In what form would you give that home aliment?—I have no particular form. If the wife could be trusted with the 10s. or 15s. a week you would probably give it in money. In those cases in which she could not be trusted for some reason or another, the case would have to be dealt with like that of the widow with children; very likely you would have to take some of the children into a day industrial school.

Question of
sale of
products of
farm colonies

93194. In regard to the farm colonies, have you considered the possible difficulty of competition with existing industries? Take the case of market gardening. If this was carried out on a large scale in farm colonies, such as you contemplate, what would be your view with regard to that point?—I doubt whether there is any economic objection to that competition except only in

its psychological aspect on the mind of producers, employers and workmen. I think it is analogous to the case of prison-made goods. I object very much to the sale of prison-made goods in the market, not because I have any notion that they displace other labour, but because by their psychological effect they depress the market, and make it easier for the employer to reduce the wages of labour. So I prefer that the product of these colonies should not be sold in the market except where necessary, and in those cases sold at a distance, not obviously, therefore, in the district. I see no objection to sending farm products from the farm colony to London because this has no psychological effect upon the producer, because it is not seen; but I might have an objection to selling it in the market town where it is seen.

93195. Although it is produced by subsidised labour?—I should have no objection to its being sold although produced by subsidised labour except for the possible psychological effect on the minds of employers and working, leading to a depression of wages.

93196. (*Professor Smart.*) You do not mention price. Do you mean you would have no objection to these things being under-sold?—I would not sell any goods lower than the market price. Assuming they were all sold by auction in Covent Garden, they would fetch the price which similar produce from elsewhere would fetch.

93197. (*Dr. Downes.*) Should you anticipate any Alien danger from alien influx under such a system as yours?—I think it is an interesting feature of this plan that it has at once made me see that you cannot afford to allow unrestricted alien immigration. I had hitherto taken the view that it was not necessary to exclude aliens provided you laid down a standard and compelled them to come up to that standard; that is to say, that if you insisted upon the payment of the trade union rate of wages in any trade there was no objection to alien workmen coming in if they got that trade union rate; but I now see that you cannot afford to find employment for alien workmen if you have a surplus of labour in London; and just as you would not allow men to come from Liverpool to London if London had a surplus, so you could not allow them to come from Rotterdam to London if London had a surplus. I think it is one of the great features of a plan like this that it would bring into sight the real interests in such a matter.

93198. You say that the existing Poor Law arrangement for the relief of the able-bodied need not be interfered with; but why should the able-bodied men be allowed to go to the Poor Law if a machinery of this kind were set up?—I think I must have said that only in relation to a transitional period. In my view the whole of the able-bodied, whether they be called unemployed or able-bodied paupers, or vagrants, or as in Scotland "ordinaries," must all be dealt with by one and the same authority. There are no lines to be drawn between them.

Question
sale of
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Statistics
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about the
London

Principles
and
labour

ONE HUNDRED AND FORTY-SIXTH DAY.

Tuesday, 4th February, 1908.

AT SCOTLAND HOUSE, WESTMINSTER, S.W.

PRESENT.

The Right Hon. Lord GEORGE HAMILTON, G.C.S.I.,
etc., etc., etc., (*Chairman*).
Sir SAMUEL B. PROVIS, K.C.B.
Mr. F. H. BENTHAM.
The Rev. T. GAGE GARDINER.
Mr. J. PATTEN-MACDOUGALL, C.B.
The Rev. L. R. PHELPS.

Professor WILLIAM SMART.
Mrs. BERNARD BOSANQUET.
Mrs. SIDNEY WEBB.
Miss OCTAVIA HILL.
The Right Rev. The LORD BISHOP of ROSS.
Mr. R. H. A. G. DUFF (*Secretary*).
Mr. J. JEFFREY (*Assistant Secretary*).

Mr. SIDNEY WEBB, LL.B., further Examined.

Statistics of
unskilled
labour in
London.

93199. (*Mrs. Bosanquet.*) On the second page of the first part of your Statement you refer to some statistics by which you think it is possible to measure unskilled labour in London—the casual labour. You say here: “That this particular class, if we may rely upon the statistics, seems to have doubled in numbers in London in the last forty years.” Could you refer us to those statistics?—I cannot quite remember; but I was alluding to the census returns of general labourers. I have forgotten the exact years of the census. As you know, it is extremely difficult to be quite sure of your comparative totals; but comparing two censuses (I think it must have been 1851 and 1891, because I think I found it in Mr. Charles Booth’s analysis of the general labour classes in his great work), I inferred that the increase had been as stated. I gave the figures with a certain amount of hesitation, because it is so very difficult, with regard to the census classifications, to be quite sure that they are including the same heads.

93200. That would not necessarily be the casual labour; that would only give us the measure of whether the general labour is more or less?—Surely we may assume that all the general labourers and all the building trade labourers are intermittently employed. I should think it is very rare that a general labourer can be said to be engaged for months on end.

Pauper boys
unskilled
labour.

93201. Passing on to the next paragraph, there is an interesting statistic there; you say something like 1,000 among the boys who will start unsatisfactorily as now paupers. Could you refer me to that?—No. For that I think there is no statistical evidence. I estimate that taking the outdoor pauper boys in proportion to the total number of boys leaving school, that at least this number of them would enter the unskilled labour class. My own opinion is that it is much larger, because in all probability these boys go to the unskilled labour occupations to a greater extent than the average of the population, but I am not taking that into account; assuming that as large a proportion of them get apprenticed as the average population there would be about 1,000 going to unskilled labour annually.

93202. (*Miss Hill.*) Does that mean boys from the schools or the children of widows in receipt of outdoor relief?—I am now speaking entirely of the Poor Law children who are maintained on outdoor relief.

93203. (*Chairman.*) I notice that the suggestion is that out of the children whose parents get out-relief you rather made an estimate that about 1,000 a year drift into pauperism?—Into casual labour occupations, yes; that is quite a rough guess. I do not pretend that it has any statistical accuracy.

93204. Might I take your estimate of the true figures. You calculate about 10,000 for the whole population of London that drift. Could you say, taking the figures of those who drift into unskilled labour, what would be the number?—I have not formulated that in my own mind. We have no statistics. I think that one-fifth of the boys leaving school would be an under-estimate, and I am

afraid it might very likely amount to a half; but we have no statistical basis whatever for that.

93205. (*Miss Hill.*) The children of people in receipt of outdoor relief need not necessarily go to unskilled labour?—No, they need not necessarily, and I hope that some of them do not; but I am only assuming that a similar proportion of those take to unskilled labour as of the whole population; I am afraid it is a larger proportion.

93206. (*Mrs. Bosanquet.*) Passing to the half-time trade schools, with which I am very thoroughly in sympathy, would you apply them necessarily to boys who could be shown to be learning a trade properly, or would you leave that as an alternative if the parent could show he had put his boy to a proper trade?—I think you must consider the necessity of having some sort of general rule; but I should be quite prepared to make the general rule along those lines. For instance, supposing that a boy were really apprenticed to an engineering works, it might very properly be arranged that he should have sufficient time off to pursue the theoretical part of his calling, and not necessarily anything strictly in the nature of half time. You could adapt the rules to those cases.

93207. If the employer, as often happens in the North, has his own technical classes, you would accept those?—Yes. You would have to consider, in fairness to all employers, making the obligation somewhat uniform on all; but subject to that consideration, I can imagine a great deal of adaptation.

93208. I think the question was raised yesterday as to whether there might be a difficulty in finding room for all these prolonged students; but I suppose the board schools would be available in the evening; you are not confined to the technical schools?—I am afraid that they would not be at all adequate. To begin with, a very large proportion of the elementary schools in London are already used in the evening for the evening classes; and then I do not contemplate that this half-time trade school should be carried on literally in the evenings, because we find that the boys and girls are too tired in the evening, and it is the essence of the proposal of half-time that they should not be required to put in a full factory day before they come to the trade school; therefore I am afraid you must assume that additional premises would be wanted, though not necessarily to the full extent numerically.

93209. These suggestions chiefly apply to towns. What would you do with country boys?—I have not considered in detail how it would be adapted to the country; but I suggest there is just as much need for technical education of the agriculturalist, and probably even greater opportunities in the way of seasonal schools: schools in the winter, not necessarily half the day.

93210. Unless it was adapted to the country also there would be a danger, would there not, of increasing the drift to the towns?—If you think the training is so attractive; I am afraid that the boys would not so much like the training that they would want to come in; but in any case it ought to be done in the country also.

Mr. Sidney
Webb,
LL.B.

4 Feb. 1908.

Mr. Sidney Webb, LL.B.

4 Feb. 1908.

"The stigma of pauperism." Question of deterrent element in labour exchange scheme.

93211. Passing to Part 2 of your paper, under the treatment of the surplus, would you tell us what you mean by "the stigma of pauperism" in the second paragraph?—I mean the attaching of a certain amount of public disgrace and opprobrium to the reception of relief from a Poor Law authority, which is given an outward and visible sign in the refusal of the franchise.

93212. I see that though you say here that there should be no attempt to prevent them from applying, you afterwards lay stress on making the treatment deterrent?—Yes; that is an apparent inconsistency, but it is not really an inconsistency because I hold that it is vital that everyone in this position should actually be on the labour exchange, and if need be, I should be prepared to compel him to go there; I do not think compulsion is necessary under the arrangements I suggest, but he ought to be there. On the other hand, I want to make his condition while he is there rather less pleasant to him than his condition would be if he were in employment, not less pleasant than if he were out of employment and remaining outside starving. The principle of less eligibility relates to a comparison between his being in work and not in work, not to a comparison between his being at the labour exchange and not at the labour exchange.

93213. I am afraid I still do not see how a thing can be deterrent and yet not deter one from applying?—What I want to do is to make the treatment less pleasurable than their condition would be if they were in full employment, but not necessarily less pleasurable than their condition whilst they are out of employment and not under treatment. I would tempt them to come in, but I would also tempt them to go out and resume work as soon as possible.

93214. Does that assume that their condition as unemployed would be more pleasurable than when at work?—It assumes that life at the labour exchange might easily be more pleasurable, and it is a danger against which you have to guard. I am fully alive to the danger, and I want to guard against it.

93215. Really, perhaps a summary of this sentence is that they are to retain their franchise?—Not at all. That I think is quite a small element, but the theory would be that their condition is not to be regarded as in any way necessarily disgraceful to themselves, or open to public opprobrium.

Question of the franchise in case of persons maintained by the State. 93216. Do you think that a man who shows himself quite incapable of managing his own life, and has to be taken and amused and fed and employed the whole day long for fear he should get into mischief, is a suitable man to exercise the franchise?—Heaven forbid that I should decide as to who is suitable to exercise the franchise. That is hardly the point, as you will see when you remember that with the woman who is unemployed the question does not arise at all; there is still the stigma of pauperism on the woman who is a pauper, and yet it is not embodied in any loss of the franchise.

93217. You would see no objection to depriving the man of the franchise?—Yes, I should see an objection, because I do not in any way want to deter him from coming under the treatment. I wish him to come under the treatment; I would compel him to come under treatment if it were politically possible.

93218. Do you see no danger in having a large body of men maintained by the State with liberty to vote and give their votes to the people who promise them the best maintenance?—That is a danger that I should be quite prepared to consider. I do not as a matter of fact think that it is any danger, as things are at present, or are likely to be; but if you extend your view in to the future, and consider the possibility of there being a large body of persons maintained by the State, then I should be prepared to meet that case rather on the lines of what is called the segregated vote which was introduced in Victoria for a short time, and has been introduced for other reasons in Cyprus and New Zealand. For instance, the Maoris in New Zealand are allowed to vote, but they vote only for four Maori members; and the civil servants in Victoria were allowed to vote, but they were allowed to vote only for so many civil service members. I could quite imagine that if you had a large State-dependent class you would do well to allow them to vote, but you might segregate them in one constituency, and say they must vote for one or two members only.

93219. Would they be maintained by the State?—That is not at all necessary to the argument. You could allow them freedom of choice as to whom they elected; but they would have no influence on the other constituencies, which is, after all, what is the danger.

93220. Taking still this class which is to be State-maintained, a large number of the unemployed register themselves as single men; would you allow them to marry while they are in this condition of privilege?—I think that is a matter for consideration. It would, perhaps, depend upon in what grade they were. I obviously should not allow them to marry if they were in the penal settlement. I do not think I should allow them to marry if they were in one or other of the farm colonies, which are places where the men are separated from their families; but on the other hand I do not know that I should object to their marrying if they were in the central labour depôt, which means they would be normally in continuous employment.

93221. But in the middle class in the industrial school, which is to be maintained whenever it is out of work, the marriage rate would go up very rapidly, would it not?—I am not sure that it would, but that is quite an administrative question, upon which I have no view one way or the other. I would do whatever was found to be administratively convenient.

93222. You think it would be possible to prohibit them from marrying, when they were in this class, until they were independent labourers again?—Yes, I think it would be possible.

93223. Then as to those people who are being partly maintained, and who partly work, I believe when they work they earn very high money for two or three days and are then out of work. Have you got any system of impounding their earnings and maintaining their family as long as they last, or may they come to you the day after they fall out of work and receive their state maintenance?—I do not think we ought quite to say they earn very high wages when they are at work. It is only a matter of a few shillings more or less in the day; and you could quite well adapt your maintenance to what you considered a unit of employment; you would clearly not supply maintenance for an hour, you must have some sort of practicable unit. Probably you would not dream of maintaining a man during any part of the day who was at work during that day, if only for a part of the day. You must in practice have some sort of unit of time.

93224. We hear that they earn 6s. a day sometimes at the docks. Supposing a man had three days' work and that a man earned 18s., if he came to you on the fourth day with his family for the rest of the week, would you maintain the family for the rest of the week?—I have not gone into the question of how much the home aliment would have to be. You could take that into consideration in fixing the rates; but I would certainly insist on the man putting in an attendance for the other three days, because I do not want him to stay in bed, which he might be apt to do. When I say I would insist on his coming, I mean it would be a case of degrading him from the first class to the second, and from the second class to the third, if he did not come.

93225. Then there is a difficulty about the principle of maintaining this extra casual labour. I should like to see the central labour bureau depôt to the extent that the men there were ready for employment under different employers through your scheme of the labour depôt, but why should we, after seeing all the bad effects of casual labour, maintain a reservoir of surplus labour for the employers if we disapprove of that system?—Because in my judgment it is the only practicable alternative to a total prohibition of casual labour. If it were economically and politically possible totally to prohibit casual labour, or intermittent labour, that would be far preferable; but supposing it is not practicable to do that, and I do not think it is practicable, if I may say so, economically any more than politically, then you are face to face with this difficulty, that every step that you take for making employment more continuous for those men who are employed makes the conditions harder for those men who do not get employment at all; and if you merely propose to improve the organisation by a labour exchange you are met by the opposition

Questions whether men in training establishments should be allowed to marry.

Relation of earnings to maintenance.

Impossibility of total prohibition of casual labour.

of the whole casual labour class, because each man thinks that he is going to be left out; and it is that which has prevented the voluntary adoption of organisation, for instance, at the Liverpool docks.

93226. Supposing you have discovered through your exchange how many could get fairly regular employment, would it not be possible to omit your day industrial school, which seems to me simply to bristle with difficulties, and pass on to your farm colonies combined with an energetic emigration scheme?—Yes, I think that would be possible, if we find that there is no very great seasonal fluctuation. It is quite possible that we may find that, taking all employments together, the aggregate volume of employment in London was very much the same month by month all through the year. If that were found to be the case, then I can imagine that you would be able to dispense with the day industrial school stage; but you must consider that we have some reason to believe that seasonal fluctuations do exist, and possibly more labour is required in London in June than is required in London in October or January. If that is so you cannot propose to reduce the amount of available labour in London to the January standard, because that would leave unsupplied the necessities of June; and yet you must do something with that surplus which is wanted in June but is not wanted in January.

93227. Is it not possible to take the line that if employers want more labour in June than in January they must be prepared to strengthen their present staff and re-organise their work, rather than encourage them by maintaining for them, which is what the Poor Law does with women now, a reservoir from which they can withdraw them when they like?—I quite agree with that as a preferable theory; but you have to face, I think, in thought, the fact that it is impossible; and I do not think it would be economically reasonable to expect that employers, or that a trade, or that a Government Department, should have to maintain throughout the year such a staff as it needs at its busiest time. To take an extreme case, if you take hop-picking or fruit-picking, it is manifestly inequitable, and I think impossible, to ask that a hop farm or fruit farm should give permanent employment to the amount of labour which it requires at the picking time; and that would be the case even assuming that it were a Government Department. It is nothing to do with private capitalism or the competitive system; there must be fluctuations in the amount of staff required from season to season in a particular trade. I do not think, therefore, we can refuse to make the necessary arrangements for that surplus labour; and if we cannot manage to dovetail it in with other trades at their times of excessive demand, I think it must be maintained.

93228. It seems to me it would be far more unreasonable of the hop-picker to expect somebody else to maintain his labourers eleven months in the year in order that he might have them for one month than it would be for us to say that he must arrange in some way to work without such assistance?—I try always to be moderate in my proposals; but I do not think that I should object if it were suggested that all employers should be required by law to give permanent employment to all the staff that they ever want. I am not prepared to object if that is proposed; but my proposal is more moderate than that.

93229. It seems to me that your proposal rather maintains a stagnation of labour whereas it might be possible to disperse this pool, and by the shortage of labour put pressure on the employers in that way to re-arrange their work?—I am alive to that consideration; but here, as elsewhere, I am not prepared to use the bodies and souls of these labourers as a way of getting pressure on the employers. I do not think it is legitimate to use the sufferings or the demoralisation of one class or section as a lever for obtaining a change in another class.

93230. Is it not just the fact that they are waiting there to be used that leads to demoralisation; if you can disperse them and get them away you are probably saving them?—I agree if you can, and I am quite prepared to take any steps that can be suggested with that end.

93231. Would you support a vigorous emigration proposal in congested districts, say in West Ham?—If there are any congested districts; but I am not yet sure that even West Ham is congested. It may be that it only appears to be congested, because of the lack of organisation of the seasonal fluctuations.

93232. You might test that, possibly, if you could emigrate a really considerable portion of the people, and see the effect upon those that were left?—Yes, that is a bold experimental method which I am not sure that I should be prepared to adopt.

93233. What harm would come of it supposing we emigrated, say, 5,000 labourers in West Ham, could it be any injury to anyone who was left?—I think first of all it might be an injury to those who went.

93234. I am assuming you emigrate under proper conditions?—Even then I am not sure that it would be desirable to send away from any particular district so large a proportion of the labourers in that district as to put the employers in that district at a serious disadvantage when their trade necessarily underwent its seasonal expansion. You are proceeding on the hypothesis that if the employers choose they could make their employment very much more uniform. I quite agree with that hypothesis; but I do not believe that the employers could make their employment entirely uniform even if they tried their hardest.

93235. Still you would agree with me it is as well not to encourage them the other way?—Yes; and I would take any practical steps to discourage them.

93236. You would not go quite so far as to emigrate a considerable portion?—I would not rule that out; the only thing I will not do is to let things alone.

93237. (*Chairman.*) Assuming you had your labour exchanges, and employers could only get casual labour through them, I assume they would put a limitation on the hours of a day's task?—That I should like to leave to be worked out administratively. I may remind you that as soon as there was any consideration of dock labour a minimum of four hours was fixed for an engagement by common consent. A dock labourer is not in London taken on for less than four hours at a time. That sort of regulation, I think, would very promptly arise.

93238. I was thinking rather of the other way. It is stated to us that men work now occasionally for very long hours, twenty-four or more?—That is a question of what I may call Factory Act restrictions; and I certainly should be in favour of imposing a maximum number of hours for men as for women.

93239. It was suggested to us by one witness that Overtime, much higher pay was given during the night, which has been enforced on employers for the purpose of stopping overtime; and it encourages the man who has worked all day to work all night for double pay?—That is so.

93240. You think that does operate sometimes?—Yes; speaking generally the extra rates for overtime certainly encourage individuals to be eager to get overtime, and the trade unions are in a dilemma about it. The trade unions collectively always wish to limit overtime. Their method of doing so has been to penalise it by high rates, and that tempts the individual workman to seek overtime. I think the trade unions collectively would much prefer a legal prohibition of overtime, so far as practicable.

93241. The minimum or maximum would be an administrative question which would have to be settled very much according to local conditions and the nature of the trade?—Yes, like the hours of work. I think it is essential that any scheme of public labour exchanges should set itself to be as obliging to the necessities of the industry as it can.

93242. (*Mr. Gardiner.*) With your great experience, taking your day industrial schools, do you not think it would be extraordinarily difficult to get anybody to attend?—I agree that mental instruction is the most deterrent of all treatments that you can apply to the adult man of this class, and that is why it is so good a factor of the treatment. But you must remember that the man is in the position of earning nothing, and his wife and children are suffering. It is not very much to ask of the man, when he has nothing to do, and cannot get work, that he should go and submit not to higher mathematics, but what we are calling here training, in order that his wife and children may have some aliment.

93243. In the early days, at any rate, he would be the laughing stock of all his friends?—Yes; I think we can get over that.

Mr. Sidney Webb, LL.B.

4 Feb. 1903.

Congested districts and emigration.

Labour exchanges and regulation of hours of work.

Question of willingness of men to attend day industrial schools.

Mr. Sidney Webb, LL.B.
Feb. 1908.

93244. By means of prevention of cruelty to children, and so on?—Yes; I think that so long as the man was fulfilling all his social obligations, he may have savings, I do not think you ought to press him to come, but then he would receive no relief; but directly you found he was not fulfilling his obligations, feeding his children, and so on, then you would indirectly press him to come by strictly enforcing the existing Criminal Law.

93245. You have had great experience, have you not, both before and after the passing of the 1903 Act, of education in London?—You were Chairman of the Technical Education Board before?—Yes.

Results of the Education Act of 1902.

93246. Under the Act which you are now helping to administer what in your opinion has been its result on education in London?—Leaving aside the religious question, which does not come in here, I think the net result has been a very large advance in education both in quantity and in quality; that the co-ordination of all the different grades and kinds of education has already been of great value, and, certainly, measured by the expenditure, the amount done has increased.

93247. As regards the local interest, or the interest taken by the great body of people with whom you come in contact, do you think it has tended to increase or decrease?—I think that probably differs in London and small places, and I know nothing about small places; but certainly in London there has been no less local interest, and I think there has been more general interest in education, but that has been, perhaps, because it has been so much in the newspapers.

93248. Do you think you are getting a better type of manager than you did under the old system, taking provided schools?—I do not think there is very much difference. Under the old system you got a certain proportion of admirable managers, and a number of others who were not much use, and I think that is true now.

93249. You do not think it would be true to say that the local education authority to-day is living in the main upon the interest generated by the old school board system?—Certainly not, because I think the other kinds of education, which the school board was prohibited from undertaking, are far more popular and excite far more interest than the elementary instruction.

93250. With regard to the devolution of the functions, have you any idea of giving to the local bodies as much power as you think they ought to have, not solely for the purpose of education but in order to educate public opinion?—I do not think that is a question very relevant to London. The number of people whom you can include in educational administration in London must necessarily be so tiny a fraction of the whole that whether the number is greater or smaller is relatively less important.

Changes of industrial processes and effects thereof.

93251. (Professor Smart.) It seems to me that in your first paragraph, where you answer questions one to six you have adopted a diagnosis which is very much my own; but as you put it very briefly I should like to put some questions with a view of expanding that clause. I suppose you agree with the economic proposition that the demand for all the factors of production comes not from the employers' pockets, but from the national income?—From the expenditure of the national income.

93252. That is to say the greater the wealth produced the greater will be the demand for all the factors of production taken together?—Yes, I quite agree; but there may be an ambiguity in the word "demand" as between the aggregate payment for the factors and the numerical amount of each required.

93253. I do not think there is any difference between us really; I emphasise the word "demand" rather than the word "payment" because the word "payment" always has the connotation of "money," and money is not exactly what is meant?—I agree.

93254. So that the only way to increase the demand for all the factors taken together is to increase the produce of industry?—I agree.

93255. And anything that curtails the aggregate production will lessen that demand?—Yes, that must be so.

93256. But it may at the same time redistribute that demand?—Yes.

93257. It may throw the demand on to one factor rather than on to another?—Yes, that is very often the result.

93258. But no curtailment can increase the total demand?—I think that is so.

93259. Then advance in production is due largely to the organisation of all these factors working together?—Yes, I think organisation is a very important factor in itself.

93260. So that industry in the main is a vast co-operation of all the factors of production?—That is clear.

93261. One very often co-operates by competition, does not one?—Yes, there is a constant rivalry and substitution.

93262. Rivalry is a better word. So you will agree, I think, that there are many points at which one of the elements of production, that is machinery, competes with another element of production, that is the human worker?—Yes, speaking generally I agree that is so.

93263. And when the employer finds that working by machinery is more economically effective than working by hand, he will substitute machinery for hand labour?—Yes.

93264. The immediate result of that, then, will be that more of the national income goes as what I call demand for capital, and what you would call payment for capital?—Yes, I think that is so.

93265. But then again machinery, which is one of the forms of capital, of course always requires the co-operation of labour, first to tend the machinery, and secondly to make the machinery?—Yes; but the co-operation of labour is a little different in those two cases; in making machinery human labour co-operates, so to speak, once for all; the tending of the machinery is a continuous co-operation.

93266. So it comes that an increase in demand for capital need not ultimately decrease the total demand for labour?—No, it need not.

93267. Indeed, I think the opinion of economists, and of most employers, is that the increased demand for machinery generally, and perhaps always, after more or less of an interval of time, involves increased demand for labour in these two new directions?—Yes; subject to the qualifications you have stated, I think that is correct.

93268. And so the labour now demanded may be of a different kind, or perhaps even a different generation from the labour formerly employed?—Yes, that is the practical result.

93269. Might we put it concretely in this way: A machine coal-cutter will replace the labour of hand-hewing with the labour of making the coal-cutter once for all, plus the labour of tending the coal-cutter; and it is not likely that the kind of labour now demanded will be the same kind of labour as was demanded for the pits?—That is a very typical case, that the demand may be no less, but it may be for an entirely different kind of labour.

93270. Then an economist, perhaps, would sum this up by saying the improvement in coal-getting would reduce the cost of production of coal, or tend to reduce the cost of the production of coal; the reduction in the cost of the production of coal will reduce the price; and the decrease in the price of coal will cause an increase in the demand; and this increased demand for coal will, in time, obviously demand both more men tenders of the machine and more men makers of the coal-cutters?—Yes, I think, as stated, that is correct. It would not necessarily involve an increase equivalent in amount, but there will be some increase.

93271. That is, it would probably increase the total demand for labour, but will almost certainly re-distribute it?—Yes, I think that is normally the case.

93272. So it will take part of the demand for labour away from colliers and transfer it on to machine-makers—part of the demand?—Yes.

93273. It would be very hard to convince the colliers that the demand for labour had increased?—Probably quite impossible.

Changes of industrial processes and effects thereof.

Effects of machinery and changing industrial processes.

93274. And perhaps that accounts for a good deal of the misconception on the subject?—Yes, I think that is the explanation. I quite agree with that.

93275. I think you will agree that this throws a new and serious obligation on the community, namely to make its labour mobile, both as regards place and as regards kind; or perhaps you might call it more adaptable?—I think that is so. You will notice it is not so much the introduction of machinery as the occurrence of any change. It is the changeability of the industrial process which throws this obligation on the community.

93276. And the man who cannot adapt himself to these changes and new conditions will probably sink?—Yes, that is the dreadful result.

93277. Might we sum this up by saying that the obligation now implied by the industrial system is "more exacting," not in the sense that the labour required is in any way better, but that it is labour which can only be used in co-operation with machinery, while this machinery and these processes continue changing?—Yes, I think there is no doubt that, speaking generally, occupations have become more specialised, while the kinds of occupation are perpetually changing, and consequently the chance of being thrown out is doubled in both directions.

93278. I suppose we may say that in the manufacture of almost all goods machinery is playing a larger and larger part?—Yes.

93279. It seems to come to this, then, that the various forms of capital, including machinery and processes generally, are playing a determining part with regard to labour?—As regards the kind of labour that is called for, and as regards the conditions of its work.

93280. I am pointing to this, that the mere ability to labour has nothing to do with the question now that the labour must be able to conform itself to conditions which are actually laid down by capital?—I see the point, and I agree that that is so, that the mere will to work and the muscular strength now goes a comparatively little way towards securing employment.

93281. I wonder if you would agree with putting it in this way: we practically resolved, I may say, when we entered on the competitive system, that the working man's right to work at all was to be conditioned by his "economic contribution to the upkeep of the community," but we have translated this "economic contribution" into "economic worth to some employer," which means that the man's right to be in the world at all is determined by the ability of the employer to find a place for him to work?—Speaking generally, I think that is a correct way to put it. I should say that the labourer has to convince some employer that that employer can make a profit out of him before he will get employment. Although the labourer's work may be really quite intrinsically useful to the world, unless he can find an individual employer who can make a profit out of it, he will not be employed.

93282. I do not want to interrupt, but I rather object to those words "make a profit out of him." You agree that the function of the employer is not to exploit the worker but to organise his work?—Yes, I do not object.

93283. Does it not follow, if a man, by want of education, want of skill, want of physique, want of knowledge, want of care, or want of steadiness, or by mere bad luck in having got connected with an incompetent employer, is unable to co-operate with capital, his chance of employment will be very much curtailed?—Yes, I think that is a good description of what you may call the unemployed class.

93284. And there are, I suppose, very few sides of industry where machinery has not entered?—Very few.

93285. Are there any?—Yes, there is still a certain demand for physical labour, but even at the docks machinery is being introduced.

93286. And a nple men have been brought up to these trades already?—Yes, certainly. The lower forms of industry are, generally speaking, the fullest.

93287. So that when men fall down from inability to co-operate with capital into these lower ranks of labour, that rank of labour will tend to form a swamp?—Yes, I think that is what has happened

93288. And a swamp of the lowest kind of labour, out of which there seems to be almost no drainage?—Yes, no drainage except the hospital and the cemetery.

93289. Then I come to my point: Is not this a perfectly adequate explanation of the phenomenon of unemployment concurrent with an increasing demand for labour?—It is always difficult to put these things into abstract terms, but I think if I follow you that that is a correct description.

93290. The unemployed are like soldiers who fall out on the march, they add nothing to the effective strength of the army; indeed they deduct from it?—Certainly.

93291. If that is so, then the general effect will be: First to put a premium on brains and high skill?—Yes, they are more required than ever.

93292. Secondly, to turn many of the rank and file into machine tenders?—Yes, that is going on.

93293. Thirdly, to increase the national income, and so the total demand for all the agents of production, including labour?—Yes, I think that is steadily so.

93294. And, fourthly, to form a swamp of what we may call unadaptable labour?—Yes, that is the result at present.

93295. Those are the four tendencies: to put a premium on high skill; increase wealth generally and increase the demand for labour; and, at the same time, form a swamp?—I think that is so.

93296. If that is a proper analysis, surely it explains why it is contended that the demand for labour is always increasing with the increase of wealth, while the total number of men employed may be stationary, and even decreasing?—Yes, I can conceive that there may be an increase in production and therefore an aggregate demand for all the factors of production, and, nevertheless, the number of labourers employed might not increase, and theoretically might even diminish.

93297. (*Mr. Bentham.*) It would increase the national income?—Yes.

93298. As you said, the national income really is the index of the employment of labour?—No, I said the expenditure of the national income was the measure of the employment of all the agents of production taken together, but if you are increasing the amount of machinery you might theoretically not be increasing the number of labourers.

93299. (*Professor Smart.*) That is to say, the place of hands might be taken by brains and quality of labour?—Yes.

93300. (*Mr. Bentham.*) The work of the world may be done by fewer hands?—I think so. There may be more work and more wealth, and yet theoretically fewer labourers employed to do it. I do not think that this is the actual result statistically.

93301. (*Professor Smart.*) Does this not seem to you practically a new problem, namely, what we are to do with those who have fallen out of the ranks?—We know very little about the lowest classes centuries ago, but it is certainly a new problem in consciousness, and probably the size of the problem is quite new; probably it is getting a larger and larger class at present so to be dealt with, but I should not like to say that there ever was a time when there was no unadaptable labour.

93302. This, what I call swamp, is composed of men and women who are not worth the standard rate, whom employers will not willingly employ, because they cannot find a place for them; with the best intention in the world they cannot make a place for them?—That is true, and therefore the rise in the standard of living has some relevance to the problem, and makes it more reasonable to say that is probably a new problem.

93303. I put it in this way, that a body with the best intention, say a benevolent municipality, would find the same difficulty in dealing with these people in its municipal industries?—Undoubtedly the problem has nothing to do with individualism or collectivism. I hold that there would be fluctuations of employment and changes of industry, and therefore men dropping out even if you had all the industries of the country worked by collectivist organisations.

Mr. Sidney Webb, LL.B.

4 Feb. 1908.

Relations of capital and labour and its effect on employment.

Mr. Sidney Webb, L.L.B.
Feb. 1908. 93304. I think it very valuable that on the diagnosis we should have come to that point of view together. The remedy is quite different. As long as we agree on the diagnosis there is some hope, is there not?—I think I entirely agree with you about the diagnosis.

93305. Would you like to put your suggestion in a short shape, or correct my suggestion? I think your suggestions are: First to decasualise labour?—Yes, as far as possible, I think that is most important.

93306. And then you intend to take the residuum and try to raise them into fitness for private employment?—Yes, that would be the object, but I should not want the training to be measured by its success in making them adaptable.

93307. Suppose you do find places for a number of those under this scheme of yours, you will still have the residual residuum, we will call it?—Yes, there will be a residuum of incapables.

93308. Not unemployable in the bad sense, but unfit?—Unfit.

93309. Economically unfit. You do not consider this residuum is a proper subject for the poor relief?—No, I think they should be entirely dissociated from any organisation connected with the Poor Laws, because I think it vital for good administration that all the able-bodied should be dealt with by one authority. The unemployed men, the vagrants and the merely incapable men are not separated by such obvious lines one from the other that you can safely entrust their administration to separate authorities, and therefore I think they must be all under one authority for the able-bodied dissociated from the authority which provides for the children or the widows or the sick.

93310. Therefore you are looking forward in all probability to a large and a permanent body which will be in the employment of the State in some sort of light work that is not remunerative commercially speaking?—Yes, I take as my type of that, the sane epileptic, and I consider there are very many varieties of people who will have to be treated in the way in which we are now beginning to treat the sane epileptic.

93311. You also consider that this class should be taken off the ordinary labour market?—Certainly, that is essential.

93312. Is that all you have to say on this point of view?—I should like to add that whilst I hold that you would find this residuum made up entirely of people who were physically, or mentally, or morally below the average level, I think we must be on our guard against the assumption that they are unemployed because they are below the average level; they are merely the conscripts on whom the lot has fallen, and even if all labourers were on a level in capacity there would still, according to our diagnosis, be the unemployed. They would no doubt be much easier to deal with, but the mere fact that when an employer has to reduce his staff in the slack season, he picks out the less able and the less regular, and the less competent for discharge, does not mean that they are discharged because they are less able and less regular and less competent, he must have discharged some, and they are merely those whom he selects to discharge; thus while it is true to say that the selection of the particular individuals to be unemployed may be very largely due to their own personal defects, yet the existence of the class of unemployed, probably in the same numbers as at present, does not in any way depend on those individuals being relatively defective. I think we are apt sometimes to assume that because the unemployed are defective, that their defectiveness in itself constitutes the essential cause of the existence of the unemployed class, but on the diagnosis which we have discussed, that is not the case.

93313. (*Mrs. Bosanquet.*) I do not quite follow that; I thought under the diagnosis that was exactly the case?—May I explain further, that if you have either one industry in which the demand varies from season to season, or if you have an industrial system in which the demands are changing and varying, there are necessarily bound to be some men dropping out temporarily, for longer or shorter times, and that would be the case even if all the labourers were absolutely equal, one with the other.

93314. Then you refer only to the temporary unemployed?—The period of unemployment may be temporary for each individual, but there would at any time be a class of unemployed. The unemployed would be permanent, though the individuals might be constantly changing.

93315. (*Professor Smart.*) You mean such as have the sane epileptic for type?—No, I mean the normal labourer who is intermittently employed. He may at any moment lose his employment through no fault of his own, because a certain proportion of men have to be dismissed, and the mere fact that the employer dismisses those who were less capable than the others does not mean that the dismissal was caused by their lack of capacity; if he had not been able to distinguish between his men by their relative capacities, he would be compelled to distinguish between them according to the colour of their hair, or some other irrelevant circumstance.

93316. If these men had been able to rise out of the position of unskilled labour, it might have been entirely different?—No, because the whole class could not have risen out of the class. Rising like falling, is a matter for individuals and depends on their relative capacity, or incapacity compared with the others, but the fact that so many rise or so many fall seems to me not to depend on the individual capacity.

93317. (*Mr. Bentham.*) If we grant there is not employment for all, and some necessarily must fall out when trade is quiet, it naturally follows, does it not, that the more incompetent will fall out?—Yes.

93318. They will be the first to fall out?—Yes.

93319. Therefore the great body of those who are unemployed, particularly in times of depression, are the less competent workers?—That is so.

93320. That is what you wanted to convey, was it not, in your answer?—I wanted while asserting that, to guard against the misconception that the unemployment of such a number of men had been caused by their lack of competence.

93321. Because they were incompetent?—Yes, because they were incompetent. It would not have removed the unemployment, even if you had been able to make those men as competent as the others.

93322. (*Professor Smart.*) Have you studied the Bill brought in by Mr. Ramsay MacDonald last Session with regard to unemployment?—Yes, I know generally its provisions.

93323. Does it go, so far, along with your scheme?—No, I think it is founded upon a different assumption. The suggestion that work at wages should be found for the men out of employment seems to me impossible, but I ought to say that I noticed in the speech of Mr. Macdonald a phrase which led me to think that possibly he was nearer to the view that I think correct than I had supposed, because he used the phrase "educational work". Now educational work may be of great value to the persons who are at that work, but it is never found profitable by the employer, and if what you are going to give to the unemployed is educational work, then I have very much more approval. That would correspond very much to what I propose under the name of training, which of would not exclude actual manual operations.

93324. Is it a Bill which is not incompatible with your scheme?—Could it be amended?—I think it could be adapted. I do not think it is so fundamentally different that it could not be adapted.

93325. (*Mr. Bentham.*) To follow that argument with regard to the reduction of the total amount of employment by the increase of productivity, or rather a satisfactory amount of employment with an increased amount of productivity, have you not left out of account the enormous amount of carriage which necessarily follows on an increased production, and also in the way of other classes of servants of the commercial type which are needed in consequence of the increased volume of business, all of which is left out of account in considering the increased methods of production, because what we call in business the productive employment is a smaller proportion of the whole, that is so far as wages go, than it used to be, but the other part is increasing. The unproductive expenses

Unemployment not properly attributable to defective character of individuals.

Labour Party's Unemployed Bill.

Effect of machinery and other industrial changes on production and employment.

are increasing out of proportion to the productive wages. —I agree that all that has to be taken into account, and I do not suggest that in practice there is actually ever a decrease in the number of workers employed, but I think as a theoretical problem you must admit that it is possible that the introduction of machinery, or the equivalent industrial change, might result in the production not of more commodities, but of the same amount of commodities for much less labour, in which case you might not have a larger volume of production, but you would have the same volume of production produced at less cost of labour, and at more cost of interest or payment for capital.

93326. As a matter of fact has it not always been found that there has been a larger volume of trade by reducing the cost of production?—I think that has always been the case.

93327. Therefore, all these other subsidiary kinds of employment naturally follow which absorb a good many men who would otherwise have been employed probably in productive labour?—Yes, I think that is true in practice.

93328. Then again the increased profits probably would cause an increased demand for servants?—All that has to be taken into account, but I think it is all expressed in the statement that the measure of demand is the amount of the product. The product may appear either in rent or as interest or as profits or as wages, but you include all those in the product. I do not think that I differ from your statement, and I do not think that it is really inconsistent with the more theoretical aspect which I had previously been giving.

93329. Your suggestions for the dividing up of these various classes of applicants for work, entail rather an intricate discriminative machinery?—Yes, it would need good officers and very careful administration. It is a difficult task. I do not disguise from myself that it would be very difficult.

93330. Possibly in time many of the men who come on a second time, or a third time, would get known and they would naturally fall into their own class, so the difficulty would be principally with the new-comers, would it not?—Yes, I think with new-comers you would have to proceed upon the assumption that they were common undifferentiated labour about which you know nothing, very much in the way that such men are treated at the docks now: they are taken on just for what they appear to be without any assumption.

93331. Taking this first class who would be treated at the central labour depot, who would be subjected practically to no unpleasant kind of work, and neither to training, they would simply be waiting, as it were, until they were called on?—Yes.

93332. Would that not be rather a pleasurable kind of occupation?—I think that you would have to have a certain amount of regulation: to begin with the men would have to be in attendance for the whole day: they would lose their liberty in a sense; secondly they certainly ought to be occupied during that time, and therefore they would lose what they very much value, the life of idleness. But I may point out that this class would be the result of promotion; these would be the highly selected men from the whole mass, and the fact that it was not altogether unpleasant, would be a very useful means of discipline, both of the class itself and of the class below, because you cannot manage such men except by allowing both hope and fear, and the fact that this first class had a comparatively comfortable existence, would afford a very useful stimulus to the men in the lower class, and at the same time would keep the first class in order by enabling them to be threatened with relegation to an inferior class.

93333. Except for that function there is very little difference between this and what we read of in pre-1834 days, and standing in the pound all day?—There is the very important difference, that there was in those days no selection, and the still more important difference that there was no lower depth to which the men could be relegated. Thus you did not then have the two elements of hope and fear: thirdly, in those days you had a state of idleness, which is the father of all irregularity.

93334. With the suggestion of State-aided provident insurance against unemployment, you probably hope that that class would be absorbed in that way, or rather there would be no necessity for their being connected with the central labour depot so far as they would be insured against unemployment?—That is so. I think the men who could insure either by premiums or by their own savings, would not need to come on this organisation, and I would encourage their growth in every way. I would give them a preference for employment.

93335. Have you considered at all what amount of State-aid would be required, and what amount it would take weekly to insure against unemployment: I mean of an ordinary man who is able to take any occupation that is offered to him?—I think it is almost impossible at the present time to form any estimate for the unskilled labour class, because all our data relate to the skilled trades. In the case of the skilled trades the amount is already considerable. The common trade union contribution of 1s. a week has very often to be increased by levies. I believe at this moment the carpenters are paying 1s. 9d. a week. I consider that the amount of premium against unemployment would certainly have to be 2s. a week, or possibly more but the system of State-aid to insurance against unemployment which prevails over a certain part of the Continent (it is known as the Ghent system) proceeds on the basis of the State supplying half the cost of the out-of-work pay to the trade unions.

93336. In the seventy established unions, the unemployed payment is a very small amount per member according to this Return. In 1906 it only came to about 8s. 5d. per member per year. In the highest year, 1904, it was 14s. 3d. per member. We are told that we might take it as some indication that the number of unskilled workers, labourers that is, who are unemployed might be somewhere near the number of trade unionists who are unemployed. If that be so it is not a great amount per worker per annum, 14s. 3d., and it seems as though 1s. a week would be considerably over the mark to provide for unemployment, and with State-aid it would require a less amount still?—I am afraid that I do not know of any materials which would help me to that calculation. I may say that I doubt whether those figures would be trustworthy for this calculation.

93337. (Sir Samuel Provis.) Do you think at the present time that a scheme such as you have indicated could practically be carried in the shape of an Act of Parliament?—Yes, I think that public opinion is quite prepared for a large measure of constructive policy in dealing with the unemployed, and I believe that the representatives of labour would not be indisposed to support a scheme on such lines as I have suggested.

93338. You think that the opposition would not be sufficiently serious to render it impracticable to carry a scheme like that?—No. I think the opposition would come from two quarters. In the first place the employers would object even to the small amount of new restriction which it is proposed to place upon them, but I think that they could be convinced that the restriction would be very small, and not expensive to them, and their opposition could be largely mitigated. The other opposition, which would be serious, would be on the ground of expense. I do not pretend that the scheme can be carried out without considerable expense: first of all for the organisation of the national labour exchanges, which would be necessarily a somewhat expensive process requiring very competent administration, and then there would be the necessity of maintaining the residuum of labourers who by that organisation were deprived of their present miserable chance of work. I do not think that that expenditure would be at all wholly a new additional burden: partly they are maintained at present by the Poor Law or by the distress committees, and partly they live by all sorts of miscellaneous predatory ways upon the public, but it would be from the Treasury point of view a new item in the Estimates, and therefore would excite resistance, but I think public opinion is prepared for a large constructive measure of dealing with the unemployed and would be willing to incur the expense if it saw even a chance that it was going to be a complete measure which would really deal with the situation.

Mr. Sidney Webb, LL.B.

4 Feb. 1908.

State-aided insurance against unemployment.

Practicability of large scheme for dealing with unemployment.

Probable opposition to scheme (1) by employers (2) generally, on ground of expense.

Mr. Sidney Webb, LL.B.
Feb. 1908.

93339. I suppose I may take it that you have not put yourself in a position to arrive at any sort of estimate of the expense?—No, I do not think that I can help the Commission by any figures in that way. I have vaguely thought, in order to see whether the scheme was practicable, that possibly 100 exchanges would be required in London, and you may go on to assume that if 100 are required in London, possibly several hundred more would be required for the whole country, and if you were to estimate, again very roughly, what several hundred labour exchanges would cost for rent and salaries of clerks, you might put it, with a very wide margin of error, at £1,000,000 a year for the labour exchange organisation alone. The cost of providing maintenance for the men out of work, as I say, is not altogether a new burden, but merely a shifting of the burden, and a making more systematic and complete the amount now provided. I have not been able to put any figure to that.

Question of children of poor widows.

93340. (Mr. Bentham.) With regard to the children of widows, I think you say that they recruit the unskilled class rather more than other classes of the community?—Yes, I said I was afraid that was so. I have just a little statistical reason for that in an analysis which was communicated to me of the number of outdoor paupers in a certain union for a certain period in which enquiry was made, as to what occupations were being pursued by their children over school age and the coincidence between the children of parents in receipt of outdoor relief and beginning at an unskilled labour occupation was rather marked.

93341. It is quite natural that a widow who is in receipt of relief as soon as the children get to a working age should put them to employment, no matter what it may be; possibly the employment which pays the best remuneration as children would be least skilled when they grew up; so there is a likelihood that may be true, but what is the remedy for that? Would you say that a full maintenance period should be given to children until they have learned a trade?—I think the first remedy is more care in placing out the boys. The unfortunate fact is that the poor widow is generally least of all parents in a position to take that care, and I cannot help regretting that the boards of guardians who are maintaining those children do not seem to me to have extended their feeling of responsibility for the placing out of children to those whom they maintain as outdoor paupers.

93342. It has come within my experience that when a boy has earned a scholarship and the guardians have offered to continue the relief to let the boy run the term of his scholarship, the widow has refused and said she wanted him to work and would not let the child run the scholarship; that has occurred in many cases in my own experience.—I am afraid that is so in the case of pauper parents; they are attracted by the high wages that their children can immediately earn.

93343. Is not the remedy for that to say that the guardians should see that these children are put into suitable occupations, and maintenance provided for them till they can earn a living themselves?—That is my view.

93344. That is not to push them on to their own resources as is the common practice of the Poor Law in all cases?—I quite agree. I think the interest of the community in the future of the child ought to outweigh the expense involved in putting the child to a beneficial occupation, rather than to one in which it will earn the highest wage, but I think we ought also to consider that even if the boards of guardians and the parents took all the care they could, there would, nevertheless be very great difficulty at present in increasing largely the number or proportion of boys who could be put to skilled trades; you might substitute Jones for Smith in an apprenticeship, but there is a very real difficulty in appreciably increasing the number and proportion of apprenticeships.

Question of increasing apprenticeships.

93345. Are you quite sure of that point, because it is rather important. I have known advertisements inserted in the papers for apprentices which they could not get; there has been very little response?—I do not mean to say that some increase might not be possible, but speaking of London, I think it is demonstrably impossible to apprentice all the boys of London to a skilled trade, even if the State set itself to do it.

93346. It has now come to be an actual fact that the country boys provide the workmen for London; that London does not produce its own?—I am not prepared to accept that as a permanent position, but unfortunately, it is true to a large extent.

Question of increasing apprenticeships.

93347. So that the argument applies more particularly to the country?—No, not at all, because that is to assume that the London boy is necessarily to grow up as an unskilled labourer. I think we have got to take drastic steps to prevent the London boy growing up as an unskilled labourer. If he cannot be apprenticed in London, the community must provide some other means of education.

93348. It seems a desirable step, but what is possible in that direction?—I think this plan of an extension of the half-time clauses of the Factory Act to the age of eighteen or twenty-one, coupled with the provision of half-time trade schools, is not only a possible, but the only possible, remedy.

93349. Taking the building trade, it will still require the co-operation of the employers to take these people on as improvers, will it not, or as apprentices. If there is a disinclination on the part of the employers, all the training possible would not remedy it?—I do not think there is any disinclination on the part of the London employers to take on a bricklayer's improver at the age of nineteen or twenty. He does at present take on any youth of nineteen or twenty, who comes to him with that amount of bricklaying knowledge. The trouble is that there is no opportunity for a London boy between fourteen and nineteen to acquire that knowledge. I think you could give them that knowledge in a trade school.

Difficulties and advantages of 'labour exchange and training' scheme.

93350. At a trade school, bricklaying would be a rather unlikely subject. There would be a limit to it?—No, pardon me, we have a very large school of building in South London where bricklaying is a very prominent feature, and we have a number of bricklaying classes.

93351. Do they build them up and pull them down again?—Yes. At Brixton we arrange specially so that they can build a wall and pull it down again.

93352. In your suggestion that an employer should guarantee occupation for a month, would there not be a danger of their taking the usual course and not giving a sufficient guarantee, because they always had the pool to fall back upon?—Yes, that is the real danger and the real drawback to any scheme of organisation of casual labour. You have to face the fact, that unless you can prohibit casual labour you must facilitate it, that you can only take one out of those two alternatives. What you allow you must organise, and if you organise it you facilitate it.

93353. Increased facilities would exist for an employer to stop a man at a moment's notice, which do not exist at the present day, therefore, there would be less need for him to guarantee regular employment.—That is so theoretically; I admit the objection. In practice, the pool of labour is so abundant that the employer has an almost unlimited freedom now. I have thought of the difficulty, and I would meet that difficulty by administrative regulations. The employer who sent for his labour in ways that were convenient to the labour exchanges, who gave adequate notice, and so on, would find things made more easy for him than the employer who behaved in an inconsiderate manner.

93354. As to the class which is just below your second class, who would be put in the day industrial schools, if they did not register themselves and were not put in these schools, they would be still at liberty to form unemployed processions in the street and get public sympathy, and the unemployed question would appear in the public eye to be as bad as it ever was. How would you deal with that? Would you use any compulsion?—Yes, indirectly. As I say, so long as a man is fulfilling all his social duties I recognise that you cannot conveniently interfere with him; that is to say it he has savings, or out-of-work pay from his trade union, you practically must let him be a free man, but you do not find that those men form the processions. The men who form the processions are men who have not savings, and who have not out-of-work benefit, and their children are being fed in the schools; their homes are insanitary, and generally speaking they are failing to fulfil their social obligations in all directions. At present we cannot

enforce the existing law against them, because the magistrates will not convict. There are 40,000 children being fed in the London schools to-day, all of whose parents are failing to fulfil their duties. We cannot practically proceed against any of them, even such as are wilfully neglecting their children, because it is difficult to prove that they have an opportunity, but if you had this opportunity open to all persons, then I think you could proceed drastically against those who were not fulfilling their obligations, and thus force them to the only way by which they could get maintenance.

MR. ARTHUR H. D. ACLAND, called; and Examined.

93358. (Chairman.) You are Chairman of the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education?—I am.

93359. I may perhaps explain the class of points upon which we should like to examine you in order to get information. It has been impressed upon us by a great number of witnesses that one of the most fruitful sources of unemployment and pauperism is the manner in which boys and young persons on leaving school slip into unskilled employment of a casual character early in life, from which they get discharged and when they become adults they gradually go down and down until they become unemployed; therefore from the industrial point of view we are very anxious to get certain information from educational experts. It is not our business, of course, to review the whole of our educational system, but upon that and cognate points we are anxious to have information. I believe you and Mr. Sadler occupy official positions as advisers, do you not?—I thought the best thing I could do would be to describe how Mr. Sadler and I are related to this question. I propose to leave all what I may call the expert side of this question to Mr. Sadler, but I may explain first of all that Mr. Sadler was formerly head of the branch of the Board of Education which makes enquiries into foreign systems and reports on a variety of matters of education. He has acquired a good knowledge of what is done abroad, as well as what is done at home, in relation to the subject you have just mentioned, and also on the Consultative Committee of which I am Chairman, he is Chairman of the sub-committee to which this particular subject has been referred.

93360. What is the exact title of the Committee of which you are Chairman?—The Consultative Committee of the Board of Education. It is a statutory body appointed under the Act of 1899, under which Act there was to be such a committee of an advisory character to the Board of Education. The first Chairman of that Committee (of which I have been a member since the beginning), was Sir William Hart-Dyke. He resigned last year and I was appointed his successor. The committee is composed of about eighteen to twenty persons, who are held to represent education in England and Wales as fully as can reasonably be done with a body of that kind, and to us are referred from time to time such subjects as the Board of Education desires us to enquire into. I was going to show that I think we are enquiring through this sub-committee on the lines which you have just indicated, by reading a few words from an interim report of the sub-committee which is enquiring into this question, and this finding of course is wholly apart from our coming here to-day. "Grave economic evils may be traced to the fact that immediately on leaving the elementary day schools boys can easily find employment which is injurious to the habit of steady work, and therefore deteriorating in its effect upon character, and which involves no systematic training for a skilled trade. Such forms of employment are for the time relatively highly paid, but cease at the point when the boy begins to need and demands a man's subsistence. There is some reason to fear that these forms of employment, parasitic in their economic character, are increasing, especially in great centres of population, and that to them may be traced part, at any rate, of subsequent unemployment." I only read that at once in order to show that apparently some part of our enquiry is on all fours with the words which you have just used. Perhaps I may describe exactly what the reference to us is, that will make it quite clear. The reference to us from the Board of Education is this:

93355. That would be putting the powers into operation that we already possess, against vagrancy and so on?—Yes, I think it requires no more than that.

93356. A more rigid enforcement of the Vagrancy Act. Proceedings against people who have no visible means of subsistence, against begging, and in other conceivable ways?—I think that would be quite sufficient.

93357. You think public sympathy would not go with the cases because this system of treatment and training had been adopted?—Yes.

Mr. Sidney Webb, L.L.B.

4 Feb. 1908.

"To consider Clause 8 of the Education Bill for Scotland, introduced into the House of Commons by the Government in 1907, and to advise as to its applicability to England and Wales, and whether, apart from, or in addition to, such legislative change, to consider and advise the Board of Education as to whether any means, and if so, what can be devised in respect of rural areas and urban areas respectively, for securing; first, that a much larger proportion of boys and girls should on leaving the public elementary schools commence and continue attending at evening schools than at present do so; and, secondly, that employers and other persons or bodies in a position to give effective help shall co-operate in arranging facilities for such attendance on the part of their employees, and in placing suitable hours and subjects for the schools and classes." That reference does not specifically mention the question of compulsion, but when I quote from Clauses 7 and 8 of the Bill which was introduced for Scotland last year by the Government, it will be seen that indirectly the question of compulsion is involved. I want to make it quite clear, because it is really very important to quote from a Government Bill which for the first time has brought in, in any way, the possibility, even, of compulsory evening schools. I think perhaps I had better quote from the clauses involved. It is a Bill brought in last year by Mr. Sinclair, the Secretary of Scotland, and the Lord Advocate, therefore that of course very much enhances its importance, because it is brought in absolutely with the assent of the Board of Education of Scotland. There are two important clauses. The 7th clause is: "Amendment of law as to exemption certificates," and it says: "It shall be lawful for a school board"—of course in Scotland all education authorities are school boards, therefore that means, "all educational authorities"—"in granting exemption from the obligation to attend school to children, to impose as a condition of such exemption: (a) attendance at a day school; or (b) where a suitable continuation class is provided attendance at a continuation school after the age of fourteen"—that is the point—"until such age not exceeding seventeen as the school board shall think fit." I am only reading the essential words. Then that is followed by this provision: "If any person knowingly employs a young person above the age of fourteen at any time when his attendance is required by a condition imposed under this section he shall be liable on summary conviction to a penalty not exceeding 40s. in the case of a second or subsequent offence not exceeding £5." That, of course, is the mandatory part of it. Then follows this: "If any parent or guardian of a young person above the age of fourteen by wilful default or by habitually neglecting to exercise due care has committed an offence similar to the above, they will be liable to the same penalty." Then the next clause is: "By-laws for attendance at continuation classes," and the school board are to have power to make and vary and revoke by-laws for requiring the attendance at continuation classes until the age of seventeen, of young persons who are not otherwise receiving suitable education. These by-laws are not to take effect until they have been submitted to the department, (the Board of Education of Scotland), and any person aggrieved by such by-laws may forward notice of his objection to the department, but a by-law when confirmed by the department does not require confirmation by any other authority. That I think broadly makes clear the way in which the Scottish Education Department approach the question, that by-laws may be issued by authorities for this purpose of compulsion, providing that they had been previously submitted

Mr. Arthur H. D. Acland.

4 Feb. 1908.

Proposals as to evening schools and continuation classes in Scotland.

to the Board of Education, and opportunity had been given for any aggrieved person to make a protest.

93361. It is really very much on the lines by which compulsory attendance at elementary schools was obtained here: Power was given to the local authority to frame by-laws, then ultimately when the country became habituated to them, a universal law was made without protest?—It is the same sort of thing. The way in which we began with our children under fourteen is to be applied to this wholly new class of young people from fourteen to seventeen, but the fact that it could be introduced for the first time by a Government Bill is a matter of great importance.

93362. Did it pass the Second Reading, or was it only introduced?—I am afraid I cannot answer that question.

93363. I suppose you are engaged in considering that question and you will probably report details with regard to the ages and so on, which in your judgment might be advisable?—Quite so. What I thought would be interesting would be, following that up as regards Scotland, to say a few words about what the condition of opinion in Scotland is, and especially in Glasgow. That is told to us by Mr. Struthers, the Permanent Secretary of the Scottish Education Department, because it is, of course, largely upon the opinion, as he states it, at present in Scotland, that the clause was introduced. Such a clause would never have been introduced into a Bill unless it was found there was a certain amount of public opinion behind it. Therefore, very briefly I think I would say a few words as to what he has told us. I need hardly say as Permanent Secretary of the Education Department he knows Scottish opinion very well, and I may add that he has a very, wide knowledge of the whole subject of education in Scotland, in a very remarkable degree. This is what he says: "The proposal to give power of compulsion is now made for the first time and has naturally attracted much attention in Scotland, and been widely discussed. There have been meetings of all the important school boards. Many amendments have been suggested but scarcely a single school board has taken exception to the principle of this clause, and there is no indication that it will be unacceptable to the great bulk of the population. This favourable reception is no doubt partly due to the fact that the adoption of the clauses is permissive; at the same time, however, the larger school boards not only do not object to it, but are actually ready to put it in force." He says: "I believe the extent of the opposition consisted of resolutions from two small school boards, and a few letters to newspapers. I have seen no notice of urgent meetings of trade unionists or working-class people or any section of the population who considered themselves injured by the proposal, and I do not believe that this lack of opposition was owing to the clauses being insufficiently known." There appears to be no doubt at all that all persons concerned were thoroughly aware in Scotland, especially in a great city like Glasgow, of what was being proposed, because it was not expected that the clauses would be made much use of in country districts, but its application of course to Glasgow is a matter of the highest importance in its relation to our great cities in England.

93364. Was there no objection, as far as you know, in Glasgow or in the adjoining districts?—Mr. Sadler would answer that question better than I could, but in a moment I will point out what our committee has done. As a matter of fact they have been to Glasgow. I would like to add what Mr. Struthers says about the probable effect. He says the clause does not necessarily interfere with the wage-earning capacity of the young people. This is a matter which depends rather on the form of the by-law. The by-law might provide for classes in the afternoon, for instance, and the clause says that the employers must give facilities for attending, but it is extremely unlikely that this compulsion would be exercised. The probability is that most of the classes would continue to be held in the evening. Even then there is the question of overstrain, and whether allowance should not be made off the working hours, and this, as he said, raises various difficult questions, amongst others the half-time question, but it is to be hoped that the new arrangement will be of great benefit to the class of boys and girls who, on leaving the day schools, pass into occupations such as that of the errand boy, which provide no training at all for their future lives. It may be expected the adoption of compulsory attendance at continuation classes will eventually lead to the provision of something more than the general instruc-

tion now for the most part given; and the adoption of the present proposal will allow of much more definite forms of training. The view was that the continuation school might be to some extent modified, but in a good many cases it would lead to direct technical instruction for a certain number of hours in the day time in connection with particular employments. Of course, that has been adopted, as Mr. Sadler would explain to you if you asked him, in Germany, and I think in Switzerland; at any rate his idea was that there might be some compulsory teaching in the daytime as well as some in the evening. I think that is all I want to say about Mr. Struthers. I should like to say quite briefly what our own sub-committee have done. They have made enquiries on the spot under the chairmanship of Mr. Sadler, at Liverpool, at Manchester, at Birmingham and in Glasgow, and they have also paid special attention to one or two particular firms like the Cadbury firm near Birmingham, and the Rowntree cocoa firm in the immediate neighbourhood of York (they have been to York), with a view to ascertaining the views of some employers who are believed to be rather favourable to some movement of this sort. I think I will only add that our work, broadly speaking, is called confidential, but in view of the enormous importance of the work and of your Commission, we desire, especially as we have not made any report at present, and could not do so for some months, to place at your disposal any information we have. That, of course, Mr. Sadler will do in any way you desire. I would just add this with regard to the particular branch of the subject which is before your commission, and which, of course, affects the unskilled labour more than the skilled; I think that the way in which we may approach the result which the Scottish Bill aims at, if it can be obtained with the approval of public opinion, is first of all to be worked from what I will call the skilled side; to enlist the employers in favour of some proposals of this sort by legislation, with a view to their own apprentices and their own young people getting really valuable aid, and that if we can enlist that side of the problem, which is rather more what I would call the skilled side, and get them really interested in something of this sort, we shall have got a considerable body of opinion on our side, and with that draw in the unemployed side of it as well. It would be better not to approach it solely from what I may call the unemployed point of view, but rather to approach it from the other point of view as well, at any rate in order to bring in that branch with which you are specially concerned. On that matter I do not wish to say anything more, but there is another educational matter I should like to allude to, if you will permit me.

I should like to say one word about the question which may affect what I have now been speaking of; any continuation after the elementary school, and anything which is done as regards trade schools, or anything intended to fit the young boys for skilled work later on, I allude to the question of what is called manual instruction. I allude to it entirely in reference to our elementary schools. I hold very strongly indeed that without overcrowding the curriculum or over-burdening the teachers, which would, of course, be a very great blunder, it is extremely important in our elementary schools to do a great deal more than we do at the present time in providing in the ordinary curriculum something more of this, which is called in a broad way, manual instruction for our young people. Of course we must do all that we can to make them familiar with and capable in the use of their own language, and I am sorry to say that in that we fall very short. We have heard ourselves from employers, in enquiries we have had at the consultative committee, how inadequately prepared many children are, when they leave school at fourteen, to write the simplest kind of letter, or sometimes even to read intelligently what is put before them, therefore I do not in any way disregard the enormous importance of their being well prepared in what we roughly call the three R's. That is fundamental, but I think it is quite possible at the same time to do more in the way of this employment of the hand and the eye, and I would urge it for two reasons. The first reason is because it promotes dexterity which may be very useful later on, and there are a good many boys (and I do not exclude girls) who, if they acquire this dexterity, and if they find it the most interesting part of their elementary school life and become really absorbed in it, as some boys will, if they get the opportunity they will be much more likely to return to continuation classes with a willing mind instead of an

Enquiries of sub-committee of Consultative Committee of Board of Education.

Importance of manual instruction in elementary schools.

importance
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schools.

unwilling mind if they find that there is something offered to them there which is going to carry on this particular kind of work in school which they have found pleasanter to them, and more interesting to them, than the other part of the work. Then, besides the question of dexterity, I think that we do not realise in our schools how much this training of the hand and eye may do for the subjects which we already teach in the school. It has been too much treated as a separate isolated subject, to be taught only by specially prepared teachers in a separate workshop, as it is rightly taught, no doubt, to the older scholars, and there left as if it was an isolated force. That is not the way in which I look upon manual instruction at all. It ought to be brought into relation as far as possible with other subjects in the school, and in some of our better schools this is being realised, but, of course, it takes a very long time to change old fashioned methods. It ought to be brought into actual relation with drawing, and drawing of some kind has to be done in all our schools. It ought to be brought into close relation with science (perhaps science is almost too big a word for what can be done in the elementary schools under fourteen), but at any rate with object lessons, and all simple science teaching which can be given, and it ought to be brought into relation with arithmetic and such mathematical teaching as they get. That is to say that wherever they can be made to prepare anything themselves fitted for the particular subject in which they are being instructed it may be cardboard, it may be clay, at a later stage it may be wood, and in some of the later stages in the elementary school it ought to be metal, manual instruction ought to come to be looked upon as a fundamental part of the teaching woven into the life of the school. I rather want to lay stress upon that, because hitherto it has rather been felt to be an isolated subject, very expensive and troublesome to undertake, which really, except in comparatively few cases in the large towns, practically could not be undertaken. I do not hold that view. I think if we really tried our best, we could do a good deal. I will try to describe briefly what happens to the children in many of our schools. It is like this in a vast number of schools, I do not mean in the very best, where there is a manual centre close at hand and where great pains are taken with the staffing of the older scholars schools, but I mean in a great many of the schools from the point of view of this use for the hand and eye. The child (we will take the case of a boy, although a great deal of this applies to girls) goes to school at three, or four, or five, he spends either two years, or three years, or four years in the Infants' school. In the best of our infants' schools (and we have a great many good infants' schools) this hand and eye training is well developed for children of all ages, and the boy of seven coming out of a good infants' school will have become at that age very much interested in the use of his hands, and in various infants' school occupations the use of his hand and eye will have been very well developed. Now, what is called technically manual instruction in a manual training room frequently does not begin till twelve. Now, this little boy of seven who passes out of the infants' school in the larger districts where the schools are distinguished from one another, comes into the older scholars' school, and he very often comes into the hands of one of the weakest teachers in that school at seven years of age, and for the first year or two he gets practically nothing of this sort at all. I really do think that in our schools a lot of these boys at seven and eight years of age are very much to be pitied; they at once come into a great deal which drops what was brightest and best in the infants' school, and they have to be in many cases diligently crammed with the three R's, and not much else. What I think we ought to see is something done to keep this better side of the manual instruction, which is given in the simplest form in the infants' school, right through from the infants' school to the top of the school. It is what the Board of Education, when I spoke about it, desired to be done where manual training is taken, but it is not what actually happens in a great number of our schools, as I will show in two or three minutes. What the Board of Education says under the head of manual training is quite right, the manual training of boys should be continuously progressive, from the kindergarten occupations of the infants' school through the clay and cardboard modelling of the younger scholars to bench work and the

use of tools of wood or iron handicrafts by the older scholars. But, as a matter of fact in a vast number of schools between the kindergarten and the bench work there is very little handwork at all, and in the vast mass of our schools there is no bench work at all, and no hand work, except drawing, after the kindergarten stage. I will just give one or two figures on that point. There are grants given for manual instruction, and I go on the basis of those grants. If I leave out the infants' school children altogether, there are in older scholars schools (that is the schools over infants' schools) roughly 4,250,000 children. Take half of those as boys, and say 2,100,000. You understand in my view some form of manual instruction ought to be given to those boys. Of course, I know this is an ideal, but all these things are ideals to be worked to. As a matter of fact the number of boys who earned grants for manual instruction in this country in England and Wales during the last education year for which the figures are available was 102,000, that is one boy in twenty-one.

93365. Can they earn the grants in infants schools or below the age of seven?—No. I will just go to that. From the point of view of what I think is desirable, I was saying as a matter of fact only one boy in twenty-one out of those boys (these figures are very rough) is earning it, but if you take the children over twelve, out of that four and a quarter millions there is rather more than one million in those schools over twelve years old, and if you take half of them as boys, you have got, taking the same figure of 102,000, getting manual instruction, one in five, that is to say those for whom the grant is available, four are not getting it and one is getting it. I hope I have made that fairly clear. I do not want to lay down the law about the way the grants should be given, but in my opinion some form of manual instruction should be given to those of from seven to twelve or from seven to fourteen. I could give one other instance in connection with an education authority which I have been quite recently connected with, and have only just left, in the West Riding. We have there 17,500 boys in the upper standards, which practically is equivalent to those over twelve, and we have earning grants for manual instruction only 1,000. That is one in seventeen. In a great district like the West Riding (I am not saying this is not partly the fault, if you will, of the authority) which, leaving out, of course, the great county boroughs, leaving out the non-county boroughs (which are independent for elementary education) still leaves a population very largely industrial of about one million, I say that to have only 1,000 earning grants for manual instruction, is, in my opinion, very unsatisfactory. That was what I wanted to say, because although I know that these things must be very slow, I do myself sincerely believe that manual instruction can be embodied in the teaching of our elementary schools without disadvantage to the other part of the curriculum, and with immense advantage to certain types of boys to whom that kind of thing appeals in a way which perhaps no other part of their school life will appeal, and not only that but it will tend to improve a great deal of the other work which is done in the school, because it will bring out faculties which will not be brought out in any other way. It will be an advantage to the whole education which is given up to fourteen altogether. I should like to see, in what is done in schools under the Board of Education, rules, and by other authorities, a very great deal more attention given to this subject. I feel that at present the subject has not, in spite of what may be done in London and a few big towns, attained anything like the importance which really attaches to it. I can give one short instance of what I mean. I hold in my hand a scheme (it does not matter where it is) for the application of an endowment to what is called the higher division of an elementary school, something of a *quasi* secondary character, such as they have a great deal of in Scotland at the top of the ordinary elementary school. I think that that is exactly the place for manual instruction. If any such sort of higher school at the top of an elementary school, or higher branch, is to be started, I think that is exactly the place where manual instruction should be made absolutely compulsory, and yet, when I read the curriculum (and this is a scheme only a few months old) I find the curriculum is this: English literature, history, geography, arithmetic, natural science and its application

Mr. Arthur
H. D.
Acland.
4 Feb. 1908.
Need of re-
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Numbers of
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Numbers
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West Riding.

Higher
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elementary
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proper place
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instruction.

Mr. Arthur to agricultural industry (which is quite right), and, of course such other subjects as the Governors or the local authority think right. In my opinion that curriculum ought to have been so drawn up as to include the words manual instruction in the very forefront. That gives an illustration of what my feeling about the subject is.

There is perhaps one thing I should like to say that arises out of the question of health, which has such a very important bearing on the future of these young people some of whom, for want of health, perhaps among other things, fall into destitution and unemployment, and that is that recently, in relation to another enquiry, we have had brought before us some very remarkable facts about the atmosphere of elementary schools which I think are not commonly known to the public and which are of very high and serious importance indeed. Certain scientific men have from time to time tested the atmosphere of our ordinary schools in various ordinary conditions. The investigation has not spread over a very wide sphere. I think a very great deal more investigation should be held, but what it tends to show is this, that the atmosphere of an ordinary school room with, let us say, forty or fifty children in it, whether infants or older scholars, is infinitely worse, tested by such tests as scientific men can employ, than the atmosphere of a factory, and also infinitely worse in the ordinary case than the atmosphere, even if the ordinary very poor home. That is to say that the child, even in a one-room home of a very poor character in a large town is in a better atmosphere and a more healthy atmosphere than the ordinary atmosphere of an ordinary school. If that be so, some of the medical men with whom we have had to deal in this question, especially with reference to the attendance of the younger children, say practically something of this sort: "From the hygienic point of view education in school is a necessary evil; the less they are in school the better, and therefore the less early they go to school the better." That is putting it quite bluntly, but at any rate I venture to mention this because all these hygienic questions in their bearing upon unemployment and deterioration are of the highest importance. It is quite clear that this question of the atmosphere of our schools, and therefore of the enormous importance of going into the question of ventilation of our schools in a way in which we have never gone into it before, becomes of very very serious importance from the point of view of national health.

93366. (Mr. Gardiner.) May I be allowed to take advantage of your great experience in the administration of education in the West Riding to ask whether you can give us any opinion as regards the size of the authority and, secondly, as regards the way it is trending in the view of educational efficiency and progress. Do you find, expert as you are, there is rather a drawback through its not being in direct touch with the electorate?—Do you mean with the electorate or the children?

93367. I mean the authority being elected by the county council and not by the ratepayers?—I have always held in very large counties like the West Riding and Lancashire, the authority as an elementary authority is much too large. I think as a secondary authority it can do its work fairly well, but I think it would have been an immense advantage if a county like the West Riding had been broken into, say six, eight or ten parts which could have been absolutely autonomous as regards elementary education.

93368. As regards the effect on your administration of Part III. authorities, have you found them a source of difficulty in the West Riding?—I am not quite sure that I follow you.

93369. Have you found the effect of the Part III. authorities under the Act that you have been administering in the West Riding difficult?—You mean the non-county boroughs in our midst?

93370. The urban districts which practically control their own elementary education?—And which are autonomous.

93371. Yes. Has that made your work of secondary education more difficult?—I do not know that I should say it has. Of course, these are populations taken out of our midst and that makes our work rather more scattered in consequence, but we have not had any friction with them. As regards secondary education where they also have certain powers we are working in a very friendly way with them.

93372. Have you found the disappearance of the old school board has left a gap in the local life of your area?—It is because I think we are too far away from the children that I was very anxious myself (I know how difficult it would have been), that we should have had much smaller autonomous authorities. I think what you say is a very great disadvantage as regards such a very large authority administering the education of the children in a population of 1,000,000 who are not concentrated as they would be in a great town, but are scattered at enormous distances. We have lost what existed before, the direct interest of members of the school board in the children of their own immediate neighbourhood. It is very difficult to set up an equivalent interest in the various district committees which have been appointed instead, therefore I do think that the loss now of the men, and perhaps even still more of the women, members of the school board who had a direct interest in their own children, has been a very great loss.

93373. As regards the appointment of these district committees, what method did you adopt when the Act first came into operation?—They are elected mainly by the district councils, and they have added members from the county council. It is a compound body.

District committees under West Riding education authority.

93374. You have a district committee between the local education authority and the group of school managers?—Yes. I may point out that in a district where there is a very large number of board schools, the managers practically, as regards those schools, do not count, because the local committees are the managers of the board schools.

93375. You have had to set up something analogous to advisory committees in order to keep you in touch with these people?—No, we have only these district committees with whom we keep in touch as much as we possibly can.

93376. (Chairman.) Are they the managers of the schools?—The managers of the board schools.

93377. Not of the provided schools?—No, that is to say instead of making separate managers for each board school we make the district committee practically the managers of the board schools within their group.

93378. Then the district committee is really the consequence of having a double system of education?—Yes, practically. It does represent us in a great many particulars, and the district committees are extremely useful: for instance, in enquiries with regard to secondary schools (that was my branch of the work), they were of great service to us in helping us with local enquiries of all sorts. In fact, we could not have done without them.

93379. (Mrs. Bosanquet.) Did I understand you would not differentiate between the boy and girl education, it should run on parallel lines?—With regard to manual instruction?

Desirability of giving manual instruction to girls as well as boys up to a certain age.

93380. What kind of manual instruction?—What I think is this, that up to the age when they can take up domestic subjects, girls ought to take some kind of manual instruction. I ought to have made that rather more clear. Boys and girls alike so often drop all hand work, except drawing and needle work, at the age of seven; they ought to go on with it up to eleven or twelve, when they are ready for some further development.

93381. (Sir Samuel Provis.) I am not quite sure for what area you establish your district committees?—They vary very much in size. I am afraid I cannot give it to you exactly.

District Committees in West Riding.

93382. Do you take the urban or rural districts, as the case may be?—Yes, they are largely based on them. In some cases I think some of the smaller urban districts. In some cases I think some of the smaller urban district councils have been brought together. I am afraid I have not all those figures in my head.

93383. You have in your mind going upon the lines of the urban or rural districts?—Yes, and the bodies are largely elected by either one urban district council, or a group of urban district councils.

93384. In the case of the West Riding, where you have a number of urban districts, in parts of it you combine these?—Yes.

Mr. MICHAEL ERNEST SADLER, called ; and Examined.

93385. (*Chairman.*) You are Professor of the History and Administration of Education in the University of Manchester?—I am.

93386. You have been good enough to prepare a very interesting paper, which, if you will kindly hand it in, we will treat as your evidence-in-chief?—Certainly. (*The Witness handed in the following Statement.*)

1. The evidence submitted in the following statement has been gathered in the course of two inquiries. The first of these has been conducted, under my direction, by members of the staff and former students of the Education Department at the University of Manchester. The second is now being made by the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education, a Sub-Committee (of which I am chairman) having been appointed for the special purpose of collecting evidence for the Committee. The Manchester University Inquiry began three years ago, and resulted in the publication, last November, of a volume bearing the title "Continuation Schools in England and Elsewhere." This book is published by the Manchester University Press, and a copy has been forwarded for the use of the Commission. The inquiry of the Consultative Committee began in May, 1907, and is still in progress. It is not possible, therefore, to state our conclusions, but I am authorised by the Consultative Committee to report to the Commissioners the nature of the evidence which we have received.

Uneducative Labour during Adolescence ; Its Apparent Increase.

2. In both the Manchester University and the Consultative Committee Inquiries, the evidence discloses general concern as to the deteriorating influence of certain forms of boy and girl labour, especially in cities and the larger centres of population, both in England and Scotland. In both of the inquiries close personal investigation has been made in London, Manchester, Liverpool, Glasgow, Leeds, Birmingham, and in a large number of other districts. Seventy-nine witnesses supplied evidence in the Manchester University inquiry, and forty-five others have already given evidence in the course of the inquiry which is being conducted by the Consultative Committee.

3. Under the industrial and commercial conditions which now prevail, it is easy for a boy of thirteen or fourteen to find some kind of virtually unskilled work for which are offered wages that for the time seem high, and flatter his sense of being independent of school discipline and of home restraint. In this work there is often little mental or moral discipline, though it may involve long hours of deteriorating routine. The work lasts for a few years, but leaves the lad, at the very time when he begins to want a man's subsistence, out of line for skilled employment and only too likely to recruit the ranks of unskilled labour. The same evil exists in the case of girls. Certain forms of industry which make large use of boys and girls who have recently left the elementary schools, are, in part, (except where the employers make special efforts to meet their responsibilities) parasitic in character, and get more than they ought, and more than their promoters realise that they are getting, of the physical and moral capital of the rising generation. Many callings connected with transport and communication, and some branches of manufacture, use juvenile unskilled labour to a degree which, if no counteracting measures are taken, must cause grave and lasting injury to the national life. It should be added that in this matter some Government Departments are to blame. Evils resulting from such deteriorating forms of boy and girl labour are widely felt. But we have little statistical proof that these evils are increasing out of proportion to the growth of population. Such evidence, indeed, as is available points to the conclusion that in some callings, the uneducative use of adolescent unskilled labour is rapidly extending ; but part of the apparent increase may be due to a growing sense of the importance of the subject and to the consequently closer attention with which it is being observed.

4. In the Report of the Census of England and Wales 1901, the Summary Table XXXVII. (Cd., 1,523, pp. 209-211) shows the occupations of boys and girls under each year of age from ten to fourteen inclusive. Table XXXV. in the same volume (pp. 200, *f.*) shows the occupations of males and females between fourteen and fifteen, but, subsequently, under groups of ages, the first of which groups extends from fifteen to twenty. In order that we may ascertain with precision the extent to which adolescent labour is employed in different industries up to the threshold of manhood and womanhood, it is desirable that in the next Census the Summary Tables should show the occupations of males and females under each individual year of age from fifteen to twenty.

5. In two occupations, however, it is possible to measure the increase of the uneducative employment of juveniles, viz., under the heads of : (a) "National Government ; Civil Service (messengers, etc.)" ; and (b) "Conveyance of men, goods and messages ; messengers, porters, watchmen (not railway or Government)."

6. Table A. below shows that the number of messengers (boys and girls) under fifteen years of age employed by the national Government was more than four times as large in 1901 as in 1881, and that the increase of juvenile messengers in the Civil Service was 141·2 per cent. between 1881 and 1891, and again 73·1 per cent. between 1891 and 1901. Table B. shows that the number of boys and girls under fifteen years of age who were employed as messengers, porters, watchmen (not railway or Government service) was nearly three times as large in 1901 as in 1881. The number of boy and girl messengers under fifteen (excluding railway and Government service), in 1901 was nearly as large as the total number of persons (including adults of all ages) employed in the corresponding capacity twenty years before. The number of juvenile messengers, etc. in this category showed an increase of 74·6 per cent. from 1881 to 1891, and of another 66 per cent. between 1891 and 1901, though the increase per cent. in population during the same decennia was, respectively only 11·65 and 12·17 per cent. Though the number of messengers, porters and watchmen (not in railway or Government service) has increased from 131,171 in 1881 to 185,487 in 1901, the number over fifteen has actually decreased from 85,139 in 1881 to 51,936 in 1901, a decrease of 38 per cent. It should be added that nearly all the persons employed in this category are boys. The girls form only 3·5 per cent. of the total.

TABLE A.
MESSENGERS, ETC., UNDER FIFTEEN EMPLOYED BY
NATIONAL GOVERNMENT.

Year.	Boys.	Girls.
1881	1,831	22
1891	4,412	58
1901	7,684	56

TABLE B.
MESSENGERS, PORTERS, WATCHMEN, UNDER FIFTEEN
YEARS OF AGE.

Year.	Boys.	Girls.
1881	45,144	888
1891	78,169	2,246
1901	128,787	4,764

7. Some light is thrown upon the economic results of the uneducative use of adolescent labour by the returns of applications to the distress committees set up, under the Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905. The two returns already made to the House of Commons on the proceedings of the distress committees in England and Wales (Cd. Papers 392 of 1906 and 326 of 1907), show that nearly one out of every three qualified applicants for assistance under the Act were reported to be under thirty years of age.

Mr. Michael E. Sadler.

4 Feb. 1908.

Occupations of boys and girls after leaving school.

Mr. Michael E. Sadler. 8. In preparing the following tables, I have selected from the two above-mentioned returns a number of typical towns in different parts of England, and have arranged them in groups according to their geographical position. It will be seen that, both in London taken separately and in the whole of England including London, the number of applicants under thirty years of age who were found on investigation to be qualified for assistance under the Act, formed a larger percentage of the total number of qualified applicants in the year ended March 31st, 1907, than in the period extending from the establishment of the distress committees to March 31st, 1906. In some towns the percentage of the younger men had gone down. In others it had greatly increased. In almost all cases, it is seriously large.

9. In the following Tables the percentages refer to the number of qualified applicants who were under thirty years of age :—

1. LONDON (SELECTED DISTRICTS) AND CERTAIN SUBURBS.

Name of Place.	Up to March 31, 1906.	Twelve months ended March 31, 1907.	Increase or Decrease.
Battersea - - -	27	18·7	- 8·3
Bethnal-green - -	12·9	26·9	+ 14
Camberwell - - -	17·8	28·6	+ 10·8
Poplar - - -	19·7	37·8	+ 18·1
Shoreditch - - -	15·1	30·1	+ 15
Stepney - - -	19·7	16·8	- 1·9
East Ham - - -	31·2	27·6	+ 3·6
West Ham - - -	29·1	30·8	+ 1·7
Hornsey - - -	7	35·6	- 1·4
Dartford - - -	22·2	23·2	+ 1
Walthamstow - -	27·3	27·2	- ·1
Croydon - - -	29·6	25	- 4·6

2. CERTAIN TOWNS IN LANCASHIRE AND CHESHIRE.

Name of Place.	Up to March 31, 1906.	Twelve months ended March 31, 1907.	Increase or Decrease.
Manchester - - -	25·8	29·9	+ 4·1
Salford - - -	23·7	21·8	- 1·9
Stockport - - -	27·8	21·6	- 6·2
Liverpool - - -	35·5	35·5	*
Birkenhead - - -	43·3	52	+ 8·7
Bootle - - -	25·7	25·2	- ·5
Warrington - - -	42·3	66	+ 23·7
Wigan - - -	12·8	17·1	+ 4·3
Bolton - - -	19·4	20·7	+ 1·3
Oldham - - -	20·4	12·9	- 7·5
Blackburn - - -	24·7	28·5	+ 3·8
Preston - - -	27·7	23·3	- 4·4

* The same as before.

3. CERTAIN TOWNS IN THE WEST RIDING OF YORKSHIRE.

Name of Place.	Up to March 31, 1906.	Twelve months ended March 31, 1907.	Increase or Decrease
Leeds - - -	20·4	26·7	+ 6·3
Bradford - - -	30·7	18·6	- 12·1
Halifax - - -	23	32·9	+ 9·9
Sheffield - - -	18·7	32·9	+ 14·2

4. CERTAIN TOWNS IN THE NORTH-EAST OF ENGLAND.

Name of Place.	Up to March 31, 1906.	Twelve months ended March 31, 1907.	Increase or Decrease.
Hull - - -	39·4	29·7	- 9·7
Scarborough - - -	36·5	38·1	+ 1·6
Middlesbrough - -	17·7	34·1	+ 16·4
Sunderland - - -	37·5	44·2	+ 6·7
South Shields - -	28·4	25·3	- 3·1
Newcastle-on-Tyne -	17·5	31·2	+ 13·7

5. CERTAIN TOWNS IN THE MIDLANDS.

Name of Place.	Up to March 31, 1906.	Twelve months ended March 31, 1907.	Increase or Decrease.
Birmingham - - -	18·4	17·3	- 8·9
Wolverhampton - -	14·6	22·6	+ 4·5
Derby - - -	32·4	46·1	+ 13·7
Leicester - - -	23·4	31·4	+ 8
Nottingham - - -	31·9	27·4	- 4·5
Northampton - - -	16·5	7·6	- 8·9
Burton-on-Trent - -	40·1	32·8	- 7·3

6. CERTAIN TOWNS IN SOUTH WALES.

Name of Place.	Up to March 31, 1906.	Twelve months ended March 31, 1907.	Increase or Decrease.
Cardiff - - -	30·4	*	-
Swansea - - -	23·4	23·4	†
Newport (Mon.)- -	26·6	33	+ 6·4

* No return.

† The same as before.

7. CERTAIN TOWNS IN THE WEST OF ENGLAND AND
ON THE SOUTH COAST.

Name of Place.	Up to March 31, 1906.	Twelve months ended March 31, 1907.	Increase or Decrease.
Bristol - - -	31.9	18.5	- 13.4
Plymouth - - -	39.9	39.8	- .1
Devonport - - -	29.5	28.9	- .6
Southampton - - -	29.6	18.4	- 11.2
Portsmouth - - -	21.3	16.3	- 5
Brighton - - -	29.1	27.5	- 1.6
Bournemouth - - -	48.3	28.05	- 20.25

8. CERTAIN TOWNS IN THE EAST OF ENGLAND.

Name of Place.	Up to March 31, 1906.	Twelve months ended March 31, 1907.	Increase or Decrease.
Norwich - - -	36.9	40.5	+ 3.6
Great Yarmouth - - -	26	25.3	- .7
Ipswich - - -	*	43.6	-

* No return.

9. LONDON AND THE WHOLE OF ENGLAND.

Name of Place.	Up to March 31, 1906.	Twelve months ended March 31, 1907.	Increase or Decrease.
London - - -	23.9	27.4	+ 3.5
Whole of England (including London) }	27.3	30.2	+ 2.9

10. It should be added that in both the returns more than half of the persons whose applications were entertained were drawn from the ranks of general or casual labour.

UNEMPLOYED WORKMEN ACT, 1905.

APPLICANTS (WHOSE CASES WERE ENTERTAINED IN
LONDON OR PROVINCES) ENGAGED IN GENERAL
OR CASUAL LABOUR.

—	Period to March 31, 1906.	Year ended March 31, 1907.
Total number of applicants whose occupation was returned as general or casual labour - - -	37,902	31,534
Percentage of total of all occupations	51.5	52.2

As an educational basis for increased economic efficiency and independence, the work of the elementary schools should be individualised by reduction in the size of large classes and the period of school life lengthened. Mr. Michael E. Sadler.
4 Feb. 1908.

11. A sound, practical and sufficiently prolonged training in the elementary school is the only firm basis for that technical and civic instruction which, if given during adolescence, would save great numbers of young men from falling into the ranks of unskilled labour, with its special risks of unemployment, and would increase the economic efficiency and domestic skill of great numbers of girls who, at present, receive little practical training for the duties of the home. It is desirable, therefore, (especially in districts where the leaving age is under fourteen years of age) to prolong the period during which children are compelled to remain in attendance at the elementary day school. But our statistical knowledge of the present state of things is incomplete. So far as we know, the attendance at the elementary day school is being prolonged in England and Wales to a more advanced age than was formerly the case. The last figures are found in an Appendix to the Board of Education Report for 1904-5, but have been omitted from subsequent reports. The arrangement of the figures was ambiguous, but they showed that the number of pupils who remained at the public elementary schools in England and Wales till they were between thirteen and a half and fourteen and a half years of age, had more than doubled in the ten years, 1894-1903 inclusive. During the decade the totals showed steady annual increments from 135,524 to 198,775. This is all the more satisfactory in view of the fact that an increasing number of children pass on to secondary schools at twelve years of age or earlier. The number of children leaving the public elementary schools between fourteen and a half and fifteen and a half years of age similarly rose from 33,748 in 1894 to 47,681 in 1903. It is to be desired that the statistics of the Board of Education, admirable in nearly all respects, should in future contain a table showing year by year, the number of children who leave the public elementary schools, precisely classified according to sex and age.

12. It is not possible to say how many boys and girls are in elementary and secondary schools in England under private management. The only comprehensive Return on the subject was issued by the Education Department so long ago as 1898 (Cd. 8634). But in State-aided secondary schools in England and Wales, if those be taken alone, the number of pupils increased from 33,519 in 1904-5 to 66,014 in 1905-6. In the official tables, these pupils are not classified under individual years of age, but it is believed that over 60 per cent. of the number are over twelve years of age.

In England and Wales, the limits of compulsory attendance at school vary according to the bye-laws of different districts, a minimum being laid down by statute. The main provisions of the present law may be thus summarised:—

(a) Children may be employed in agriculture at the age of eleven (if the local bye-laws contain a special provision to this effect) provided that they attend school 250 times a year up to the age of thirteen.

(b) With this exception, no child under the age of twelve can obtain either partial or total exemption from the duty of attending school.

(c) A child between twelve and thirteen (or, if the bye-laws so provide, between twelve and fourteen) can only obtain total or partial exemption upon the conditions which the bye-laws of the district prescribe.

(d) In those districts in which the bye-laws are still restricted to children under thirteen years of age, a child between thirteen and fourteen can obtain total exemption either on passing the fourth standard or on having made (since reaching the age of five years) 350 attendances in not more than two schools during each year for five years, whether consecutive or not.

(e) A child between twelve and fourteen may claim partial exemption (if such exemption is allowed by the bye-laws of the district in which the child

Desirability of lengthening period of school life.

Mr. Michael
E. Sadler.
4 Feb. 1908.

resides) on having made 300 previous attendances in not more than two schools during each year for five preceding years whether consecutive or not.
13. The general effect of this complex system is illustrated by the following table which shows what pro-

portion of the population of England and Wales of elementary school age on April 1st, 1901, was on the register of public elementary schools in the year ending January 31st, 1901, these figures being taken as the nearest comparable to one another:—

Ages.	Census*, April 1, 1901. Estimated Population in England and Wales at each year of age.			Board of Education Statistics†, 1900-1. (Year ending Jan. 31, 1901.) No. of children on School registers on last day of school-year. Boys and girls not given separately.	
	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys and Girls.	Percentage of total population of that age.
3 and under 4 - -	357,881	359,959	717,840	201,270	or 28·03
4 " " 5 - -	361,731	362,455	724,186	413,770	" 57·13
5 " " 6 - -	344,861	348,027	692,888	586,923	" 84·7
6 " " 7 - -	346,327	347,016	693,343	627,385	" 90·48
7 " " 8 - -	347,433	347,958	695,391	631,501	" 90·81
8 " " 9 - -	346,726	348,345	695,071	632,933	" 91·06
9 " " 10 - -	342,512	343,993	686,505	626,345	" 91·23
10 " " 11 - -	325,967	327,450	653,417	608,446	" 93·11
11 " " 12 - -	334,449	335,903	670,352	593,317	" 88·5
12 " " 13 - -	329,213	330,130	659,343	532,692	" 80·79
13 " " 14 - -	336,080	335,632	671,712	250,126	" 37·23
14 " " 15 - -	332,578	332,931	665,509	46,989	" 7·06
15 " " 16 - -	328,482	337,400	665,882	(15 or over)	
16 " " 17 - -	336,180	344,703	680,883	6,446	" 96 (of pop. between 15-16)
Totals - -	4,770,420	4,801,902	9,572,322	5,758,143	—

* Census of England and Wales, 1901, General Report (Cd. 2174), Appendix A., Table 20, p. 212.
† Statistics of Elementary Day Schools, etc. (Cd. 1139), 1900-1, Table 9, p. 31.

Evils of
half-time
system in
textile
industries of
Lancashire
and York-
shire.

14. Even, however, within the limits of compulsory school attendance, the law allows children to be granted exemption from school in order to go to work during certain hours of the day. Serious social evils resulting from this half-time system are found in the textile districts of Lancashire and Yorkshire. Four out of every five of the total number of half-timers in England and Wales are employed in the textile industries of these counties. The following table shows the recent steady increase in the number of such partial exemption scholars on account of whom additional attendances were claimed during each of the last three years. (Statistics of Public Education in England and Wales, 1905-6-7, Cd. 3886, 1908.)

Year.	Number of partial exemption scholars on account of whom additional attendances were claimed.
1903-4	78,876
1904-5	80,368
1905-6	82,328

15. This increase has been due to the great demand for labour in the mills, during the recent period of prosperous trade. In the preceding period there was a steady decline in the number of half-timers. In the course of the Manchester University inquiry to which reference has been made above, Mr. P. Sandiford conducted a special investigation into the working of the half-time system in the textile trades of Lancashire and the West Riding. His Report is published in "Continuation Schools in England and Elsewhere" (Manchester University Press), pp. 318-351. The conclusion to which his investigations point is that the system of partial exemption from school attendance under fourteen years of age for purposes of employment in mills, is physically, intellectually and socially deleterious, and (from a national point of view) economically wasteful.

16. Mention should also be made of the fact that many children who are in regular attendance at school are employed for wages out of school hours. Such employment often tends to be excessive and physically injurious. The Inter-departmental Committee on the Employment of School Children, which reported in 1901, (Cd. 849) came to the conclusion that in England and Wales, in the year 1898, 300,000 children were in attendance at school and also in paid employment. This total, which included half-timers, was 8 per cent. of the whole number of children in attendance at school. It should be added that an official investigation in 1898 showed that the same evil was rife in many parts of the German Empire.*

* In 1898, the Imperial Chancellor caused an inquiry to be made as to the number of children under fourteen years of age in the German Empire, who were employed in labour other than factory labour, agricultural employment, and domestic service. Out of 8,334,919 children of school age in the German Empire, 532,283 were reported as being employed in labour other than factory labour, agricultural employment, and domestic service. The figures may be taken as approximately, though not absolutely, correct. The percentage of children of school age employed in labour in the different states and provinces varied within wide limits. In Bavaria, it was only 1·58 per cent., but it should be remembered that in Bavaria the age limits of compulsory attendance at the elementary school are six to thirteen, whereas in nearly all the rest of the German Empire the upper limit of attendance at the elementary day school is fourteen. Therefore, many children who would have fallen within the scope of the return in other parts of Germany, were excluded in Bavaria. The highest percentage of children of school age employed in labour in any part of the Empire, was 22·8 in the kingdom of Saxony. The explanation is that in the Saxon home industries much child labour is employed. The same is true of the Thuringian States, in which the percentages varied from 15·16 to 19·24. In Prussia, the percentage was 5·18; in Hamburg, 5·67; in Würtemberg, 6·52; in Alsace-Lorraine, 7·27; and in Baden, 9·74. (See Appendix, No. III., in Minutes of Evidence of Employment of School Children Committee, Cd. 895, 1902.)

aw relating
to school
attendance.
Scotland.

17. The complexity of the present law of school attendance in England and Wales is not favourable to the growth of a clear public opinion in favour of prolonging the period of school attendance to fourteen years of age. A simpler and more satisfactory arrangement is in force in Scotland. The Act which now regulates the attendance of children at school in Scotland was passed in 1901. It declares it to be "the duty of every parent to provide efficient elementary education in reading, writing and arithmetic for his children who are between five and fourteen years of age." It forbids any person to take into his employment any child: (1) who is under the age of twelve years; or (2) who, being of the age of twelve years and not more than fourteen years, has not obtained exemption from the obligation to attend school from the school board of the district. Thirdly, it gives power to any school board, where after due inquiry in each case such exemption seems to be justified, to grant to individual children over twelve years of age exemption from the obligation to attend school for such time as the school board shall think fit, and with such further conditions as to the amount and manner of further attendance at school which the child shall give until it reaches the age of fourteen, as the school board in question shall think it desirable to impose. But each school board which grants exemption is required to enter the names of the children so exempted in a register, and to record a statement of the circumstances in which, and the conditions upon which, such exemption has been granted in each case.

18. Moreover the Scotch Education Department is empowered by the Act to call upon any school board, at any time, for a return of the children to whom such exemption has been given, and of the circumstances relating to each case. If, after due inquiry, the Department finds that the attendance of scholars within the district of a school board, or in any part of its district, is unsatisfactory, and that exemption from school attendance has been granted unjustifiably or with insufficient conditions, it may call upon the school board to recall exemptions thus granted, or to take steps to improve the school attendance in its district. If the school board fails to comply with these requirements within a reasonable time, the Department has power to withhold or reduce the Parliamentary grant payable to the school board in question. The results of the working of this Act are satisfactory. In 1905 the estimated population of Scotland between the ages of twelve and fourteen was 186,901; the number of scholars of twelve to fourteen years of age on the registers of all schools in Scotland was 178,521; the number of children aged twelve to fourteen who, whether conditionally or without conditions, were exempted from school attendance by the school boards was 7,822, or 4 per cent. of the total number of pupils between twelve and fourteen who were on the school register. The great majority of those who were allowed to leave school under fourteen were granted exemption on condition that they should attend evening continuation schools till reaching the age of fourteen. Thus the proportion of children in Scotland who do not remain under some form of educational supervision till they are fourteen years of age is small. It is desirable that similar arrangements should be adopted in England.

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19. But, along with measures to keep the children longer at school, steps should be taken to increase the educational efficiency of the elementary day schools. There is increasing dissatisfaction with the condition under which teachers and scholars in great numbers of public elementary schools have to do their work. In many urban schools the number of pupils assigned to each certificated teacher is much too large for true educational efficiency, or for individualised instruction. In secondary schools receiving grants from the Board of Education, the rule is that the number of scholars taught together at one time must not, as a rule, exceed thirty, and must in no case exceed thirty-five (Regulations for Secondary Schools in England, 1907, Section 13 B.). These regulations, it is true, are mainly concerned with children over twelve years of age, whereas the great majority of the pupils in public elementary schools are under twelve. But as the need for individualised teaching is at least as great in the case of children under twelve as in the case of older children, it is to be desired that the rule, which now applies to secondary schools, should be

extended to the whole of the work of the public elementary schools. As the rule which limits the size of classes in secondary schools already applies to their junior departments, the children in which are under twelve years of age, there is a precedent for the extension of the rule to other schools giving instruction to children of like age.

20. Moreover, it is much to be desired that steps should be taken in the elementary school organisation to develop corporate life and to strengthen the connection between home and school. The curriculum in the elementary schools should include a larger amount of hand-work and of practical training than is at present given. The experience of the industrial schools proves that practical training has a valuable influence upon character. But care should be taken to avoid a utilitarian spirit in the framing of the courses of study. In order that the rising generation may grow up with alert minds, with the power of adapting themselves to new conditions, and with a sense of civic duty, it is essential that the course of education in the elementary schools should widen the outlook of the mind and quicken the power of sympathy with others and the sense of individual and social obligation. One of the chief means of securing this is the study of good literature.

Continuation Schools and other Forms of Further Education; Valuable Means of Increasing Social, Civic, and Economic Efficiency.

21. Attendance at continuation schools in England and Wales is purely voluntary. Nevertheless, in the session 1904-5, 21·2 per thousand of the population of England and Wales attended evening classes which were under inspection by the Board of Education. In 1905-6, the attendance had risen to 21·9 per thousand of the population. It is true that in this total, some students may have been counted twice over. Those who attend more than one evening school are counted once for each school. But, on the other hand, the statistics take no account of the large number of students who attended the numerous classes which are carried on in the evening without inspection or aid from Government. When, therefore, all necessary qualifications have been made, the statistics show that a remarkably large proportion of the population avail themselves of opportunities of instruction after the close of their day's work.

22. The number of students attending evening classes under Government inspection is increasing. Ninety thousand more attended in 1905-6 than in the corresponding session three years before. For three generations evening school instruction has been one of the most characteristic features of the English educational system. In no other country is greater zeal shown in the voluntary attendance at evening classes. The educational facilities afforded by those classes are appreciated by intelligent and vigorous young people, especially in the great centres of industry and commerce. Out of every ten students attending the evening classes six were men. Nearly a third of the total number of students were twenty-one years and over. The Government paid in grants 9s. 3d. per head of the total attendance. During the last few years much has been done, especially in London and in the manufacturing districts of the Midlands and the North, to make the work of the evening schools bear more practically upon the industries of the neighbourhood. There have also been improvements in the grouping and classification of the evening schools in many towns, some of the schools being charged with the duty of providing suitable courses of preparatory instruction from which the student passes on first to an intermediate evening school and thence to the advanced courses at the technical institute. There has also been an increase of interest on the part of employers of labour in the education of their workpeople.

23. In the course of the Manchester University Inquiry into continuation schools, it was ascertained that out of facilities sixteen English railway companies, fourteen gave direct assistance towards or contributions to the expenses of technical classes, in order that their employees might attend them either free or at very low fees. Seven of the sixteen railway companies excused day work under certain conditions to apprentices and pupils, to allow of their attending technical classes in the day time. Out of a total number of thirty-four engineering and ship-building firms of whom inquiry was made, eighteen

Mr. Michael
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4 Feb. 1908.

Need of
increased
manual
instruction,
teaching of
citizenship,
etc.

Attendance
at continua-
tion schools
in England
and Wales.

Number of
students
attending
evening
classes.

Mr. Michael E. Sadler. excused day work to apprentices or pupils to allow of their attending technical classes in the day time, or had done so in exceptional cases. Ten out of the thirty-four firms granted special facilities for attendance at evening classes. Out of twenty-three other firms engaged in different branches of industry, nearly all encouraged attendance at evening classes, while seven made attendance at certain continuation classes compulsory for special categories of employees, and nine excused day work to apprentices or other employees to allow attendance at technical classes in the day time. (Full details of the educational facilities thus granted to apprentices and workpeople, and summaries of the employers' reports on the results will be found in "Continuation Schools in England and Elsewhere," pp. 265-308.)

Unsatisfactory condition of evening continuation schools in many parts of England.

24. On the other hand, the present condition of the evening continuation schools in many parts of England is disappointing. In the Manchester University Inquiry, seventy-nine experienced evening school teachers and administrators answered a series of questions on the subject of evening school work. In answer to the question whether the evening continuation schools were doing, on the intellectual side, work commensurate with the labour and funds now devoted to them, thirty-seven replied in the negative and thirty-three in the affirmative. In answer to the question whether the evening continuation schools were doing, on the moral and social side, work commensurate with the labour and funds now devoted to them, thirty-three answered in the negative and thirty-five in the affirmative. As the replies came from all parts of the North of England and from many districts of the Midlands and South, these replies show widespread dissatisfaction at the intellectual results ordinarily obtained in the evening continuation schools. Those who answered the questions had, on the average, had between seven and eight years experience in teaching in evening schools.

Causes of defects in evening school work.

25. The more serious defects in evening school work may be traced to five causes:—

(1) Many of the teachers engaged in evening school work have already been engaged in long hours of service in the day school.

(2) Great numbers of young people are employed during such long hours during the day time that they are too tired to undertake serious intellectual work in the evening school.

(3) In the country districts, reasons of expense make it difficult to provide the necessary variety of instruction especially of a practical character.

(4) In many places little has been done to link the evening classes with the work of the day school in such a way as to encourage the pupils to come to the evening schools on the conclusion of the day school course.

(5) There is much wastage of ability and of character during the few years which generally elapse between the close of the day school course and the taking up of evening school work. Unskilled employment at thirteen with good money draws a boy into a way of life which leaves him at sixteen or seventeen without a trade to his fingers and with the habit of steady learning gone out of his head. The elementary school-master sees that much that he and his colleagues have succeeded in doing for such a boy disappears during the two or three years immediately following the day school course. On the other hand, the teachers of the technical evening classes are hampered by the fact that many of those who wish to enter have forgotten much of the knowledge which they require as a foundation for technical work. Thus, inquiries which begin at opposite ends of the line lead to one and the same conclusion, viz., that the years between thirteen and seventeen are the point of educational leakage.

Statistics of continuation school attendance.

26. In the county of Northumberland there are approximately, in each year, 10,000 boys and girls over fourteen and under sixteen years of age. The number of those between these ages who were in regular attendance at evening school ten years ago was about 500, or 5 per cent. But in the session 1906-7 the number was not much larger. So far as it is possible to estimate the figures, out of every three boys and girls between

twelve and seventeen years of age in England and Wales, Statistics of two are attending neither day school nor evening class. continuation school attendance. Probably the position is worse than this, but it is not possible to speak with certainty. The statistics of pupils attending secondary schools are not detailed enough. In giving the number of pupils in attendance at continuation schools, they do not show the precise ages of the pupils, but group them under terms of years, viz., twelve to fifteen, fifteen to twenty-one, and over twenty-one. It is desirable that these groups should be broken up and classified according to sex and to yearly intervals. As things are, we cannot measure with any precision the growth or decline of the number of those in attendance at continuation schools during the years which follow the close of the day school course. The most recent statistics encourage the belief that the efforts made in many districts to persuade boys and girls to attend the continuation schools immediately after the close of the day school course have met with success. The number of students under twenty-one years of age who attended evening schools in England and Wales in 1904-5, was only 729 more than in 1903-4. But in 1905-6, the number of students under twenty-one had increased by 10,236.

27. In several towns in the North of England successful efforts have been made to strengthen the link between the elementary day schools and the evening continuation schools. At Widnes, about four out of five boys who leave the day schools begin at once to attend the evening schools. This high record of attendance is due to the fact that the United Alkali Company and Messrs Gossage make it a condition that all apprentices between fourteen and eighteen, whether bound by indenture or not, shall attend classes on three evenings in the week during the winter, their fees being paid by their employers.

High percentage of attendance at continuation schools in certain towns in North of England.

28. In the non-county boroughs of Lancashire in the session 1906-7, one out of three of all the boys and girls leaving the elementary day school went straight on to the continuation school. At Colne and Littleborough half of those leaving the day school began at once to attend the evening school. At Rochdale, during the years 1905-7, 55 per cent. of the boys under seventeen who had left the day school, and 25 per cent. of the corresponding category of girls, were in attendance at evening classes. At Halifax about 58 per cent. of all the children, boys and girls, who left the elementary day schools in 1906 joined the evening continuation schools within a year. In 1907-8, of all the boys between thirteen and fifteen in Halifax who were not in attendance at the day school, 69 per cent. were at the evening schools. The specially high attendance in the case of boys at the evening schools in Halifax is due to the care with which each boy on leaving the day school is visited by a representative of the Principal of the Technical College in order that the lad and his parents may realise the advantage of leaving no gap in his education.

29. In several cases large employers of labour compel their younger workpeople to attend continuation schools. Messrs. Brunner Mond & Co., at Northwich, require all apprentices and youths under nineteen in their employment to attend evening school nine times out of every ten that the school is open. The works manager at Messrs. Brunner Mond & Co's reports that as a result of this compulsory attendance at continuation schools: "Our younger generation of mechanics show a very marked improvement both in ability and keenness for work, and it is a pleasure to deal with many of them on account of the interest which they display." When Messrs. Brunner Mond & Co. first made attendance at evening schools compulsory, there was some little trouble in the class-rooms, due to the fact that some pupils came unwillingly. But the firm summoned a meeting of the parents and told them that they intended in future to employ no boy who did not regularly attend the evening school. The parents were recommended to inform their sons that the matter was no joke as the firm were determined to have the new regulation properly carried out. From that time forward no difficulty has occurred, and the present arrangements work smoothly both with the pupils and with their parents.

Compulsory attendance at continuation schools required by Brunner Mond & Co., and beneficial results thereof.

30. Messrs. Cadbury Bros., Ltd., at Bourneville, near Birmingham, require all employees under sixteen to attend evening classes during the winter for two evenings

compulsory a week and two hours per evening. Students are advised as to which courses should be taken. Parents or guardians of applicants for employment in the works are required to sign a form of agreement that the boy or girl in question shall attend evening continuation classes up to sixteen and shall receive instruction in gymnastics and swimming during work hours up to sixteen or fifteen years of age, respectively.

31. Messrs. Rowntree & Co., Ltd., York, have established at their Haxby Road factory, a domestic economy school which is under the supervision of the Board of Education. All girls under seventeen in the employment of the firm are required to attend for two hours a week during work hours. The subjects taught are cookery, dressmaking and hygiene. There are three teachers and about 520 girls are under instruction.

32. The Edinburgh School Board appointed, in the autumn of 1906 and 1907, Mr. David McNally to visit the employers in the city in connection with the continuation classes. Four hundred and ninety-five employers were interviewed. The Board's representative was received with cordiality, and his requests were in almost all cases promptly and fully complied with. The employers asked for details regarding the classes, the conditions of enrolment and the provision for technical, commercial, industrial and trade instruction. Many valuable suggestions were made. The employers guaranteed the fees of 760 employees. Some employers offered special rewards to those in their employment whose work at the classes was specially meritorious. Certain large employers were invited to allow the convener of the Higher Education Committee or some other member of the Board to address a meeting of their employees on the subject of the continuation schools. Thirty such meetings were held between September 10th and October 8th, 1907.

Compulsory or Voluntary Attendance at Continuation Schools; Preponderating Reasons for Compulsion.

33. The chief reasons urged against requiring all young people not otherwise at school to attend continuation classes up to seventeen years of age are the following:—

- (a) Overstrain likely to be caused by evening school attendance at the end of a long working day;
- (b) Impracticability in certain trades of permitting attendance of juvenile workers at day continuation classes during working hours;
- (c) Special difficulties of requiring attendance: (1) in the case of girls; (2) in the case of all pupils in thinly-populated rural districts.

34. On the other hand, the reasons in favour of compulsory attendance may be summarised as follows, and, in the opinion of the witness, outweigh the objections named above:—

(a) Our present system of attendance in England is educationally wasteful. More should be done to husband the intellectual powers of the rising generation and to direct them more systematically towards social ends. The quality which, under the more advanced conditions of modern industry, has most "selection value" is an adaptive mind combined with strong moral principle. By means of a prolonged course of suitable education, adaptiveness of mind and firmness of character can be enhanced. But the continuation classes for young people during adolescence should be held, as far as possible, during the day-time to avoid overstrain.

(b) Wherever compulsory attendance at continuation schools has been tried in England, whether for boys or girls, it has been found practicable and beneficial. Compulsory attendance at continuation schools has been tried on a much larger scale in Germany and in Switzerland, and with satisfactory results. In nineteen out of the twenty-five Cantons of Switzerland attendance at continuation schools is obligatory for boys up to seventeen years of age and in one Canton it is obligatory for girls as well. In twenty out of the twenty-six constituent parts of the German Empire, the attendance of boys at continuation schools is compulsory (either throughout the State or in districts adopting a special bye-law),

while in four of those States and in some districts of a fifth, it is compulsory for girls also. In all these cases the results appear to be, on the whole, satisfactory and to command general, though not unanimous, approval.

35. Throughout Germany the law throws upon the employer the duty of giving to his younger workpeople the necessary time for attendance at the continuation classes which the local education authority may prescribe. This duty is imposed by Secs. 120, 142, and 150 of the Imperial Law of Industry of June 1st, 1891, extended by the Industrial Law of June 30th, 1900, Sec. 120. These sections are as follow:—

Sec. 120.—Employers of labour are required to grant to those of their employees* under eighteen years of age who attend a continuation school arranged by the Government or by the local authority the necessary time for school attendance as prescribed by the authority in question. Classes are only allowed on Sundays if they do not interfere with attendance at Divine service.

Sec. 142.—By the bye-law of a district or town council attendance at continuation schools can be made compulsory for male persons under eighteen years. The regulations necessary to enforce compulsory regular attendance at such schools may be fixed by the local authority, and the duties of pupils, parents, guardians and employers may be so defined as to ensure the regular attendance, the discipline and the orderly behaviour of the pupils. Those pupils are relieved from the attendance at such compulsory schools who attend a guild or "Fach" school, provided that such a school is recognised by the superior administrative authority as equivalent in status to the said continuation school.

Sec. 150.—A fine of 20 marks (£1) or, if this is not paid, imprisonment up to three days for every offence, is imposed upon anyone contravening any of the above regulations.

36. In addition to this permissive statute, however, there are in eleven States of the German Empire, State laws prescribing the minimum period of attendance at continuation schools. The conditions of attendance at continuation schools in different parts of the German Empire are shown in the table appended. (*See Appendix No. X.*)

37. The most highly organised system of compulsory continuation schools is that established in the City of Munich under the direction of Stadtschulrat Kerschenscheiner. In Munich, attendance at continuation schools is compulsory: (a) For boys up to the eighteenth year; and (b) for girls up to the sixteenth. Business people and employers no longer complain in any way of the compulsory continuation school system. Those who are liberal-minded feel that it is a burden which ought to be borne in the public interest. Speaking generally, public opinion among employers, workpeople and apprentices alike is entirely favourable to the compulsory continuation schools in Munich. Apprentices especially approve the system because the schools are grouped according to trades. A large number of apprentices continue to attend the schools voluntarily when their period of compulsory attendance is over. The general interest taken in the work of the classes is shown by the fact that there have never been fewer absences without excuse than during the last five years. The apprentices go between 7.0 a.m. and 9.0 a.m. or between 1.0 p.m. and 7.0 p.m. There is no instruction after 7.0 p.m. Many trades give a complete day for the attendance of apprentices at the continuation school. In general, there is no need of regulation to enforce attendance. The pupils come willingly and gladly. If a scholar does play truant, he has to appear before the education authority and is cautioned. If the offence is repeated, a money fine is imposed, and, if needed, the offender is imprisoned. By means of strict regulations, the attendance of domestic servants of every kind is assured. Every girl has to attend a continuation school for at least three hours per week until she has attained her sixteenth birthday. In case of her absence without adequate excuse, the parents and the employers are punished.

* By the Industrial Law of June 30th, 1900, Sec. 120 is altered to include the following:—Male persons, female-clerks, female apprentices.

Mr. Michael
E. Sadler.

4 Feb. 1908.

Working of
the system of
compulsory
attendance in
chief centres
of textile
trades in
Germany.

38. The difficulty of enforcing compulsory attendance at continuation schools in the case of young people employed in mills has been pointed out by those who have considered the possibility of adopting such a system in England. The witness has, therefore, just completed an inquiry into the working of the system of compulsory attendance in eleven of the chief centres of the textile trades in Germany, viz., Colmar, Mulhausen, Chemnitz, Crefeld, Plauen, Elberfeld, Barmen, Meerane, Augsburg, Berlin and Forst. Attendance at continuation schools is now compulsory for boys to the end of their sixteenth year at Plauen; to the end of their seventeenth year at Chemnitz, Crefeld, Elberfeld, Barmen, Meerane, Augsburg, Berlin and Forst; and up to the end of their eighteenth year at Colmar and Mulhausen. At Plauen it is also compulsory for girls up to the end of their sixteenth year. Factory employees, within the age limits of compulsory attendance, leave the mills early in order to attend continuation classes between the hours of 5 p.m., and 7 p.m., or 8 p.m. at Colmar, Elberfeld, Meerane and Augsburg. Continuation classes are held during work hours for shifts of younger mill-hands at Mulhausen, Plauen, Barmen, and Chemnitz. The amount of attendance required at continuation classes is three lessons a week at Mulhausen and Meerane; four lessons a week at Colmar, Chemnitz, Crefeld, Elberfeld, Berlin and Forst; and six lessons a week at Plauen, Barmen and Augsburg. The system of compulsory attendance is reported as working satisfactorily and as meeting with the approval of employers and workpeople at Colmar, Mulhausen, Chemnitz, Crefeld, Plauen, Elberfeld, Augsburg and Forst. At Barmen there was grumbling at the beginning (1905), but the arrangements are now reported as working smoothly. At Meerane, where the plan of compulsory attendance at continuation schools was introduced after a great struggle, the position is now satisfactory and the local education authority hope that further concessions will shortly be made by the employers. At Berlin where compulsory attendance began in 1905, the system is working fairly well, but it is too soon to form a final judgment as to the results.

Best
method of
introducing
compulsory
attendance at
continuation
schools in
Great
Britain.

39. The witness thinks that the best manner of introducing into Great Britain the system of compulsory attendance at continuation schools will be by means of a Permissive Act which could be adopted in districts which felt ready for the change. This plan was embodied in the Education (Scotland) Bill, 1907, Sections 8 and 9:—

8. (1) It shall be lawful for a school board from time to time to make, vary and revoke bye-laws for requiring the attendance at continuation classes until the age of seventeen of young persons who are not otherwise receiving a suitable education, and that at such times and for such periods as may in such bye-laws be specified:

Provided that no young person shall be required to attend a continuation class held beyond two miles measured along the nearest road from the residence of such young person.

(2) Bye-laws so made shall not take effect unless and until they have been submitted to and confirmed by the Department, who are hereby empowered to allow, or disallow the same, as they may think proper, nor shall any such bye laws be confirmed:—

Unless notice of intention to apply for confirmation of the same has been given in one or more of the newspapers circulated within or by handbills posted throughout, the district to which such bye-laws relate, one month at least before the making of such applications, and

Unless for one month at least before any such application is considered a copy of the proposed bye-laws has been kept at the office of the school board and has been open during office hours thereat to the inspection of the ratepayers of the district to which such bye-laws relate, without fee or reward.

Any person aggrieved by any proposed bye-law, or by any proposed alteration of a bye-law, may within such last-mentioned month, forward notice of his objection to the department, which shall consider the same before granting confirmation.

The clerk of the school board shall, on the application of any such ratepayer, furnish him with a copy of such proposed bye-laws or any part thereof, on payment of *sixpence* for every hundred words contained in such copy.

A bye-law when confirmed by the Department shall not require confirmation, allowance or approval by any other authority.

(3) If any person knowingly employs a young person at any time when his attendance is by any such bye-law required at a continuation class he shall be liable on summary conviction to a penalty not exceeding *forty shillings*, or in case of a second or subsequent offence not exceeding *five pounds*.

(4) If any parent or guardian of a young person by wilful neglect, or by habitually neglecting to exercise due care, has conduced to the commission of an alleged offence under the immediately preceding sub-section, or otherwise to failure on the part of the young person to attend a continuation class as required in any such bye-law, he shall be liable on summary conviction to the like penalty.

(5) The Department shall not allow any bye-law unless they are satisfied that there is a suitable provision of continuation classes within the parish or burgh to which it bears to be applicable.

(6) The production of a written or printed copy of a bye-law, if authenticated by the signature of the clerk to the school board, shall, until the contrary is proved, be sufficient evidence of the due making and existence of the bye-law, and, if it is so stated in the copy, of the bye-law having been allowed by the Department.

9. All prosecutions for offences under either of the two immediately preceding sections of this Act shall take place before the sheriff in the manner provided by the Summary Jurisdiction Acts, and penalties shall be recoverable by imprisonment in terms of those Acts.

The expression "continuation class" means a class conducted in accordance with the Code of Regulations of the Department for classes providing further instruction for pupils who have left school.

40. The witness suggests that any district adopting a bye-law compelling attendance at continuation schools should receive continuation school grants from the Board of Education at double rates. This would serve as a lever for moving local opinion in favour of the adoption of compulsion. The witness estimates that if attendance at continuation schools were made compulsory on all young people up to seventeen years of age, the total annual cost, central and local, would be about £1,495,000 per annum. This calculates the cost of continuation school teaching at an average of 23s. per head. But any very highly-organised system of technical continuation schools, closely adjusted to trade needs, and taught by expert trade teachers in buildings suitably equipped, would entail a much larger expenditure per head. In the continuation schools in Munich, in 1906-7, the average cost per student was £2 17s. In the judgment of the witness, this expenditure for continuation schools would be remunerative to the nation through the enhanced industrial skill of the workers and foremen, and through the civic and social betterment which would accrue from so carefully organised a system of educational discipline.

41. On the other hand, the enforcement of compulsory attendance at continuation schools and, with it, a further restriction of the hours of adolescent labour, would certainly curtail the money earning power of many young people during the years from thirteen to seventeen. This would undoubtedly be a hardship to great numbers of families and would involve a temporary shrinkage of the margin of comfort in the case of many more. For these reasons the change should only be made gradually and by instalments. The economic life of the nation as a whole would be invigorated by better technical education and by the restriction of the hours of deteriorating employment during the years of adolescence. The intellectual and moral gain derived from judicious forms of such restriction would be followed, gradually but almost certainly, by a material gain.

Best
method of
introducing
compulsory
attendance at
continuation
schools in
Great
Britain.

Suggestion of
witness as to
double grants
from Board of
Education for
compulsory
continuation
schools.

Effects of
introducing
compulsory
attendance at
continuation
schools.

General Conclusions.

42. The witness, therefore, submits the following general conclusions —

A.—Education in itself is no panacea for the evils of economic distress and unemployment. But, directly and indirectly, it could do much to lessen those evils in future, especially in the following ways :—

(i.) Reforms in education would do much to increase the adaptiveness and social efficiency of the rising generation, and thus to increase the mobility of labour among the workers.

(ii.) More systematic instruction in the higher forms of the public schools, in social and economic subjects, would give to many of those who are likely to become employers a stronger sense of responsibility for the wise and public-spirited organisation and direction of labour.

(iii.) Education can help to form the habit of mind which resents waste, alike in use of material, of food stuffs, of time, and of human service.

(iv.) Education could do something to extend the sphere of employment by increasing the power of leaders of industry and commerce to discern and seize new economic opportunities. It could touch the problem of unemployment and lessen some of the loss and suffering caused by it by training up a generation which would quickly grasp the bearing of systematic remedial measures and, in applying them, realise the need for patience and for careful discrimination between the deserving and the undeserving. But the most fruitful work of education lies in its indirect influence upon social relationships, in quickening human sympathy, in strengthening the feeling of brotherhood, and in creating the desire for a finer quality of human life.

B.—(i.) If education is to be made an effective instrument in securing the benefits mentioned above, it is necessary, as one of the first conditions of success, that changes should be made in our elementary education. The conditions under which the teachers in most of our public elementary schools have to do their work are incompatible with the full intellectual and moral efficiency of the schools. Classes should be smaller. The liberal education and professional training of the teachers should cover a longer period. There should be more practical work in the curriculum. There should be better classification of the pupils according to aptitude. For certain categories of pupils the whole course should be simplified. Abundant opportunity should be offered for the transference, at suitable ages, of promising pupils to secondary schools (of varying types), and thence to places of higher education, by means of scholarships and (where necessary) maintenance allowances.

(ii.) The period of attendance at the day school should be lengthened and the English law of school attendance simplified. The adoption of Sections 2, 3, and 9, of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1901, is desirable for these purposes.

C.—The work of the schools should be brought more closely into relation with the homes of the children :—

(i.) By giving head teachers such help in their clerical duties as to enable them, as is already done in many cases, to confer with the parents of the elder school children with a view to the wise choice of and technical preparation for subsequent employment.

(ii.) By strengthening the position of the managers of each individual school, so that each school may have a body of persons personally interested in the work of the teachers and in the future of the pupils. Further trial should be made of the experiment (already successful in many cases) of appointing to the body of managers representatives of the parents of children in the school.

(iii.) By giving encouragement to such efforts as those of the Fern Street School Settlement, Devons Road, Bow, E., and of the Finchley Education Committee to secure suitable employment for the children in the schools. In large towns it would be found helpful to have a special officer on the staff of the local education authority who would collect information as to the ways of entering trades and other callings, and place himself, at appointed hours, at the service of parents who might wish to consult him with regard to the future of their children. Such an officer and his colleagues would need to be in close communication with the head teachers of the schools.

D.—Increased efforts should be made by the State to encourage local education authorities, voluntary associations, boys' and girls' clubs, etc., to organise continuation classes affording, according to the needs of the different localities and of different callings, courses of instruction which would be practically useful to young people of from fourteen to seventeen years of age. These classes should be carefully graded, as is already the case in the best organised centres. They should in all cases be so planned as to train young people for healthy living and for the duties of citizenship. They should cultivate humane interests as well as technical skill. In the organisation of such classes local education authorities and others should confer with the associations of employers and of workers in each trade. An effort should be made to persuade every boy and girl on leaving the elementary school, to join a continuation class, so as to prevent a wasteful gap in his or her educational course, and the risk of the loss of the habit of learning. By a card record system the local education authority (aided by teachers in the day and continuation schools, Sunday school authorities, club workers, etc.), should keep up personal communication with the boys and girls during the years immediately following the close of their elementary school course, and with their parents also. Improvements should be made in the staffing of continuation schools, and relief given to overworked and jaded teachers.

E.—Ultimately, some form of compulsion to attend day or evening continuation classes, between fourteen and seventeen years of age, will be found desirable, not so much in the interests of exceptional individuals as in that of the rank and file. Some of the present evils of unemployment may be traced to the lack of educational care and of suitable technical training during the years of adolescence. Compulsory attendance at continuation schools should be accompanied by reduction in the hours of juvenile and adolescent labour where those are now excessive. Employers, including Government Departments, manufacturers, commercial firms, retail tradesmen and employers of young domestic servants, should be placed under statutory obligation to allow young persons of less than seventeen years of age who are in their employment, to attend courses of physical, technical and general instruction for four hours a week, at any rate, during the winter months, at times of day when the pupils are not too tired to profit by the teaching.

It is advisable that the Government should pay grants at a double rate to districts which may adopt a by-law making attendance at continuation classes (held in the day time or in the late afternoon wherever practicable) obligatory upon all boys and girls (if not otherwise at school) up to seventeen years of age. The attention of Government Departments should be drawn to the social evils resulting from the inconsiderate use of adolescent labour in callings which afford no hope of adult employment, and no preparation for a skilled trade. In the post offices, in large towns, classes should be organised (by co-operation with the local education authority) for the instruction of telegraph messengers, in shifts, during the hours of duty.

93387. (*Chairman.*) Your Statement deals with two periods of education, the first, the normal period, or

Mr. Michael E. Sadler.

4 Feb. 1908.

Need of increased efforts by State to encourage the organisation of graded continuation classes.

Desirability of compelling attendance at continuation classes.

Desirability of grants at a double rate to districts making attendance compulsory, etc.

Mr. Michael
E. Sadler.

4 Feb. 1908.

Widespread
dissatis-
faction of
teachers with
size of the
classes in
elementary
schools.
General
feeling as to
need of im-
provement in
elementary
schools.

Question of
teachers con-
ferring with
parents as to
training of
children for
future em-
ployment.

Importance
of utilising
managers in
assisting
children as
regards em-
ployment
after leaving
school.

what is deemed the normal period of elementary education, and secondly in connection with continuation schools. You speak more than once of dissatisfaction as regards the conditions under which teachers and scholars have to do their work, and I think also as regards the results. Do you think that dissatisfaction is at all widespread?—I think there is very wide dissatisfaction among the teachers in elementary schools at the size of the classes which they are required to teach.

93388. I was thinking rather as regards the parents of the community at large. Has any dissatisfaction been evident, or made itself known to you, in consequence of our expenditure on education not stopping unemployment, and in this case, from an industrial point of view not fulfilling anticipations with regard to it?—I think the general effect of the evidence we have received in the two inquiries, the results of which I am prepared to submit to you, is, that it is desired in the national interest that great improvement should be made in our elementary day schools, and that the root of any real reform of further education must be planted there.

93389. We are looking at this question mainly from the industrial point of view. I think you make some very valuable suggestions in the second part of your Statement, as regards the changes that might be made. I will not allude to B. in Paragraph 42 of your Statement; the suggestions seem to me excellent, but they are really purely educational, and therefore they are a little outside our purview; but in C. you deal with a question which has been very much before us, that is, how far you can utilise our system of elementary education by bringing teachers more in contact with the parents and helping the parents of the child to obtain employment for the child. I will take you through those four sections. I assume the head teachers do, to a certain extent, confer with the parents of the older children now, do they, as regards their technical preparation for subsequent employment, or is there very little communication?—A great deal is done by all the best teachers, men and women, but I think it is generally felt that much more might be done than has been accomplished at present.

93390. A teacher would hardly look upon it as his necessary business; he would do it out of kindness or interest in the child?—Yes, but teachers are very devoted to the interests of the children.

93391. In a poor district the teacher is a sort of social centre, around which a great deal gravitates?—Yes.

93392. Then you think that the managers might be utilised to some extent in the same way?—Yes, it is very important I think with a view of getting proper employment for the children, and directing them to the right kind of employment, that there should be connected with each school a body of experienced people, who know the conditions of life in the various trades, and who can help forward the boys and girls after they leave school. There is some danger, in more centralised systems of administration, of depriving the bodies of school managers of the special responsibilities which they used to have in regard to the school, and therefore to lessen their interest in the work.

93393. There is also a difficulty, is there not, in regard to the poorest parts of London, and the poorest parts of populous centres, in getting residential managers who are qualified to take the interest?—I believe there is a very large amount of voluntary work which might be more utilised in the management of schools if larger responsibilities were thrown upon the managers. The effect of the better education of girls and women has been largely to increase the number of public-spirited women who are specially fitted for this work.

93394. Reversing it, given increased responsibility, you think there would be no difficulty in finding competent managers who would take an interest?—I think a great deal more ought to be done to utilise the services of voluntary managers. Where it has been tried, the experiment of putting on the body of managers a couple of representatives of the parents of the children, has had good results. We have in the University of Manchester two schools of demonstration and experiment, where we try to work out new methods of teaching, and on the committees of those schools we have elected representatives of the parents. On several occasions we have obtained from them guidance and help which we could not possibly have got in any other way.

93395. Then you go on to suggest, and this is a new idea I think, that it would be helpful to have a special officer on the staff of the local education authority, who would collect information as to the ways of entering trades and other callings, and place himself at appointed hours at the service of parents who might wish to consult him with regard to the future of their children. Has anything of that kind been at all tried?—In the Fern Street School, Devon's Road, Bow-by-Bromley, there has been started what is called the school settlement. Two or three people connected with the school actually live close to the school, and their business is to visit the children's homes as friends and neighbours, to help in organising various clubs, parents' gatherings, a play centre, and country holidays, and to keep in touch with the children leaving school, and to assist them in finding suitable employment. That takes the school as the unit. In the urban district of Finchley advice in the choice of employment is being given by the education authority itself to young people on leaving school. Every child on coming within six months of the close of the elementary school career is noted in a list, and the parents are communicated with, a friendly letter being sent suggesting they should come to the office and talk over with the education secretary the kind of life that they propose to put the child into, so that the education secretary may help them as to the best kind of preparation for that life; a number of employers in the City are communicated with, so that if they have vacancies they may write to the education authority in Finchley, with a view of suitable candidates being sent for their approbation.

93396. (Mr. Phelps.) Could you tell us in that connection what they do in Germany?—The education conditions in different parts of the German Empire vary very much, but the whole organisation of the educational care of young people during adolescence has made remarkable advances in the last ten years. If it is convenient to you perhaps I might speak about Germany *en bloc*, as it is a rather long and difficult subject.

93397. (Chairman.) Before we leave this point, is this a new departure at Finchley?—It is quite new. Perhaps to save the time of the Commission I might throw a good deal of the substance of these documents into the form of a memorandum, because the details are numerous but important. (See Paragraph 42 (C) of Statement by Witness.)

93398. We should be much obliged to you if you would?—If advice as to employment is to be wisely given to young people on leaving school, it is necessary that the education secretary (or whoever else gives the advice) should know a great deal about the conditions of trade and about the various occupations in the district concerned. I believe that Mrs. Ogilvie Gordon has suggested that this experience should be collected and made available in large cities under the charge of a special officer. I am sure that in a large town such a plan would be beneficial; but the duties of the officer would require the services of at least one man with some assistants, as he ought to be in different parts of the town on different days, at convenient hours in the evening, for consultation with the parents. Care should also be taken to study the interests of girls, and for this reason women should be employed in such a bureau of information.

93399. Of course, if a system like that could be generally established, and you could link up one place with another, there could be communication between those different officials?—I think that is exceedingly important.

93400. You think it would be capable of considerable development in that way?—Certainly.

93401. It is very rarely that parents let the teachers know what occupation they wish their children to go into, is it not?—The skilled artisans in the industrial districts seem to me to be taking an increased interest in the future of their children. It is dangerous to generalise about a large subject of this kind, but I have been impressed, wherever I have been in England during the last three years, with the marked growth in intelligent interest in educational matters on the part of the skilled artisans. I do not think it has extended at present very much beyond that.

93402. The class it has not extended to is the class we particularly want to help, because they would be probably unskilled, and probably the parents of a low grade of unskilled labour?—Yes, but a great deal can be done to

Assistance
by education
authorities,
etc., in
deciding on
trades for
children
leaving
school.

Increase of
interest
among
skilled
artisans in
the future
of their
children.

widen the present range of interest ; I am hopeful about the turn things are taking.

93403. We will turn to Germany for a minute. What has been sometimes suggested to us is that the parent or the guardian of the child should be asked, after the child has been to school for a certain time, to designate the class of employment for which it is intended. Is there anything of that kind in Germany ; is the parent obliged to let the teacher know what occupation he intends the child to follow ?—No ; but in certain parts of Germany the period of compulsory school attendance does not end at fourteen ; in such cases every child is necessarily, where the bye-law or the law so requires, under educational supervision during the years of adolescence, and the courses at continuation schools are being more and more made practical, so as to fit the boys, and in some cases the girls, for industrial employment.

93404. Employment in Germany follows hereditary lines a great deal, does it not ?—I do not think I can speak about that. It varies very much in the different districts. Would it be convenient to you to know exactly what is the condition of the law in Germany on this whole subject ? So far as voluntary attendance at continuation school goes, I think that in many towns and districts of England, we are at the top of the tree.

93405. That is, of course, where the attendance is voluntary ?—Yes.

93406. The drawback to having compulsory attendance is that you would increase the number, but you would bring down the standard of the attendance as regards ability and capacity. Is that not generally the case ?—That has not been my experience of seeing it at work in Germany, but speaking again very broadly, the general effect of the German system is to raise the level of the mediocre, to take much closer care of the residuum, but not to give quite as much opportunity and freedom, as is the case in this country, to the exceptionally clever or energetic.

93407. I think it would fit in with your evidence if you were just to describe to us fully the German system of continuation schools, and anything that is peculiar as regards their ordinary elementary education as distinguished from ours ?—Attendance at continuation schools beyond fourteen is obligatory on part, or the whole, of the younger population by local by-laws in nine states of the German Empire, and in the Reichsland of Alsace-Lorraine.

93408. May I ask by "local by-law" do you mean that the whole state passes a law, or that it is optional to the local authority of whatever state ?—In the ten states of which I am about to speak, there is a general permissive law which can be adopted by the town or district, and therefore in these states compulsory attendance at continuation schools is in patches, according to the option of the district concerned. They are the following : Prussia, with a population of 31,000,000, with the exception of two parts of Prussia, Posen and West Prussia, where attendance at continuation schools is obligatory by general law and not by by-law ; there are those two parts of Prussia which are exceptional.

93409. The compulsion is in force either by by-law or general law ?—The compulsion is in force all over Posen and West Prussia, but in the rest of Prussia only locally. Prussia, Saxe-Altenburg, Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, Anhalt, Brunswick, Oldenburg, Mecklenburg-Strelitz, Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, Lippe and Alsace-Lorraine are the ten constituent parts of the German Empire in which the attendance at continuation schools is compulsory, if local by-laws require. There are eleven states in which attendance is compulsory by state law, within varying limits—Bavaria, Saxony, Württemberg, Baden, Hesse, Saxe-Weimar, Saxe-Meiningen, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Schwarzburg-Sondershausen, Waldeck and Reuss the younger line. It is obligatory for girls as well as for boys, in Bavaria, Württemberg, Saxe-Meiningen, Waldeck, and in parts of Prussia. There are five states in which attendance at continuation schools at present is wholly voluntary—at Hamburg, Bremen, Lübeck, Reuss, the elder branch, and Schaumburg-Lippe ; but in one of those, Bremen, it becomes compulsory on April 1st next.

93410. What is the result of these laws, some of which are compulsory and others of which are locally optional ?

Have you any idea what proportion of the German population is compelled to attend these continuation schools ?—Complete statistics do not exist. The work of comparing statistics of attendances at continuation schools is one of great complexity and difficulty, and there are not sufficient materials for a complete answer to your question. I have prepared a summarised answer so far as an accurate statement is possible. In England and Wales, where our attendance is purely voluntary, there were by the last published statistics, about 22 per 1,000 of the population in attendance at evening or other continuation schools under Government inspection. Some qualification ought to be made as regards those figures, because in a few cases the same students may be counted twice over ; secondly, the attendance of many of those students is irregular ; in the third place, the duration of the course is often, for the individual student, short. The three parts of Germany where I think I have been able to get figures as exhaustive as our English figures, are the following, Württemberg, Baden, and the City of Munich. In Württemberg, the attendance per thousand in the year ending January 1st, 1906, was 28·8 per 1,000 of the population.

93411. What proportion is that 22 per 1,000 should you think, to those who could attend ?—Of those who leave the elementary schools it is certain that not more than 1 in 3 ever comes under any systematic form of educational care afterwards. I believe, but there is no statistical proof of it, that the proportion is much worse, and that 1 in 5 is nearer the truth. 1 in 3 is, I think, practically conclusively proved. Our lack of statistical knowledge is remarkable, and I should like to lay before the Commission some suggestions for its improvement.

93412. Do you mean in Germany or in England ?—Attendance in England, but it is true in Germany too. The figures in Württemberg that really compare with the English and Welsh figures is 28·8 per 1,000. That omits the attendance at Sunday Schools, which is one of the forms of compulsory attendance. If you include that, the number rises to 44 per 1,000 of population, but I have omitted Sunday Schools, because we have a very large Sunday School attendance in England, and it is not fair to include it in Württemberg, and not include it in England ; then further, the two things are not comparable, because in Württemberg the attendance at Sunday School is more devoted to secular studies, and is much more highly organised. Secondly, in the city of Baden the attendance at continuation schools is 37·7 per 1,000 of the whole population. In the city of Munich, which, so far as my knowledge goes, has the best organised system of continuation schools in Germany the attendance is 40·1 per 1,000 of the population. Just as there are qualifications to make on the English figures, so there are remarks to add on the German ones. Attendance at a continuation school in Germany, being in these cases enforced, is steadier and more prolonged than is generally the case with us. In the second place it is often, though not universally, more closely directed to the industrial and domestic needs of the boys and girls respectively. In the third place much more care is taken to train and supply teachers who are specially prepared for continuation school work. In the fourth place the attendance through the years of adolescence immediately following the close of the day school course is much more thoroughly enforced than with us. The weakness of the English system is that the number of boys and girls attending continuation schools immediately after the close of the day school course seems to be at present almost stationary. The increase is in the case of the older students.

93413. By older, what age do you take ?—I mean over eighteen.

93414. (Mrs. Webb.) Does not the fact that the bulk of the people are, you may say, over the age of mere youth bring in also an element of uncertainty in the statistics ? Do you not have the people who go from one place to another and get entered twice ? Is there not more going from one polytechnic or one evening school to another evening school, so that you get the same person enter as a separate person, where as in Germany you do not get that ?—Possibly. That applies, I think, more to London than to any other town in England.

93415. I was thinking of this. I know clerks wander about, they go in first for typewriting or shorthand in one

Mr. Michael E. Sadler.

4 Feb. 1908.

Proportion of the population attending continuation schools in England and Wales, and in certain parts of Germany.

Attendance at continuation schools in Baden and in Munich.

Uncertainty of statistics of continuation school attendance in England.

Mr. Michael place, and then they go off to another place for something else?—Quite so.

4 Feb. 1908. 93416. Whereas, if they attended, as they do in Germany, they would only be represented by one person instead of being represented by six persons?—I have no reason to think that our figures are so faulty as that.

93417. I was only thinking it is a possible element to increase the percentage of attendance in England?—Quite so. I think it is really very difficult to be absolutely certain about the completeness of these statistics, for the reasons I have mentioned.

ation 93418. (Mr. Patten-MacDougall.) Do you happen to have any statistics about continuation schools in Scotland?—I have not them on this particular point. But, speaking broadly, there is the same tendency in Scotland as in England. The advance of continuation schools in the last three years has lain in the great improvement of the more specialised technical classes, and though there has not been exactly stagnation, there has been a want of encouraging growth in those introductory classes which are specially appropriate to boys and girls who have just left school. There is one more thing which I should like to add with reference to the point which Mrs. Webb has raised. In England we are so fortunate as to have a great variety of voluntary effort in the care of young people of this age; for instance boys' and girls' clubs. Only a small part of those clubs have classes which are inspected by the State, but we ought not to ignore the fact that the educational value of the work of those clubs is very great, and although there is no means for a statistical comparison, I think there is no doubt that the amount of voluntary effort with young people is greater in England than it is in Germany.

Attendance at continuation classes in England and Germany compared. 93419. (Mrs. Webb.) The net result is greater in Germany; if you take the compulsory effort of Germany you get more effort on the whole?—The attendance at classes under Government inspection in the places where I have been able to make the comparison is, as those figures have shown, larger in Germany than it is in England.

Increasing tendency in Germany to hold continuation classes in working hours and not in leisure hours. 93420. Would that enable you to say distinctly that there was more absorption of the leisure of the young boy and girl in Germany than there is in England?—The danger of having systematic intellectual work at the end of a long days' course has been borne in upon the organisers of German education, and the Prussian Minister for Industry and Commerce in an official Order issued, I think, last year, declares that he will not recognise any new continuation classes unless they are held in the daytime or in the late afternoon. There is no doubt that the vast majority of German continuation classes are still held in the evening, but the whole set of opinion is towards putting them into the day time; and in future the Prussian Minister proposes to discourage the recognition of Sunday classes.

93421. Then the continuation classes take the place of work, not of leisure?—Increasingly. One of the bases of it is the Imperial Law of Industry, June 1st, 1891, Sections 120, 142 and 150. Employers of labour are required to grant to those of their employees under eighteen years of age, who attend a continuation school arranged by the Government or by the local authority, the necessary time for school attendance as prescribed by the authority in question.

93422. (Chairman.) Does that limit the number of hours they can work?—Is there any arbitrary limitation or is it merely that they have to find time?—They have to find time. Section 142, I think, answers your question: "By the by-law of a district or town council, attendance at continuation schools can be made compulsory for male persons"—since 1900 for females also—"under eighteen years. The regulations necessary to enforce compulsory regular attendance at such schools may be fixed by the local authority, and the duties of pupils, parents, guardians and employers may be so defined as to ensure the regular attendance, the discipline, and the orderly behaviour of the pupils." The attendance is fixed by the local authority after consultation with those who employ in the trade.

93423. Talking of voluntary efforts, there are in England a good many what I may call voluntary technical schools which are supported by employers?—Yes.

93424. Would the figures that you give include those who attend those schools?—Yes, in so far as they come under Government inspection, which is nearly always the case.

93425. In Germany is there anything of the same kind, that employers have technical schools for their own particular trade or business?—Yes. In many parts of Germany, I am not sure it is not the case in all, all the employers of a particular trade in a particular district are formed into an association and that is taken as one of the units of the organisation of continuation classes.

93426. They do not start their schools on their own behalf for their own particular trade individually?—I cannot answer that question universally, but as a general rule it is now being done by the local education authority.

93427. You have given us, I think, all the figures that you propose now about Germany, have you not?—It might be of interest to you to hear the results of inquiries we have just finished as to the application of this system of compulsory continuation schools to the textile districts in Germany. One of the points I hoped to mention was the objection to the half-time system in the textile trade, and the difficulty of getting day attendance in our English textile districts.

93428. Is the textile trade in Saxony or the whole of Germany?—A good deal in Saxony. There is a good deal in Alsace-Lorraine; there is now a good deal of it in Berlin. We took several centres of the textile industry including Colmar, Mülhausen, Chemnitz, Crefeld, Plauen, Elberfeld, Barmen, Meerane, Augsburg, Berlin and Forst. Those are the chief textile towns in Germany. The attendance at continuation schools is now compulsory for boys to the end of their sixteenth year at Plauen; to the end of their seventeenth year at Chemnitz, Crefeld, Elberfeld, Barmen, Meerane, Augsburg, Berlin, and Forst; and up to the end of their eighteenth year at Colmar and Mülhausen. At Plauen, it is also compulsory for girls up to the end of the sixteenth year. Factory employees within the age limits of compulsory attendance leave the mills early in order to attend the continuation classes between the hours of 5 p.m. and 7 p.m. or 8 p.m. at Colmar, Elberfeld, Meerane and Augsburg; so they are actually sent away from the mills early. Continuation classes are held during work hours for shifts of younger mill hands at Mülhausen, Plauen, Barmen and Chemnitz, and the amount of attendance required at these classes is three times a week at Mülhausen and Meerane; four times a week at Colmar, Chemnitz, Crefeld, Plauen, Elberfeld, Berlin and Forst; and six times a week at Baden and Augsburg. The system of compulsory attendance is reported as working satisfactorily, and as meeting with the approval of the employers and workers at Colmar, Mülhausen, Chemnitz, Crefeld, Plauen, Elberfeld, Augsburg and Forst. At Barmen at first there was grumbling, but the arrangements are working well now. That, I think, means that a system of compulsory attendance at industrial and continuation schools, which began in those regions of Germany where the small master workman is still strong, has spread through the influence of the State and public opinion to the factory districts, and is now being actually tried in the mills.

93429. Are you able to say whether this extension of continuation schools has been carried out without much opposition from the employers in Germany, or have they opposed it steadily?—There has always been a minority of persons opposing; but the motive power for the change has come from the employing class. The employed class has had singularly little to do with it. I cannot find a single case in Germany in which on the local education committee which is charged with the special duty of organising continuation classes the associations of the employed have any representatives at all.

93430. It is all the employers?—It has been done by the employers plus expert central government.

93431. May we not assume from that that the employer recognises the benefit to the trade?—Yes; and I believe though I do not feel sure about this, that it is an effort on the part of the small master workman, by developing his own scientific power, and the dexterity and adaptive

Technical schools supported by employers, in England and in Germany.

Compulsory attendance system in textile trade centres in Germany.

Attitude of employers in Germany to continuation schools.

Probable origin of continuation school system in Germany.

skill of his men, to hold his own in the economic struggle with the product of the factory system; and that historically that is the origin of the whole system in Germany.

93432. That is very interesting; it is the small masters? —I feel I cannot say that is absolutely certain, but the beginning of the whole of the system of compulsory attendance at continuation schools in Germany was in South Germany, not in North. It began in Württemberg, in Saxony, Baden and Bavaria; it spread very much later, within the last ten years almost, into the factory districts. Those southern parts of Germany are the centres of the old medieval industrial tradition, where the medieval guild still persists in a changed form, and it was the desire to equip themselves for the struggle with England industrially, and subsequently a desire to ward off from Germany the bad effects of the factory system, that seems to me to have lain behind this very remarkable development of State supervision.

93433. (*Mrs. Webb.*) Might I ask whether the small master in Germany corresponds at all to our small master? The small master in England so very often does the worst part of the trade, the least skilled. Do the small masters in Germany do a different part of the trade?—In such a city as Munich some of the best and most intelligent people in the industry are the small master workmen.

93434. You would admit that is different from England, would you not, or what is your experience?—I am not sure about all trades; but I imagine that the great change of the industrial revolution was to divert that kind of power to the organisation of industry on factory lines.

93435. They do not seem to be an analogous class?—No.

93436. (*Chairman.*) You have given us two causes for this improvement, one was their desire to compete with us, and the other to eradicate or diminish the evil of factory production?—Another set of conditions which has made this development possible in Germany ought to be mentioned. Owing to the requirements of compulsory military service and instant mobilisation, the whereabouts of every adult male is known day by day to the authorities; and that knowledge on the part of the police or municipal authorities of the whereabouts of every person forms a convenient basis for extending the supervision of the State during adolescence for educational purposes. In Germany during the last summer I happened to see a good deal of Dr. Kerschensteiner, who has organised the whole or the continuation school system of Munich; and he told me there is no question of difficulty in Munich because the police know all about everybody.

93437. Do you know whether the individual has to keep his domicile registered, or is it the duty of the police? Is there a penalty on the individual if he goes away from where he is domiciled without giving notice?—I should like to ascertain that, if I may, so as to give the answer correctly; but substantially it comes to this: you may not move about without giving notice of your movement. Of course, when you are staying in Germany, after you have been there a certain time, you are regularly visited by the police, and you have to give notice of your arrival in a new place. Again, the German mind seems to me to be more disposed than the English mind is at present to look up to the authority as its adviser. I do not think that is wholly good.

93438. (*Mrs. Webb.*) Is it wholly bad?—No; I think the facts point to there being two different ideals of life. So far as I can find out, and I have tried to make a dispassionate investigation of it, the general results of this system of compulsory attendance at industrial and other continuation schools are regarded with general, though not with universal, approval in Germany. I have myself questioned every boy whom I have been able to find who has gone through the process, and I never yet found a boy who has not said it has been a good thing.

93439. (*Chairman.*) What is the conclusion you draw from that: that we have to proceed very tentatively here?—Very. A number of things have happened within the last year which I think give us much reason for encouragement. People are just beginning to realise that education is a national concern; that it should not be stratified according to, broadly speaking, rather vague social classes, but that it is really an aspect of national

life, and that it must have a very much closer relation to industrial efficiency, and also to the sense of social obligation, than it has had before.

93440. What evidence have you in support of those two propositions? Do you think that feeling pervades any but a rather limited class?—It has been my duty during the last three years, to make on behalf of nine of the local education authorities in England very close investigation into the social and economic conditions of their areas with a view to advising them as to their general educational policy.

93441. Both elementary and continuation?—The whole. When I began, my special task was to advise in regard to higher and secondary education, which included continuation schools and technical schools; but it was necessary also to have regard, in a broad way, to the elementary schools as well. That has given me the opportunity of living in a curiously varied number of districts in England in the last three years, and permission to consult, privately and otherwise, men and women in every station of life, and often to obtain from them very valuable and intimate advice. The districts that I have worked in are Liverpool and Birkenhead, Newcastle-on-Tyne, Huddersfield, Sheffield, the county of Essex, Derbyshire, Hampshire and Exeter; thus it happens that I have had the opportunity of studying industrial and commercial, maritime, agricultural and extra-metropolitan districts; and what I venture to say is the outcome, really, of that period of study.

93442. Did you come in contact with the wage-earners below the skilled classes?—Yes; I tried, as far as my time allowed (I always lived in the places) to consult casually and otherwise persons in every kind of occupation.

93443. So that really what you put forward before us is not your own ideas, but you believe you are accurately representing the views of those with whom you came in contact while on your inquiry?—Yes; I do not mean to say that all the people have formed in their minds this conception that education is a national thing, but it really comes to that.

93444. (*Mrs. Webb.*) It is a feeling of greater obligation about education?—Yes, a greater sense of its importance. You will remember in "The Borough" Crabbe describes the schools at the beginning of the 18th century, and he begins by saying:—"To every class we have a school assigned, Rules for all ranks, and food for every mind." That was really the English ideal of education; the education of the poor was a matter of charity, and a very meagre stint, too; the education of the highly born was largely one of manners; and the education of the middle classes became a subject for struggle between contending parties, and was to a large extent a matter of private enterprise. What has happened during the last ten years in England is that we are beginning to feel that the thing is one whole, and that has opened a new idea to people, it has opened before people's view a new idea of the significance of education for the mass of the people. Then, in the second place new stress has been laid on the importance of the physical side of education, not simply upon physical training during school time, but upon better feeding, better air, and also the better preparation of girls to improve the conditions of home life for their children. There has also been in the last five years a great awakening on the part of the more intelligent employers as to the power of education to increase the adaptiveness and even the trustworthiness of their workpeople.

93445. Do they think it has already increased it? Do they feel that is based on actual experience?—I think I can answer that exactly. Perhaps I ought to explain that the two inquiries on the special point you asked me to give evidence upon, have been these: One was made from the Department of Education of the University of Manchester; it extended over three years, and ended last November; and the other is the one Mr. Acland has spoken of. In the Manchester University inquiry we communicated with a large number of employers under different categories of trade, and the result was this: We found that out of sixteen railway companies, fourteen either gave direct assistance towards the fees of their apprentices attending continuation classes, or otherwise aided them; that out of a total of thirty-four engineering and shipbuilding firms, eighteen excused some day work to their apprentices in order to allow of their attending

Mr. Michael E. Sadler.

4 Feb. 1908.

New feeling amongst all classes in England about education.

New ideas on education.

Attitude of employers towards questions of education of their workpeople.

Mr. Michael
E. Sadler.

4 Feb. 1908.

Attitude of
employers
towards
questions of
education of
their work-
people.

technical classes. Out of twenty-two other firms, chosen from all kinds of industries, nine excused day work to apprentices or other employees to allow of attendance at technical classes in the day time, and seventeen out of the twenty-two gave encouragement in other forms to their young people to attend; and with few exceptions all the firms who supplied us with this information are satisfied that the attendance at continuation schools, where the school has been suitably taught and suitable in curriculum, has been very beneficial to their work. In one case, almost the only case in England where compulsion has been tried on a systematic scale for many years (I mean at Messrs. Brunner, Mond & Co.'s, at Northwich) we have absolute evidence, from the people concerned, on the point that you mentioned.

93446. (Chairman.) When you say "compulsion" is it compulsory on the employees?—Yes, at Messrs. Brunner, Mond & Co.'s. there are special arrangements that all youths, not apprentices only, under the age of nineteen, shall attend the evening school at least nine times out of every ten that the school is open.

93447. You mean their school in their workshop?—In Northwich?

93448. No, in their works?—No; they go to school at Northwich, and many of them go to Widnes. The attendance at Widnes of young people during the years when they have just finished their elementary school course is 80 per cent. in the case of the boys. That is the highest in England; and the reason is that Messrs. Gossage and the United Alkali Co., who are the chief employers there, have made attendance compulsory, and that has started the custom in Widnes. Then to answer the question that has just been asked about what the effect is, the works manager reports: "Up to the present we have gained in two things: first, better understanding of a mechanical drawing; secondly, greater ability in setting out work. As regards No. 1, up to a few years ago very few mechanics understood a drawing, and still fewer could make a hand sketch to illustrate an idea. Many of our lads now show great ability in hand sketching with chalk or pencil, and can be employed in measuring up for alterations and repairs, placing their measurements in an understandable form on paper. They all can grasp the meaning of an engineering drawing. As regards No. 2, amongst the fitters, boilermakers, and smiths, we have certainly felt the improvement in a marked manner. To give an instance. Take a repair to a connecting rod end, the smith shows markedly greater ability in making correct allowances for fitting shop work, and when the rough forging comes to the machine tool, the fitter can mark it off to a drawing, or gauge and set up in the machine almost without assistance. It used to be the most difficult of all things to teach an apprentice to set up his work, but now in many cases it comes to him naturally. Amongst the young men who are now in the works, and who only attended the evening school classes, I have some exceedingly clever men, and men who take an interest in the work for the work's sake. I consider that our younger generation of mechanics show a marked improvement both in ability and keenness for work, and it is a pleasure to deal with many of them on account of the interest they display." That is almost exactly the kind of evidence that we have got over and over again in Germany as the result of requiring attendance at such classes.

Deteriorating
forms of
boy and girl
labour.

93449. Have you any evidence at all as to its result on unskilled labour?—I have been making inquiries with a view to ascertaining how far it is true that these deteriorating forms of boy and girl labour are increasing relatively to the population; but this Commission would know so much more about the subject than I that it is not necessary for me to offer evidence upon it.

93450. If we are individually fairly well informed, it is because we have had good witnesses before us. Perhaps you will give us your contribution?—I find it very difficult to form any statistical judgment as to whether these deteriorating forms of boy and girl labour are absolutely increasing, or whether more public attention has been directed to them, and that therefore we are noticing them more.

93451. Would you describe what you mean by "deteriorating forms"? Would you take the very cheap factory work which is mechanical, and which generally

results in persons, when they become adult, being turned off, or are you taking the casual street employment: forms of newspaper boys and messenger boys, and so on?—I think that under these heads some of the most demoralising employments for boys are those which come under the Census return of messengers. In the second place, the results on boys and girls of half-time employment in a textile factory are bad. We have made a special inquiry into that; I simply summarise the conclusion that it is socially deteriorating and physically deteriorating. Thirdly there is a considerable employment in the Government service (postal and other) of young boys who are turned off at the close of adolescence, never having been trained for skilled work. There is also a considerable amount of uneducative employment of youths in a number of other trades, but I found it extremely difficult to prove that the amount of such employment is increasing. The only two cases in the Census where I have been able really to gauge increase or decrease are these. The reference in the Census summary is to "messengers, porters, watchmen, not railway or Government." The number of persons, boys and girls, under fifteen employed as messengers, porters, watchmen, not in railway or Government service, in England and Wales shows an increase of 74.6 per cent. during the decade 1881-1891, and another 66 per cent. in the decade 1891-1901, though the increase in the population during the same decennia was respectively only 11.65 and 12.17.

93452. What was the initial figure, because as you know percentages are a little misleading, it might have been a small figure?—Boys, 1881: 45,114; 1891, 78,169; 1901, 128,787, all between ten and fifteen. The number of girls is much smaller; nearly all the messengers are boys, the girls are only 3.5 of the total. The number of boys and girls engaged as messengers between 1881 and 1901 has nearly trebled. There are more under fifteen now than the full total in 1881. Then I take Government messengers under fifteen, the numbers of which are very much smaller; the boys were 1,831 in 1881; 4,412 in 1891; and 7,684 in 1901, which is an increase of 141.2 per cent. in the earlier decade, and 73.1 per cent. in the second. I tried to make the same calculation for other trades, but the difficulty, as the Commission probably know, is this: The Census tables show the number of boys and girls in the different occupations under each individual year of age up to fifteen, but they do not show the numbers under each individual year of age beyond fifteen; you get a five years group. In order to determine statistically whether boys and girls are taken on and then dropped at the close of adolescence, we must have the figures separately for each year of age during the period from fifteen to twenty. I venture to think it would be a very great gain to our knowledge if in the next Census it were decided to extend up to twenty, or at any rate to eighteen, that classification under each individual year of age, which is already made in respect of the five years from ten to fifteen. It would be a small change, but it is really essential if we are to have exact knowledge of what is going on in this respect. The figures which I have mentioned are the only ones in the Census which give clear proof of the rapid growth in the last twenty years of what I have called deteriorating employment. But there is no doubt what the general impression is. In our Manchester Inquiry into this question of continuation schools we got very careful and elaborate replies from ninety-seven persons with an average experience of from seven to eight years of work in continuation schools. Sixty-five of them worked in cities, twenty lived in small towns, and twelve in country districts; and almost universally those whose work had lain in industrial and commercial centres drew attention to the danger of these deteriorating occupations during adolescence.

93453. What class of person would they be usually? Would all these ninety-seven be much the same, or would any of them be connected with the wage-earning class?—A good many of them are related by family to the wage-earning class, they are mostly teachers in elementary schools, not wholly, but all of them are persons engaged in continuation school work. We wanted to get first-hand knowledge. Then we sent some very highly skilled investigators to different parts of England; and the point upon which you asked me to give evidence, the existence of this deteriorating boy

Increase of
boy and girl
labour.

Difficulty of
making
accurate
calculations
as to boy
and girl
labour from
census
tables.

Evidence
in general
as to serious
extent of
deteriorating
boy and girl
labour.

labour, was impressed upon us in regard to London by our special investigator, and by the other investigators who made inquiries in Leeds, St. Helen's, Bootle and Liverpool. In the Consultative Committee Enquiry we have had forty-five witnesses, and we have specific evidence of deteriorating boy labour, and to some extent deteriorating girl labour, in different parts of Scotland, in London, Manchester, Liverpool and other towns. So there is no doubt that the existence of the evil is very widely felt. But it is desirable to ascertain whether the evil is really increasing or not; yet, except so far as proof is given by the figures which I have quoted, I cannot found a theory on any firm statistical basis.

93454. There is nothing against the theory either one way or the other; it is a sort of inchoate mass of figures which does not enable you to come to any conclusion?—I am quite sure the evil is very serious, and I suspect that in the large cities it is a growing evil; but whether it is relatively increasing in proportion to the total mass of employment is a matter that does not seem to be capable of statistical proof at present except in certain cases.

93455. (*Mrs. Webb.*) It is not of much importance, is it, if it is really very great, whether it is increasing or not?—I confess I sometimes have very serious fears about this aspect of the factory system—whether certain developments of machinery are not making it profitable to sub-divide the process largely by automatic machinery or to divide it into small bits which a boy can easily learn, and then when the boy comes to demand a man's wages to turn him off and replace him with another. There is no doubt that there are certain parts of certain trades in which this plan is being practised now, for example, in some branches of electrical and mechanical engineering.

93456 (*Chairman.*) It is a modern development of what has been long in existence, but has very much increased of recent years?—Probably.

93457. The figures that you have given us relate only to the messenger employment, and, as I understand, you have not been able to get any figures dealing with the second part of this question, namely, the employment of juvenile labour in factories under conditions which result in their discharge when they come to adolescent age?—Not from the Census, because there is very little employment relatively under fifteen, which is the maximum age up to which we can show the figure under each individual year of age. We really want to know the number of young people of each sex employed in each group of occupations under each individual year of age up to twenty.

93458. Might I put this question, which will perhaps a little elucidate what you have been saying? Did any of your investigators tell you, from their knowledge and information received, that a boy on leaving school had no difficulty whatsoever in big towns in getting this class of employment?—Yes; that is almost the universal testimony, and it has several results. It gives the boy during adolescence relatively a large amount of pocket-money, which makes him independent of home control or largely independent of home control; and in the second place accustoms him to a certain standard of personal expenditure which it is difficult to maintain later.

93459. I suppose you would go further and say that it makes regular employment under strict conditions subsequently very distasteful?—Yes. Many of these boys lose the habit of learning; they get very quick, but they lose the habit of steady application. Here is rather an interesting case. Mr. Kittermaster, who is the head of the Shrewsbury School Settlement at Liverpool, was going to read a paper on Boy Labour and Unemployment at a Congress, and he went round the boys in his class to get facts from them out of their own lives. One boy, finding out what he wanted, said: "I will write you an essay on unemployment." He sat down, asked for a pen, and actually wrote this little essay on the subject: "There would not be half so many unemployed men walking about the streets of our large towns as there are now, if those men, when they were boys, had been apprenticed to some suitable trade." This is a boy who had gone all through it, and whose father was of the same type. "There are at present in Liverpool many boys who work at coalyards for seventy-

six hours weekly, and also errand boys who work nearly as many hours as the above mentioned . . . By-and-by, as they grow older, they just begin to realise their folly of not trying to get a situation in which they might have learnt a trade that would have been of some use to them in after life, instead of having to go out and swell the ranks of the unemployed. Many of the boys in Liverpool, as soon as they leave school, first look out for a job as a printer's errand boy. After a while they get tired of that particular job, and they either get dismissed or they leave. They go on like this for a long time, until (say) they are about eighteen years of age, and at that age they are too big to work as errand boys, and they get jobs as dock labourers, or some join the Army or Navy." That is actually a document written by the boy himself. I have analysed—though I do not want to lay very much stress upon it—the statistics in the returns of the proceedings of distress committees under the Unemployed Workmen Act in the two returns that have been issued, taking groups of towns geographically in order to see whether the percentage of entertained applicants under thirty years of age has been increasing or decreasing in the year ended March 31st, 1907, as compared with the preceding period (not a year in all cases) which we are able to compare with it. Apart from the fact that the percentage of the entertained applicants who were employed in casual and general labour has increased in the later as compared with the earlier period and is now 52·2 of the total number of applicants, the number of those who are under thirty years of age is striking in nearly all districts. The figures are given in the Memorandum of my evidence. I took a number of selected districts, taking London and the suburbs, the chief towns in Lancashire and Cheshire, towns in the West Riding, towns on the north-east coast, towns in the midlands, towns in South Wales, towns in the west of England, towns on the south coast, and towns in the east. The table shows what the percentage was in each of the two periods, and whether it has increased or decreased.

93460. You have told us there is an increase in one sense; is there an increase in the number under thirty?—Yes. The figures are for London and the whole of England. Up to March 31st, 1906, which is a period of irregular length from the establishment of the Committees, 27·3 per cent. were under thirty; and for the twelve months ending March 31st, 1907, the percentage was 30·2, an increase of 2·9 per cent. In some of the towns I do not understand the differences. For instance, at Bournemouth in the early period the percentage of entertained applicants under thirty was 48·3, but in the twelve months which ended on March 31st last, it was 28·05. Therefore, it looks to me as though the figures must afford a rather doubtful basis upon which to found any firm generalisation.

93461. (*Mrs. Webb.*) We have had special information about Bournemouth?—The worst case that I came across anywhere—and I think I have taken nearly all the chief towns—was Warrington. The percentage of entertained applicants under thirty in Warrington in the period ending March 31, 1906, was 42·3 and in the following twelve months it was 66, an increase of 23·7 per cent. It is not too much to say that the whole return throws a serious light upon the points which you ask me to answer.

93462. (*Chairman.*) Now do you want to say anything more about the disease which you have diagnosed?—I should like to associate myself with what Mr. Acland said about the very great desirability of improving the conditions under which teachers and pupils in the public elementary schools do their work. Need of improving atmospheric conditions in elementary schools.

93463. I think we have dealt with that; I think you have established clearly a case that calls for treatment, and somewhat drastic treatment. Now we should like to ask you about remedies. I understand that first and foremost you would put compulsory attendance at continuation schools?—I think I should hardly put that first.

93464. Put it just in your own order then?—I have not come to a conclusion about it, but I have a feeling that what is really wrong is something in our economic structure generally, that is to say, that something much more than an educational change is necessary. But I would like to confine myself to the educational part of the remedy, which I think is capable of being made one of Educational charges necessary.

Mr. Michael
E. Sadler.

4 Feb. 1908.

Educational
charges
necessary.

great importance. So far as the educational change is concerned, I believe that the most important thing for us to do is to extend to elementary schools the present regulation as to the size of classes which operates in secondary schools. By the Government Regulations for Secondary Schools, Chapter 2, Section 13 (a), the number of scholars taught together at one time must not, as a rule, exceed thirty, and must in no case exceed thirty-five. It is not possible for the teachers to individualise the pupils, or really to make hand work and practical work an effective part of the training, if they have each more than thirty or thirty-five children to deal with. Then in the second place, every encouragement should be given by the Board of Education to the local authorities in extending the opportunities for a liberal secondary education and in prolonging the period of professional training for teachers. In the third place, the hygienic conditions of a very large number of the elementary schools seriously need improvement.

93465. May I go back to the teachers? At present, are persons who are trained in secondary schools eligible for teaching in elementary schools?—Yes. By the recent changes of the Board of Education, intending elementary school teachers are encouraged to spend four years during adolescence in a secondary school.

93466. Must a man have passed through an elementary school in order to become a teacher in an elementary school?—No; but the vast majority of teachers will naturally have done so. Then I am inclined to think that we should gain a great deal in England by substituting for our present very complex arrangement of by-laws (which have necessarily grown up, as you were saying to Mr. Acland, by slow degrees) the arrangement which was introduced into Scotland by the Education Act of 1901. That has all the merits of simplicity. Under it, it is the duty of every parent to provide efficient elementary education in reading, writing and arithmetic for his children who are between five and fourteen, the leaving age being fourteen; special exemption may be given by a school board to children between twelve and fourteen. But every exemption has to be recorded and if the Scottish Education Department feel that exemptions are being given on insufficient grounds, they may interfere and may penalise the authority by reducing the grant. The result is, that in 1905, the last year for which I have got the figures, of all the children between twelve and fourteen years of age, only 4 per cent. were exempted. So practically with a few exceptions the Scottish school age is now extended to fourteen. In many cases, for example in Glasgow, any child who is so exempted is required to attend evening school until the age of fourteen. I should like myself to substitute for our complex system of by-laws this perfectly simple and well-working Scottish Act, and thus to get a straight selva of elementary school life to work from. That puts very shortly the chief changes which I should like to see in the elementary schools as a foundation for further reforms in the education given during the years of adolescence.

Importance
of making
curriculum in
elementary
schools more
humane.

93467. Of course, that is a little outside our subject. You would to a certain extent alter the curriculum to make it rather more practical?—Yes, but it is very important to keep it humane, and to make it more humane than it is. The real benefit which elementary education can render in helping to solve the problem which you are considering, is not only in increasing technical dexterity and adaptiveness, but in giving a certain alertness of mind and a sense of social responsibility and a new ideal of life.

Need of
increased
manual
instruction.

93468. Would you agree with what Mr. Acland said about manual instruction?—Yes. I think it is really almost impossible to develop the brain all round unless you develop it through the training of the hand as well as through the training of memory and speech.

93469. Mr. Acland pointed out the system of manual training he would suggest, and said it should be begun somewhat earlier in the schools?—He speaks with great knowledge about it, and so far as I have knowledge of the subject I associate myself with what he says.

Question of
compulsory
continuation
schools in
England.

93470. Coming on now to the question of continuation schools, this proposal was made as regards Scotland and so far as you know it was fairly well received?—Yes, that is so. I have myself made personal inquiries in Glasgow, Edinburgh and Dunfermline, and I have found

that opinion is much riper in Edinburgh and Dunfermline than it is in Glasgow for the adoption of this permissive clause.

Question of
compulsory
continuation
schools in
England.

93471. What do you think would happen, and what would be the state of public opinion, if it was proposed to apply it to England?—I believe it to be the next step which it will be wise to take, but we in England need first, I think, a period of discussion and propaganda; and the publication of the Bill as the Scottish Bill was published, with a view to discussion rather than to immediate enactment, would be a useful thing.

93472. I assume you also want a statement of the cause necessitating this alteration or reform in the law?—I am not quite sure that I have understood you.

93473. You have given us most important evidence to-day about it, and I understand one of the correctives of the state of things which you find is to enforce compulsory attendance for a longer period at school than now exists. The facts that you have been stating to us to-day as to the large proportion of boys who are leaving school to take up profitable or deteriorating employment (thus eventually drifting into the unemployed) I do not think are generally known; therefore, would not a statement of the case for the Bill have a very considerable effect on public opinion?—I think it would. I am not at all anxious that, so far as actual legislation goes, we in England should move hurriedly in the matter. There is much inertia to be overcome. The public does not realise the extent of the evil which is being done. Discussion will throw light upon the question. Opinion will ripen as the facts are disclosed. I judge from my own case. What we have found out during these three years' inquiry has made me realise the evil much more vividly than I did before, and has prepared my mind for extensive action which I did not previously realise to be necessary. Similarly, I think, the public generally will be drawn to similar conclusions when the facts of the case are better known.

93474. (Mrs. Webb.) Is there ever any practical danger of moving too fast in England?—I did not mean that. I want to move as fast as is possible, only I think that the best way of securing effective public action in England is to convince the people, and we can convince them partly by studying the matter and publishing the results of our study, and then by pushing the points home by meetings and agitation.

93475. (Chairman.) Very much as compulsory attendance was obtained in the elementary schools?—Quite so.

93476. It was not universal at first?—That is so.

93477. You would not advocate a proposal suggesting universal compulsory attendance, would you?—Most certainly I should advocate giving the local authority permissive power to adopt an Act on the Scottish lines, but I should like to see a double Government grant offered to those districts which adopted bye-laws making attendance at continuation schools compulsory. I believe if you doubled the grants for continuation school attendance paid to any district which made attendance compulsory for boys or girls up to seventeen, you would very soon get a considerable number of districts to act. Opinion is forming in that direction. I would justify such action on the ground that it would be a very great national benefit to increase the efficiency of the people by this improved education. If, however, attendance at continuation schools is made obligatory, it will be found that great improvements must be made in the teaching staff. Too many of the teachers in evening schools are already tired by their day-work. Again, each local authority should regard the problem of day and evening education as one thing. No teacher ought to be allowed to teach in the morning, afternoon and evening sessions. Two sessions in any one day should be the limit.

93478. You have had a very long experience in connection with educational work; would you mind stating of what it was? For a great many years you were connected with the Education Department as one of the heads?—On leaving Oxford I was connected with the University Extension Movement up to 1895, and then I became Director of Special Inquiries and Reports at the Board of Education; and since 1903 I have been Professor of the History and Administration of Education at the University of Manchester.

Experience
of witness.

93479. So these enquiries to which you allude have already been spread over more than ten years?—That is so; but only within the last three years have I ever closely studied this continuation school question.

93480. Is there anything more you would like to add on this particular point?—No.

93481. (*Mrs. Webb.*) Might we ask you to say something about industrial schools in your memorandum?—Certainly. The old English tradition of elementary education is that you ought to train people through the hand for industry. The French Revolutionary tradition was that you ought to enable them to read books in order to bring about political change with a view to improving their condition. We have had in England, two parallel and concurrent traditions of elementary education—one in the industrial schools which are one outcome of the characteristically English view of education, and the other in the ordinary elementary schools which were, in part, the outcome of the revolutionary movement at the end of the eighteenth century. The latter had the defect of being too bookish, and the other had the defect of being too utilitarian. The tendency of all educational thought during the last few years has been to fuse those two traditions and to show that each has something to learn from the other. Efforts are being made to correct the bookishness of the public elementary school by the practical work of the industrial school; and to enlarge the utilitarian work of the industrial school by the humane and stimulating elements found in the more literary education of the other. There is every sign that those two tendencies are melting into one another all over the world.

93482. Has not the industrial school been a good deal injured by its association with a sort of servile pauper idea?—Yes, because it is the direct outcome of the period when people thought the elementary school was only a matter of charity and closely related with the Poor Law.

93483. Would it not be of great advantage to hand all industrial and pauper schools over to the education authority?—I do not think I know enough to answer that question. Through the work of Mr. Legge, who is now at Liverpool, and who was the Inspector of Industrial and Reformatory Schools under the Home Office, a great improvement was made in the intellectual outlook of the industrial schools. Now he is carrying his experience into the Liverpool elementary schools, and trying, with the authority of the local education committee, very important experiments in practical work in the elementary schools.

93484. (*Mr. Patten-MacDougall.*) Both Mr. Acland and yourself, I think, have spoken about the physical deterioration of these schools owing to bad ventilation, insanitary conditions and other conditions, as I understand it. I think in the Bill to which you have referred, the Scottish Bill, there was a clause, was there not, providing for the medical examination of the children in schools, and that medical examination, I suppose it is within your knowledge, does now exist in the Edinburgh board schools?—I do not know about that.

93485. Is that the line you suggest for meeting what you say is a grave defect of the present system, namely, bad ventilation and bad sanitary conditions?—I think our study of the physical conditions of education will lead to great reforms. As I have been about from school to school, I have been very much impressed by the bad atmosphere of many of them. The points that Mr. Acland has referred to are the result of scientific investigation, reported to the consultation committee.

93486. There was a proposal in the Scottish Bill last year was there not, for the medical examination of all the pupils attending schools in Scotland?—I believe there was. I am sorry to say I did not bring my Bill with me, but there is one instance now at Dunfermline where it is helped by Mr. Carnegie. I think it is very important to bring all this continuation school work into close connection with the factories. At Messrs. Cadbury's, at Bournville, the boys and girls who are employed there have periods of physical training during work hours and I was very much struck in visiting these works with the beneficial results of that.

93487. Are the schools they attend on the premises or outside?—The evening schools which they attend are outside and are attended after work hours are done; but Messrs. Cadbury's have a splendid swimming-bath and a room for Swedish drill for the girls and another for the boys with a gymnasium.

93488. By "connection with the factories" do you mean that the instruction should at all be connected with the particular trade or business which they are associated with, or do you mean that it should fit into the hours?—I meant that it should fit into the hours as well as the other. If we are going practically to educate these young people in factories, the education will have to be given, to a considerable degree, in the daytime. At Messrs. Rowntree's all the girls receive two hours a week very practical training in household work and cooking, in shifts during work hours, in beautiful school-rooms built by the firm and by teachers who are employed all day and who are engaged by the firm. Then there is the very serious matter of the telegraph boys in the Government service, especially in the large towns. I would suggest that it might be found practicable in some of the big post offices in the large towns to have one or two rooms which would serve as schools where, with the help of the local education authority, these boys could receive appropriate education. There are 448 telegraph messenger boys at the Manchester Post Office; they are at a very critical period of their life, and it is very difficult to have them off in the daytime. As you know, most of them are paid by the job.

93489. (*Chairman.*) Are they not paid by the week?—No, most of them are paid by the message. It has been suggested to me that the best course would be to have a little continuation school in the Post Office, officered by the local education authority, for these boys, and that that would cause the least waste of time during their work. It has happened to me that I have been for several years in charge of a staff. At Christchurch I was in charge of a large staff of cooks and other persons, including apprentices, and I was very anxious to give these boys a better technical and general training. It would have been perfectly possible for us by arranging their hours of work to send those boys off in the daytime to a continuation class of that character. I think many people who are the heads of large offices could, if the duty was laid upon them by the State, so organise their work as to spare a boy at suitable hours for attendance while on day work. That is why I should like to see in England the obligation laid upon all employers to do this. I am sure that with a little organisation many firms, which now think they could not spare their boys, would be able to do so, and that they would gain much by the increased efficiency of the work. But I am bound to say that I have not yet found anybody in Lancashire who will say that the young people between fourteen and eighteen could be spared off during mill hours from the cotton mills.

93490. (*Mrs. Webb.*) Was there anyone in Lancashire who said that, when it was a question of the young people at nine being spared originally?—There was a little group of people to whom Robert Owen belonged, who always said it.

93491. (*Mr. Bentham.*) That is rather a different point. That was a question of whether they might be partly employed and partly excused, but your question relates to whole employment at that age. Half-time is recognised in Lancashire, but you would let them out when they are on full-time to attend the classes, at least, so I understand you?—Yes. It is really a double problem. Personally I think it will be possible to abolish half-time in the textile trades by two stages, first of all, making thirteen the minimum for total exemption, and then fourteen. Beyond that, if we are going to grapple with the educational needs of adolescence, these boys and girls who are in the mills from fourteen to eighteen ought, as it seems to me, to have part of their continuation work done in work hours and not in the evening. For some of the boys and girls the physical strain is not too great—for some of the boys at any rate; but if you are going to make the continuation school work intellectually severe, I think it will be necessary to do it partly in working hours or in the late afternoon.

Mr. Michael E. Sadler.

4 Feb. 1908.

Training of girls at Rowntree's. Problem of the telegraph boys.

Desirability of compelling employers to organise their work so as to give opportunities to boys and girls of instruction during day-time. Difficulties in regard to half-timers in cotton mills.

Mr. Michael E. Sadler. 93492. There is a great difficulty in following the processes of manufacture under such a system, is there not?—The reason I made an inquiry into the working of the system of compulsory attendance at continuation schools in the textile districts of Germany was to find out what they were doing there as compared with what we are doing here in England. Nobody seems to be in a position to compare thoroughly the real conditions in a German cotton-mill and in an English cotton-mill. I suspect that the conditions of work in the English mill are more severe than they are in the German mill.

Increased interest among the working-classes in the education of their children.

93493. (*Mrs. Webb.*) I understand that you are distinctly of opinion that there is an increased feeling of obligation about the education of children on the part of the better kind of artisan?—It is quite remarkable, and certainly it is growing year by year among the best artisans.

93494. Do you think it is extending downwards at all?—I think it is a very infectious thing.

93495. In your opinion the provision by the State of free education has not diminished the sense of parental responsibility about education?—That is a very many-sided question, and I should not like to venture on a short opinion about that.

93496. I gathered that you think the interest has increased?—The desire to get opportunity for their children has increased. What strikes me nearly everywhere is that people talk about what the State shall do for them, but very little about what they shall do for the State.

93497. But on the whole does it make them feel more or less responsible about their children?—It has made them more ambitious for their children.

93498. What you want to develop is a sense of the other side of the obligation?—Yes. I think that we can do a good deal more by means of teaching to make the younger generation feel that they owe personal service to the community, and I think that that is the real weakness, the psychological weakness, in our English position. So many people seem to regard the State as simply meaning the mass of well-to-do people—not themselves.

93499. You think you have already got a greater feeling of parental responsibility now, and you want to develop a feeling of obligation towards the State?—I did not go so far as to say I think there is a greater feeling of parental responsibility; I think it is so hard to generalise or to compare. I think there is a distinct increase of ambition for the children, and I desire that local public authorities should extend the opportunity.

93500. Does that accompany any capacity of the parents to make some sacrifices in order that the child shall enjoy the advantages offered by the community—because there is a good deal of sacrifice involved in permitting a child to continue its education?—I believe that there would be a willingness to make more sacrifices. It may interest the Commission to know how much has been done to extend the range of educational opportunity. Mr. Bompas Smith and I have during the last year been investigating the scholarship system which is giving such opportunity, and we find that £400,000 a year is spent in England alone on scholarships and in maintenance allowances.

93501. That is an enormous increase?—It is enormous.

93502. And practically it has all been done in fifteen years?—There have always been scholarships in England to a considerable amount, but the aggregate value has greatly increased since 1902.

Mr. JOHN H. ROBERTS, Mr. ARTHUR J. CROXFORD, and Mr. HENRY STONE, called and Examined.]

Mr. John H. Roberts, 93503. (*Chairman.*) You gentlemen appear on behalf of the Metropolitan Rate Collectors' Association, I think?—(*Mr. Roberts.*) Yes.

Mr. Arthur J. Croxford, 93504. You have prepared for us a Memorandum and certain replies to some questions which have been submitted to you?—Yes. (*The Witnesses handed in the following Statement*) :—

Mr. Henry Stone. In submitting the following memorandum upon the practicability of abolishing the Commission allowance to owners under Sections 3 and 4 of the Poor Rate Assessment and Collection Act, 1869, the Metropolitan Rate Collectors' Association respectfully desires to state that the remarks contained therein are not in any way put forward as being the views held upon the subject by any of the Metropolitan Borough Councils, but are prepared as the result of a discussion by the members of this association upon the probable economic effect such abolition would have upon the total amount of the rate collected.

1. It appears that either Section 3 or Section 4 is in operation in all the Metropolitan Boroughs with the exception of two, but the rates of Commission allowed vary from 5 to 25 per cent., and from 17½ to 25 per cent. under the respective sections.

2. In some Metropolitan Boroughs, where the abatement borders upon the maximum allowed by the sections, the whole of the proportion of the general rate allocated to the direct purposes of the Borough Councils is swallowed up, and the balance actually collected is not sufficient to satisfy the demands arising from the central authorities and the guardians of the poor, in respect of the properties for which the allowance is made.

3. One of the chief points to be considered in the event of the abolition of the sections appears to be what course the owners would take should application for the rate be made direct to the occupier.

A large number of houses in the metropolis let at inclusive weekly rentals are assessed at amounts of over £20 rateable value, and although the occupier is legally liable, and application is formally made to him for payment, yet the amount is almost invariably paid by the owner or his agent. Moreover, the rate collector is often requested by the owner to send the

several applications direct to him so that the tenant may not be inconvenienced.

In view of the action so generally taken in these cases, it appears probable that the owner would, in his own interests, carry out the terms of the contract with the tenant in regard to houses for which he now compounds, and pay the amount of rate due before the time arrives for the issue of summonses for its recovery, so that in actual practice the percentage of cases where the rate to be recovered from the occupier paying an inclusive weekly rental would be small.

This conclusion seems to be borne out by the action of the owner after a quinquennial revaluation. If, during the quinquennial period, such an increase in rent has occurred as to fully justify an increase in the rateable value to above £20, he generally proves amenable to circumstances and continues to discharge the usual outgoings just as when he received the compounding allowance.

4. There seems also to be somewhat of an anomaly when comparing the houses coming within the working of the sections and those outside. Two houses, each let at a weekly inclusive rental, have rateable values, one of £20 and the other of, say, £30. The owner of the first gets an abatement for compounding of anything up to 25 per cent. In the second case the rate is paid in full, and yet the general experience is that the smaller house is the more likely to command a reliable tenant, and will probably incur less loss of rent to the owner than the larger one; in fact, as a rule, houses at rateable values of £20 and under form one of the best letting classes of property in the metropolis.

5. On the other hand, there are some boroughs where many of the smaller houses (cottages rated at from £8 to £20) stand empty for a considerable portion of the year, and, moreover, are let to a migratory class of tenant, from whom it would be difficult, if not impossible, to recover the rate, experience proving that in very few cases are the effects sufficient to satisfy the warrant of distress. In such kinds of property it is hardly likely that the owner would take the same action with regard to the rate, and it would be incumbent upon the councils to go direct to the occupier. Here it would be necessary to adopt some such method as a monthly, or even weekly, collection of the rate. This would involve a very large increase

Likely of parent making more sacrifice for the education of children.

Probable course which owners would take should applications be made direct to occupiers for the rate.

in the cost of collection, in addition to the loss by reason of empties, and as this particular class of house prevails in certain defined localities (generally in districts upon the borders of the metropolitan area) the loss would fall very heavily upon the individual boroughs concerned.

The same conditions seem also to prevail in a considerable number of the large blocks of workmen's dwellings.

Losses of this nature the association considers must of necessity arise in respect of property of this class, for one reason on account of the difference in the legal procedure open to the owner, and that which has to be followed in the recovery of the general rate.

The owner may distrain at any moment when rent is owing, but the local authority has to issue a summons for the defaulter to appear before a justice of the peace or magistrate, and get a warrant signed before the distraint can be made. The length of time occupied by this process allows plenty of opportunity for the tenant to abscond, and that this often occurs seems specially borne out by the number of committal warrants issued in districts where direct collection from occupiers of small property is in vogue.

6. Another feature which will very largely influence the cost of direct collection is the question of the separate rating of tenement houses. Some metropolitan boroughs do not entertain a separate rating of tenements unless structurally severed, while others assess each separate letting. This, of course, means an enormous addition to the work and cost of collection, and although it will add largely to the total rateable value and the contributions to the Central Authorities, will not result in a correspondingly large increase in the total amount of rate collected, for occupiers of this description of tenement will probably prove the most difficult of any to recover from, not only by reason of the lack of effects, but also from the frequent alterations which take place in the number of rooms taken when changes of tenancy occur. The houses usually divided into separate tenements are those which, if assessed as a whole, would be of a rateable value considerably over £20, and this method of letting is largely adopted simply because the owner finds it difficult to secure a tenant sufficiently reliable or substantial to take the whole house. If however, the separate tenements are assessed according to the London County Council scale the total would represent a value considerably in excess of what the owner would be willing to take from a reliable yearly tenant, and although the councils would be paying upon the increased values, the losses from empties and irrecoverables would probably reduce the amount collected to that originally received from the one assessment.

The case *Davis v. Wallis* (Islington) will have a very important bearing upon this question when decided.

7. Having gone fully into the several aspects of the matter the association have come to the conclusion that taking the metropolis as a whole, the abolition of the compounding system would result in a considerable increase in the total of the rate collected, but that in certain specific districts if direct application to the occupiers is substituted, the loss from empties, increased cost of collection and irrecoverables, would be greater than the allowance for compounding.

8. If the association may be permitted, they would respectfully submit that measures somewhat on the following lines would serve as an alternative to the compounding sections.

That the owners of all houses let at weekly or monthly rentals, inclusive of rates, should be made liable for the payment of the rates.

That in computing the gross value of a house of this class a certain percentage (up to, say, 10 per cent.) varying according to local circumstances, be deducted from the gross rental before applying the scale laid down by the London County Council for calculating the gross value.

This is suggested as a means of putting the payment in respect of precepts levied on rateable value; and the actual amount collected upon the same basis, giving the owner some compensation for occasional loss of rent, but leaving the empties to be allowed for in the usual manner.

9. The association have also considered the probable effect the direct application for rates upon occupiers of this class would have in connection with the interest taken in local government affairs, and their experience at municipal elections leads them to the conclusion that the amount of interest taken depends almost entirely upon the activity of the local party organisations, and that personal interest without such influence would be practically nil.

Question I.—Is composition by owners for the payment of rates the rule in your districts?

*Answer I.—*In all boroughs with the exception of Islington and Lewisham.

Question II.—Is direct payment by occupiers (a) possible, and (b) advisable? If in your opinion it is impossible, would you kindly say on what grounds?

*Answer II.—*We hesitate to say that it is impossible, but the owner would have to be prohibited from discharging the rates where houses are let at inclusive rentals to make it practicable.

We are decidedly of opinion that it is inadvisable for the reasons stated in the Memorandum.

Question III.—Do variations in the rates effect rents where composition is the rule?

*Answer III.—*Yes. In many cases if the rates are increased owners raise the rents.

Question IV.—Can you trace any effect of the direct payment of rates by occupiers on the interest they take in local government; and what attitude do the occupiers of small properties take towards local government when they do not pay the rates directly?

*Answer IV.—*In our opinion the direct payment of rates would not induce occupiers to take any greater interest in local government. See paragraph 9 of the Memorandum.

Question V.—Have you any experience of a weekly collection of rates from occupiers? Would such be possible?

*Answer V.—*No experience in weekly collections. We do not think such collections possible to be attended with satisfactory results.

Question VI.—Assuming a weekly collection, would the cost be greater than the allowance now made for compounding?

*Answer VI.—*We believe that if a weekly collection were compulsory, and that if owners were not allowed to pay direct, the cost, with the consequent loss, would be greater than the abatement now allowed to owners.

Question VII.—Has the system of compounding any effect upon the value for rating purposes of the property compounded for?

*Answer VII.—*The system of compounding has no appreciable effect upon the value for rating purposes of the property compounded for.

Question VIII.—In the event of occupiers paying their rates direct, should an allowance be given for payment in advance?

*Answer VIII.—*An allowance for payment of rates in advance in the instances of direct payment would not be taken advantage of by those concerned often through want of means and also from the possibility of a weekly or monthly tenancy terminating before the close of the period the rate covers.

Question IX.—Does the practice of demanding payment of rates considerably in advance tell unduly on occupiers paying direct?

*Answer IX.—*We do not consider that the present system of collection of rates tells unduly on occupiers paying direct.

93505. (Chairman.) Speaking generally, you are not in favour of attempting to collect the rates weekly with the rents?—(Mr. Roberts.) No, we are not. We consider that would mean so great an increase in the expenditure that it would be hardly advisable, from an economical point of view, to introduce it in London.

93506. We rather want to look at it from two points of view—from the expenditure side, and also from the

Mr. John H. Roberts, Mr. Arthur J. Croxford, and Mr. Henry Stone.

4 Feb. 1908.

Probable effect of abolition of compounding on interest taken in municipal affairs.

Questions as to compounding system.

Question of separate rating of tenement houses, and its bearing on cost of collection.

conclusions

metropolitan the collectors' association suggested abolition of compounding system.

proposed alternative to compounding sections.

Objections to collecting rates weekly with the rents.

Mr. John
H. Roberts,
Mr. Arthur
J. Croxford,
and
Mr. Henry
Stone.

4 Feb. 1908.

Objections to
collecting
rates
weekly with
the rents.

social side. I quite understand that it would give a great deal more trouble, and I quite understand that it would be very unfair to attempt to put the weekly collection upon rate collectors when previously they had only had to collect from the landlord. But dismissing that, and looking at it simply as an abstract question, there is no insuperable difficulty except in certain cases in collecting the rates with rents where the rent is paid weekly; is there?—No; I think there is no insuperable difficulty in collecting weekly. But you see the present machinery of the landlord is so split up from what it was or would be with a collection by the rate collector. There are so many landlords, and it takes so short a time during the day for each landlord to collect his own rents, that many of the people who would be going out and would not be at home during the after part of the day, pay the landlord, but they would be away from their homes when the rate collector called.

93507. But could not the two be collected together?—The rent and the rates are now collected together.

93508. Could they not be collected together, and the man who collected on behalf of the landlord be held responsible for the payment of the rate?—That is exactly what we think is the most desirable point, and that is what is actually done now; the landlord pays in almost all cases.

93509. But the tenant or the occupier only pays in the shape of rent, which includes the rate; and it has been suggested to us that the two can be put separately and collected at the same time?—So as to show the exact amount of rates the tenant is paying?

93510. Yes, that practically was the idea. It is suggested in order that the tenant or the occupier may take an interest in local taxation and see that it does directly affect him, at least in many cases does when the rates rise. That is roughly the idea that is behind these questions. Now may I ask you, as representing the Metropolitan Rate Collectors' Association, whether rate collectors, as a rule, are whole time men?—Almost every one of them now is throughout the Metropolis; that is one of the conditions of appointment almost throughout the boroughs of London.

93511. Your entire business is collecting rates, I suppose?—Yes, and giving such information as is required by the overseers in making up parish lists, borough lists, and jury lists.

93512. I suppose none of you are employed by the Imperial Government for the collection of taxes?—I think with the exception of one in Deptford, there is not one in London now.

93513. It is contrary to practice, I suppose?—Quite contrary.

93514. Then as to the terms of your appointment, are yours permanent appointments?—Yes, now they are permanent appointments.

93515. I suppose there are a good many rate collectors who have held their offices for many years?—Yes. I have been for about sixteen years a collector, and I have been twenty-six years in the service of the borough, having spent about eleven years in the office before I became collector. Many other collectors have done as much, and one of my brother collectors has held the office for thirty odd years.

Difficulties of
collecting
rates by the
week.

93516. Where I understand there would be a difficulty about collecting the rates by the week, is in buildings which are divided into a number of tenements?—The greatest difficulty with us would be with that class of tenant.

93517. And it would be very difficult to apportion between each tenement the exact proportion?—Yes, because very often the rooms that are occupied one week are differently let the next week; a man takes one room one week and then the landlord lets the whole floor perhaps and sometimes two floors together.

93518. And that constitutes a very considerable difficulty?—It is a very considerable difficulty.

Variations in
allowance
made on
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93519. Looking at it from the economical point of view, at present there is a very great variation in the allowance I see which is made; I suppose that depends very much upon the locality?—Yes; it has been gradually reduced in many of the boroughs of London down to so little as 5 per cent., I believe, in some of them.

93520. I assume the percentage would generally indicate the nature of the district where the rate had allowed to be levied?—Yes, but it varies very much in some made-up parishes; in Kensington, for instance, it varies from 25 to 10 per cent.

93521. There are some very poor parts in Kensington? Very poor—as bad as any in London.

93522. Up in the north of the borough, where you get a shifting population?—That is right.

93523. And in that part near Wormwood Scrubbs?—Yes, just by the Canal, and what is known as Notting Dale.

93524. What is the percentage in a bad district? Would it be the maximum, the 25 per cent.?—The class of house varies very much in the district. A small house always lets better than a larger one; and although it seems rather to follow that you could say that the more rooms there are in a house, the better tenants will you get, it is not so. A man who can get a small house that will just take one tenant goes to it if he is a respectable man, whereas with the larger houses, they are chiefly let out in tenements, and there is no doubt a different class of tenant altogether collects there.

93525. A house of £20 in London is a better letting house very often than a house over £20?—Yes, it lets very much better.

93526. What is the minimum that is allowed on compounding? It is limited by Act of Parliament, is it not?—Yes; it is 25 per cent. under one section, and 30 per cent. under another section. Under the one section it is a compulsory rating of the owners, but the council have to pass a resolution that the owners shall be compulsory rated. There they are allowed 15 per cent. under any conditions, and their empties as well. Under the other section, the owner must enter into an agreement with the council, and then he is given anything up to 25 per cent. which the council may agree with him.

93527. Are you paid according to the amount collected, or by a fixed salary?—It is a fixed salary almost everywhere.

93528. Then, naturally, if you have got a fixed salary, and you now have to collect rates periodically from the owners, your work would be very different if you had to collect the rates weekly from the occupiers, I mean it would be a very much heavier job?—It would be impossible to be done. Our time is quite fully occupied now. There is so much clerical work now with the different points brought up by the Local Government auditor, that I should think one might say that 15 or 20 per cent. more of one's time is taken up now than was the case a few years ago.

93529. Assuming any idea of the sort was given effect to such as I have suggested to you, one of two things would happen—either the collectors would have to be very largely increased, or the work would have to be done through some agency independent of the collectors, which would enter into a guarantee for the performance of the work?—Yes. I must say I think it would be quite a different class of men who would be employed for the weekly collection, because one could hardly see oneself turned from the position of rate-collector at present into a weekly collector of 2s. or 1s. a week from different tenants.

93530. What is your opinion of the effect of compounding? Does it diminish the interest in elections, or do you think it would not matter one way or the other?—I think it has not the slightest effect. I think so far as one can gather from the experience of local elections, there is no doubt that it is entirely dependent upon the local organisation of one Party or the other.

93531. It is one Party or the other, or whatever may be the nature of the cry?—Yes, exactly.

93532. Is there much less interest taken in Poor Law guardians' elections than there is in borough council elections?—Very much less. I was very much surprised at the first election I attended of the guardians to see the very little interest, indeed, that there was taken in it.

93533. Your experience extends over a number of years?—Yes, it does. I have attended those elections ever since I went first in 1882.

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93534. Should you say that of all the elections that have taken place in London, including the old school board elections, there was less interest taken in the guardians' elections than in any other?—Yes.

93535. Has that always been the case?—I believe it has, except one got a better result some years ago when the voting papers were taken round by the policeman, and were collected also from the houses afterwards.

93536. I mean since the Ballot Act it has always been so?—Yes.

93537. (Sir Samuel Provis.) You have got two classes of cases, have you not—cases that would come under Section 3 and cases that would come under Section 4?—Yes.

93538. Let us take the class under Section 3 first of all. That is a voluntary arrangement with the owner?—Yes.

93539. Do you find in those cases the owners generally will agree?—A good deal depends, of course, upon the rate of deduction allowed by the local authority, but in almost all cases they do enter into the agreement.

93540. Do you find that in cases under Section 3 the local authority lay down a certain sum for the overseers which they may allow to the owner, or does it vary in particular cases?—I have only an experience of Kensington, but I believe it is very generally adopted that they do lay down a certain abatement for certain streets, which would mean different neighbourhoods and different classes of property.

93541. Therefore they would have regard to the nature of the property?—Yes, they would determine the deduction, according to the nature of the property.

93542. Would it be in all cases where the property was under £20 rateable value that agreements would be made where Section 3 is in force?—I think not in some parishes. (Mr. Stone.) In Deptford it would. (Mr. Roberts.) In Kensington I know they put down one class so low as 5 per cent., and of course, it would not pay the owner in that case if he had any empties.

93543. I suppose the reason why the local authority prefer to go under Section 3 rather than under Section 4 is that they may select the cases for agreements?—I daresay that has something to do with it, but the great thing which would influence them is that they are not obliged then to allow the 15 per cent., and they can make their total deduction under the agreement less than what they are compulsorily bound to deduct under Section 4.

93544. In point of fact the allowance is generally less than 15 per cent.?—I believe the average has brought it down from 10 to 15 or 12½ to 15.

93545. Now let us come to Section 4; there the owner must have the 15 per cent.?—Yes.

93546. He may also have a further 15 per cent., or at least a sum not exceeding 15 per cent., if he pays whether the house is occupied or not?—Yes.

93547. How far do the owners agree under that later provision in the cases in which an order under Section 4 is in force?—That depends a good deal on the property, and whether they are likely to get many empties or not. Taking 15 per cent. with empties sometimes pays a man better than it does to take the 30 per cent.; but generally speaking if the council have allowed the second 15 per cent., making 30 altogether, almost invariably the owners compound or enter into an arrangement.

93548. In those cases under Section 4 the owner is entitled to 15 per cent. absolutely, and the amount within the 15 per cent. additional to which he is entitled is a matter of agreement with the overseers?—Yes.

93549. Do the local authorities say as regards the empties, that is to say, as regards paying whether the houses are occupied or not, that there shall be a particular scale?—Yes.

93550. Do I make clear to you what I mean?—Yes, I think so. You mean do they allow various percentages?

93551. Different rates of percentages?—I might say that our general experience now is that almost all the boroughs in London have done away with Section 4, Sect. 4 of the Act in London.

Since the passing of the Act of 1869 the conditions have very much altered. At that time the council were giving their percentage on the amount of money they collected themselves; now they have to give the percentage on the whole of the amount collected, so small a portion of which is under their own control; and it lies very heavily upon them now. In fact, the commission is, from an economic point of view, really out of date; it does not apply, and the conditions are not the same now as they were in 1869.

93552. So that practically we are thrown back on Section 3?—Yes; and even Section 3 is worn out under present conditions. It is not quite fair, in my opinion, to allow it on that basis.

93553. Not quite fair, do you say?—I think not. I think the rating should be on a different basis if there is going to be an allowance to the owner, because it comes so very heavily in some parishes when on the smaller houses they are giving almost the whole of the local authority expenditure back to the landlord, thus throwing the whole of the expenditure upon the other ratepayers who are not under the compounding allowance.

93554. But then in the case of Section 3 the local authority have determined in the particular case whether they will agree or not?—Yes, they have the power, but you see it is not altered every day. If it is in force it remains in force year after year until some particular person perhaps brings it up.

93555. So that you think under Section 3 the owners would always agree practically?—Yes, I think they would if there was anything like what they consider a decent allowance.

93556. Would the local authority agree?—I do not know, and I think I cannot go quite so far as to say the local authority would. I think they have seen the point much more clearly now than they did some few years ago. During my experience the conditions have altered very much, and the rates of deduction have altered very much too.

93557. Would it be possible for the rate and the rent to be collected by the same man, but as separate items collected at one and the same time?—And for that man to hand the result over to the council?

Difficulty of collection of rent and rates at same time.

93558. Just so?—I should pay direct to the Council.

93559. You would pay the rate direct to the Council, but you would pay the rent to the landlord. Might we not have the same person to collect both the rates and the rent?—And to send an account in?

93560. Yes, he would account to the local authority, the council, for the rate?—I should think it would be very difficult, and very unadvisable.

93561. Just tell me why you think it would be difficult, I want to hear the reason?—For one thing it opens the door to so many people having the handling of the money, and I do not quite see that one could be certain of getting the amount of the rate the same as the landlord gets his rent. The landlord is not bound to divulge the amount of the rent he gets. The Council have the power of making an assessment on the house, and they do ask him to make a return of the rent, and at that particular time, no doubt, he makes the return fairly accurately; but during the course of the five years it may vary very much, and I think he might put down an increase as due to the rates when very often it is an increase in his own rent and goes into his own pocket.

Mr. John H. Roberts, Mr. Arthur J. Croxford, and Mr. Henry Stone.

4 Feb. 1908.

Mr. John H. Roberts, Mr. Arthur J. Croxford, and Mr. Henry Stone. 93562. Supposing you had the same man to collect the rent for the landlord, the landlord for his own sake would see that the amount of the rent was made known to the collector so that it should be collected?—I hardly think that sometimes it would be for his own sake.

4 Feb. 1908. 93563. That is the only way in which he would get his rent?—I confess I see very great difficulty, having had some experience with tenants of a very poor class, and having had experience of the landlords.

Difficulty of collection of rates weekly from poor tenants. 93564. What is the nature of the difficulty that you see? I am not combating your view, I only want to get out the facts?—I think to start with that very often when you come to the very poor class of tenant, he would soon find out if the landlord were collecting the rate in the ordinary way, and he would not pay it, because he would know at once that he would not be bound to pay it. We issue our summonses once in a half-year, or once in a quarter, according to the quarterly or half-yearly collection.

93565. But he is bound to pay the rate as soon as it is made, as the rate is due the very day after it is allowed by the Justices?—You would never get a man in a poor district who is probably going out within a week to pay three month's rates.

93566. I think now you have to collect the rates every three months?—Yes; but you might get an order week after week on him and you might have to summon him for these different amounts.

93567. Supposing you are collecting the weekly rent, what is the insuperable difficulty of collecting the rate for the week at the same time?—If he refuses to pay, what would you suggest our position would be?

93568. You would have to recover the amount from him?—By summons and warrant? He would be gone before we could get it.

93569. Why? Would not the same difficulty arise with regard to the rent?—No, I think not. He would know the time that it would take us to get out a summons, and he would say: "I can get two or three months clear before there is a summons issued; so I will wait; I will pay my rent, but I shall not pay the rates, and then when I am obliged, I will go."

93570. Is not this really one of your many difficulties, that the amount paid in respect of a particular week would be very small?—Yes.

Extra cost of summonses, etc., which would be entailed by weekly collection of rates. 93571. If you wanted to get a warrant for that amount, would the cost of getting the warrant be more than the rate was worth?—Actually there would be no cost to the council, above what would be caused by the other rate-payers. We get the summonses signed by a Justice of the Peace, and while one lot is being printed, they could all be printed. But it is only done now once in three months or six months as the case may be; and if it came to be continual, of course it would mean a very considerable extra expense.

93572. Under the plan that is suggested, you would be obliged to enforce the weekly payment of the rates, consequently, supposing that in a particular week the rate was not paid, you would allow a week or a few day's grace and then you would take out a summons for that particular sum; is that practicable?—I think not, because you could not get a sitting of the magistrates, and if you go to the Police Court, the expenses would be 1s. or 2s. for the summons, and 1s. or 2s. for your warrant to start with.

93573. There would be no expense, would there, in enforcing the payment of these small sums?—If taken before a Police Magistrate there would.

93574. What would the expense be?—I think 1s. for the summons or 2s., in some cases according to the place in which a summons is taken out, and 3s. for the warrant. Most of the boroughs, I believe, take them before a Justice of the Peace and not before the stipendiary magistrate.

93575. And they recover the fees as part of the cost?—We charge 6d. or 1s. on each to cover the cost of granting the summonses.

93576. Supposing that a method such as we are discussing was adopted, you would require to have a very large number of collectors in any populous parish, would you not?—Yes.

93577. What is your own parish?—Kensington.

93578. Supposing you had a weekly collection of rates in the case of tenement houses, you would want a large number of persons to collect them, would you not?—I really have had no experience, but I should think that must be so in some instances. Take a man who went round from house to house to collect his 1s. or 2s.; what would he do? 300 a day.

93579. How many collectors are there in Kensington now?—Ten.

93580. How many would you want if you had a weekly collection of the rates in respect of the tenement houses?—I am afraid I could hardly tell you that. My experience does not cover the collection of rent there.

93581. Would you want twice as many?—I should think no man could go round once in a week to a fourth of some of the districts.

93582. Therefore, you would want four times as many?—In some districts; in others you would not want any more.

93583. It would necessarily depend upon the number of tenement houses in particular districts?—Yes.

93584. Therefore, it would apply more in the poorer boroughs than in the larger ones, obviously?—It would apply entirely to them.

93585. Would you want a great number in addition, on the whole?—I should think so. I must admit that my experience there is very small, because our work is so largely clerical work. It is not a matter with us of just walking round every morning from house to house.

93586. Supposing you had a great number of collectors, you would have a great number of accounts to be examined by the local authority, would you not, and there your clerical work comes in?—The weekly collection would mean in Kensington twenty-six times the amount per house.

93587. Would the examination of the accounts by the local authority present a great difficulty?—It would mean extra clerks to do it. A good deal depends on how often the return had to be made to the office. It is weekly with us now, and we are paying into the bank three times a week.

93588. Are the collecting and deposit books examined in the clerk's office once a week?—Yes. Of course a good deal depends on these tenement houses and whether you should go now upon every single tenement. Some parishes in London have adopted that, others have not—Kensington, for instance, has not. Our tenement property largely consists of four or five tenements in a house; if those were separately assessed and you had to go and find these people at home all at once, the work would be very largely increased, because so many of them are taken by women, who either help to maintain or wholly maintain the household, and who for three parts of the day keep their particular rooms closed; they go largely to the laundries in the morning, and to other classes of work, such as charing and all sorts of things.

93589. With regard to that class, exactly the same thing would happen to the rent?—But the agent who collects in so many of these cases has an office open where people can go and pay the rent. There is one particular agent in my old district—not the one I collect now—who had a very large amount of this property to collect, and his tenants came largely to the office to pay when they were not caught in the morning when the collector went round.

93590. It has been suggested that with a plan of the kind I have just been mentioning the cost of the plan would be covered by the saving there would be in there being no compounding; should you agree with that?—No, I should think not.

Great increase of collectors which would be necessitated by weekly collection of rates.

Great increase of collectors which would be necessitated by weekly collection of rates.

Question of saving cost by abolition of compounding.

93591. Do you think it would be more?—You see a very large amount of what is put down for compounding in the return by the county council would be covered by empties, which would be allowed for if the compounding were not in force. So it would only be transferred from one column of losses to another.

93592. But you see you are getting rid of that?—Yes, but you will still have your empties to deduct from the total amount of commission, so it would make the amount saved considerably less than appears to be the case now. It is not simply the elimination of that column of compounding allowances, because a large portion of that goes into the "empty" column instead.

93593. It is suggested that there might be a plan under which the rent and the rate were put together, and the owner would still pay to the local authority; have you any opinion upon that plan?—I consider myself that it is entirely to his interest to pay it.

93594. Have you seen some books that have been prepared which contain a column showing the amount of rate and the amount of rent?—I have not.

93595. (*Handing specimen.*) (*For copy see Appendix No. IV. (A), handed in by Messrs. R. V. Broodbank and A. E. Thorp.*) There you see there is a column which shows the rent, a column which shows the borough rate, and a column which shows the weekly total. In the case where the agent collected the whole amount and would pay the rate to the local authority, the advantage of the plan is that the occupier would see that he was paying the rate as well as the rent. You see all this would bring home to the occupier how much he is really paying in respect of the rate, because he would agree to pay the rent together with the rate, that whole amount would be collected from him by an agent of the landlord, and the landlord would pay the rate as at present to the local authority?—I have had some experience with a good class of tenant, what one might call the skilled artisan who lives in a small house. That man is generally satisfied with his rent, and pays as regularly as possible. He is sufficiently well aware of the local conditions and local politics to be perfectly content to pay his rates and rent in one sum. When you come to the man who is living in a tenement, I do not think he would take the smallest interest whatever.

93596. Therefore you do not think that this method would make any difference?—I do not think it would from my own point of view. I have gone rather deeply into the matter generally. I have been many years connected with elections, and naturally many of the voters come to the rate-collector and ask him questions.

93597. Have you had any experience with regard to the collection of rates under the Public Health Act outside London?—No, I have not.

93598. None of you?—(*Mr. Stone.*) No.

93599. There is an arrangement there under which the local authority can, in the case of tenements, require the owners to compound, but it is not of general application, and consequently the local authority can say to owner A: "You shall compound," but it does not follow from that that owner B. will have to compound. Do you see the difference? Whereas under Section 4 of the Act of 1869 only they must require every owner to compound, under the Public Health Act they can require only a particular owner to compound. Would you see an advantage in the plan being extended to the poor rate?—They do not compel every owner to compound under Section 4, do they?

93600. Yes.—He is compulsorily rated; but he does not compound though he is allowed the 15 per cent.

93601. That is the position—that is to say, he gets the allowance of 15 per cent.?—Yes. Now I gather what you mean.

93602. Under the Public Health Act they can distinguish particular cases, and they can say: "We will call upon owner A. to compound, but we will not call upon owner B. to do so, although he has got property which would come under the Act." You see the advantage of that is that where the occupiers are people you are quite sure of getting your rate from, you will not make an arrangement with the owner, but where the occupiers are of a kind you do not feel sure about, you will?—I do not quite see when you come to alter your methods where you could make a difference between a house rated at £20 and one at £21. They are under exactly the same conditions. With regard to the Public Health Act, it has just struck me that this would apply to the houses coming under the £20, which are of course subject to the compounding clauses of the Act; but when you come to a £21 house, which is entirely outside the arrangement, you could not touch that. But the conditions are exactly the same, and the landlord pays just the same. We have scores of them, and really it makes very little difference to him if he finds that he is justly rated for his house. The only time he gives any trouble is when he has had an exceptionally heavy time with losses and runs away and that kind of thing—I mean through people going away without paying. We get as little trouble from the £21 house as we do from the £20 house, and, what applies to one appears to me to apply to the other.

93603. That difficulty rather arises from taking a fixed sum at any point, does it not?—Yes.

93604. (*Chairman.*) As a rule, I suppose when rents are due the landlord tries to recover them by distraint?—Yes, that is his process.

93605. He can distrain under a very simple process, but the local authority can only distrain under a much more complicated process?—That is so. The landlord can go in at once with his warrant. He can go round on the Monday morning, and if the tenant does not pay the rent, he can give him notice and go in.

93606. Could the law be assimilated so that the local authority could distrain as easily as the landlord?—A change in the law can bring in any change in that direction.

93607. What would be the objection to that? I suppose the objection is that at present the landlord has priority as regards the tenant?—Yes, and also one other, namely, that there has always been a feeling that a man on being summoned for rates should show cause before the magistrate why he has not paid, and sometimes poverty is the cause of his not having paid, and it being shown that he is too poor to pay he has the privilege of being discharged of that amount altogether.

93608. Is the summons ever dismissed on the ground of poverty?—Certainly. An amount is discharged from the books in almost every district in every half-year in some exceedingly poor cases.

93609. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) You bring up a list, do you not?—No, they appear before the magistrates.

93610. Do you not submit a list before the magistrates?—No. Sometimes, afterwards, they go before the committee, and then, of course, there is only the collector; but that is not the case when they come before the magistrates; there they have to put in a personal appearance.

Mr. John
H. Roberts,
Mr. Arthur
J. Croxford
and
Mr. Henry
Stone.

4 Feb. 1908.

Difference
between
distraint by
landlord for
rent and by
local
authority for
rates.

ONE HUNDRED AND FORTY-SEVENTH DAY.

Monday, 24th February, 1908.

AT SCOTLAND HOUSE, WESTMINSTER, S.W.

PRESENT.

The Right Hon. Lord GEORGE HAMILTON, G.C.S.I.,
etc., etc., etc. (*Chairman*).
Sir SAMUEL B. PROVIS, K.C.B.
Mr. F. H. BENTHAM.
The Rev. T. GAGE GARDINER.
Mr. GEORGE LANSBURY.

The Rev. L. R. PHELPS.
Miss OCTAVIA HILL.
Mr. FRANCIS CHANDLER.

Mr. R. H. A. G. DUFF (*Secretary*).Mr. J. JEFFREY (*Assistant Secretary*).

Mr. WILLIAM FREDERICK HAMILTON, K.C., and Mr. WALTER LLOYD JONES, called ; and Examined.

Mr. William
Frederick
Hamilton,
K.C., and
Mr. Walter
Lloyd Jones.

24 Feb., 1908.

93611. (*Chairman*.) You have been kind enough to prepare for us a paper of a very interesting character, with statistics, which we will take as your Evidence-in-chief, and I will supplement it by a few questions ?—
(*Mr. Hamilton*.) May I say that it is a matter of regret to me that Mr. Carlile is not able to be here. He has been very unwell for some time, and at the present moment he is in the south of France. He knows more about the Church Army than I do. (*The Witness handed in the following Statement.*)

Extent.

1. The following is the experience of the Church Army taking the period of four years and nine months ending September 30th, 1907.

2. *Numbers.*—*Single men.*—The homeless and destitute men dealt with in the Labour Homes numbered from 4,850 in 1903 to 6,522 in 1907. Homeless men provided with food and lodging in exchange for work through the agency of the King's Labour tents, and Receiving Homes, totalled 330,000 in 1905, but the numbers fell to 75,000 in 1907. (*For details see Appendix No. XI. (A) .*)

3. The total numbers above shown as being helped in Receiving Homes and King's Tents, are very considerably in excess of the actual numbers of individuals, owing to the repeated admissions of the same persons, though this was, as far as possible prevented. A fair estimate of the number of individuals dealt with would probably be one-tenth of the total.

4. *Married men.*—These are provided with temporary work at the Labour Depots; the greatest number helped in this manner was in the winter of 1905-1906 when 26,228 men were provided with employment.

5. During the winters of 1904-1905 and 1905-1906, the society could only deal with about 75 per cent. of the married men who applied for work at the London Depots (*For details, see Appendix No. XI. (A) .*)

6. *Classes.*—The single men assisted were drawn chiefly from the unskilled labouring class, and an analysis of trades of the Labour Home inmates for the years 1903 to 1907 inclusive is attached (*see Appendix No. XI. (B) .*) A large proportion of the men entering Labour Homes who profess to be skilled workmen have either little skill or are physically inefficient. Many of the men helped are ex-soldiers. In 1907, out of 1856 admitted to London Homes, 302 were ex-soldiers, 16·3 per cent.; and 22 per cent. of the men who passed through the provincial Homes had been in military service. It is very rarely that any seamen apply for help.

7. *Character.*—*Single men.*—During the period, January 1903, to September, 1907, the total admissions to Labour Homes were 9,597 to London, and 19,936 to Provincial Homes. Of the grand total of 29,533 men, 11,364 (38·5 per cent.) had never been in prison or workhouses; 11,471 (39 per cent.) had been in workhouses, and 6,698

(22·5 per cent.) had been in prison. (*For further details, Character of see Appendix No. XI. (A) .*) 890 men of the total men assisted failed to present admission orders at the Homes; 21 per cent. of such defaulters were workhouse cases. Army.

8. 18·5 per cent. of the men admitted to the London Homes and 7 per cent. in the Provincial Homes failed to satisfy the three days' work test necessary to qualify them to remain as inmates. About 17 per cent. of Labour Home inmates in 1907 were dismissed or absconded. Dismissals are almost invariably caused through drink. The men admitted as a rule worked well.

9. *Married Men.*—The married men provided with work at the Church Army depots have all been recommended by responsible persons, as deserving of assistance. Speaking generally, the married men who are assisted work willingly and industriously.

10. Amongst the married men given day work there are few dismissals, but many do not come after the first day, lacking industry and perseverance. Men of troublesome or vindictive character are rare. Lack of initiative; objection to steady employment; and excessive drinking seem to be the chief faults in the men who seek assistance from the society.

11. Few of the married men helped were members of any trade union or provident society. In the winter of 1905-6 out of 244 men who were employed by the Church Army on the particular day when the enumeration was made it was found that:—

Sixty (24·6 per cent.) had at some time been members of a trade union or a benefit society.

Eleven (4·5 per cent.) were at the time members.

One hundred and seventy-three (70·9 per cent.) had never been members of either.

12. *Period of Duration.*—Large numbers of single men who in the winter apply to the society for help appear to be unable to find employment in the summer. In the winter months the Homes are always filled, and hundreds of applicants have to be refused owing to lack of space. In the summer months the majority of the Provincial Homes are usually from two-thirds to three-fourths filled, and the London Homes generally have vacant accommodation. In 1904 there was an exceptional pressure in summer on the London Homes, and rather more than usual in 1905 and 1906. The Provincial Homes have also been more used in the last three years than formerly.

13. With regard to the married men, the pressure was greatest in the winters of 1904-5 and 1905-6, both in London and the provinces. Last year showed a great reduction in the numbers of married applicants. Assistance is only given to married men during the winter months.

14. The officers in charge of the Depots for married men say that about 30 per cent. of the men have presented themselves in successive winters, and as far as can be gathered quite 90 per cent. of the men are

Number of
unemployed
assisted by
Church
Army,
1903-7.

Occupations
of
unemployed.

Character of
men assisted
by Church
Army.

general labourers, and about half of the latter percentage have not been in continuous employment for several years.

Causes.

15. The majority of applicants are unskilled workers and their average earnings are small. Even when there is a willingness to make provision against unemployment the earnings do not permit of it.

16. However industrious and deserving the unskilled worker may be, a period of unemployment with the consequent lack of nourishing food and the worries attendant upon such a condition of life, soon reduces the physical efficiency of the man; this, with the increasing shabbiness of his clothing makes it more and more difficult for him to obtain employment, and eventually he swells the rank of the chronically inefficient and very casual worker, and, if married, his wife and children have to work to maintain him.

17. Taking the single men in the Labour Homes, the following were the causes of unemployment of men admitted in 1906-7, statements having been verified by reference to employers:—

Why Unemployed.	London Homes. Per cent.	Provincial Homes. Per cent.
Through fault of worker	671—36·2	1,482—31·8
Through illness of worker or the failure of employer	385—20·7	713—15·3
Through slackness of trade	800—43·1	2,471—52·9

Effects.

18. The effects of distress due to unemployment are:—

(a) The men and their families physically deteriorate owing to lack of proper food and clothing.

(b) The competition for all casual work by the large numbers of the unemployed has a grave tendency to reduce the wages of unskilled workers.

(c) Unemployment causes deterioration in the skilled worker, in habits and ability. Employers have often called attention to the fact that men known as good workmen develop a distaste for steady work after a long spell of unemployment. Church Army officers working amongst the married men, report that about half of those who apply for temporary work appear to have lost all ambition or hope of permanent employment, and have grown quite contented to depend upon casual work for short periods, and they attribute this to the gradual deterioration of the men from unemployment.

The Church Army.—Men's Social Work.

19. The Church Army is an incorporated society. The object of its Social Work as described in Paragraph 3, Section C, of its Memorandum of Association, is generally to promote the welfare of the poor and the relief of distress by combined social and spiritual agencies."

20. The Social Work of the Church Army deals with married men and single men in the following manner:—

(a) Married men recommended as needy and deserving help are provided with day work during the winter at labour homes or depots. They are paid piece work rates for the work done, and an addition is made to the earnings, proportionate to the number of persons dependent upon the worker; this addition equals from 50 to 100 per cent. on the earnings.

(b) Single men are dealt with at the labour homes, the receiving homes, and at the King's Labour Tents; and some are sent to the Church Army Farm Colonies to be trained for Emigration.

21. *Married Men's Work.*—The number of men helped last year was 18,914, who between them received 112,994 days' work, and each man on the average obtained six days' work. £11,423 were paid away in wages, and the sales of the produce of the men's labour realised £7,134.

22. The wages paid at special depots included a bonus of from 50 to 100 per cent. over and above the trade rate of wages, proportioned according to the number in the workmen's families; the maximum amount a man was allowed to earn, including bonus, was 3s. 4d. per day in London, and 2s. 6d. in the provinces.

23. £3,000 were paid away in wages at various provincial homes, and a bonus was paid in addition but was not provided out of Church Army Funds, and is not included in the before named sum of £11,423.

24. No charges were made to the fund for working expenses, rent, etc., where the depot was attached to a Labour Home, and in these cases the work of supervision was voluntarily undertaken by the officer of the Home without extra remuneration.

25. There was a loss of about £5,400 on the work, partly accounted for by bonuses amounting to £4,000; partly by excessive waste arising from lack of skill, and partly by the extra cost of delivering all firewood by trucks rather than by van, in order to provide labour for more men.

26. *Labour Homes.*—Objects:—

(a) To provide temporary work for the unemployed homeless and destitute man of good character, where he will be able to feel that by his own exertions he is earning food and lodging until such time as permanent employment can be obtained.

(b) To provide a refuge for the destitute man of weak or vicious character, where he will be free from temptation, and subject to good moral and religious influences, and where he will be compelled to cultivate habits of industry, cleanliness, and self-restraint.

27. The qualifications for admission are:—

(a) Destitution.

(b) Freedom from such infirmities as would prevent a man earning his livelihood in the ordinary course.

(c) Willingness to work, and to abide by the rules and regulations.

(d) Must not be under sixteen years of age or over forty-five.

28. The limit of stay is four months, and each man has to undergo a three days' test of his willingness to work and capability of working, before he is entered on the books.

29. Every man on entering the Home signs an agreement, a copy of which is attached (*see Appendix No. XI. (C)*).

30. In order to put a premium on industry, men are paid at piece-work rates. A sum of 6s. per week is charged each man for his board, lodging and washing; this sum is deducted from a man's wages weekly. Of the balance, he is allowed to draw 1s. per week pocket money, the remainder being reserved for him until he leaves the home.

31. This system of reserved pay tends to ensure a man's good conduct, and to keep him in the Home sufficiently long to enable him to derive benefit from the home life, and the moral and religious influences of his environment. Under the agreement the inmate is liable to forfeit his reserved pay in the event of misbehaviour, idleness, etc., or should he leave without the permission of the officer in charge; very little money is forfeited under this rule, the sum amounting only to about £30 per annum, out of a total of nearly £25,000 per annum paid in wages. The money so forfeited is devoted towards the emigration of deserving Labour Home inmates.

32. Attached is a copy of the rules and regulations of the Home (*see Appendix No. XI. (D)*). It will be seen that amongst other things the men have to attend family prayers, morning and evening, and Divine Service twice on Sundays. They are free to go out after 6 p.m., but must return to prayers at 9.30 p.m. Every man must be an abstainer whilst an inmate.

33. The last statistics available are for the twelve months ending September 30th, 1907. During this period 6,522 men passed through the Labour Homes: 1,334 of these were ex-soldiers, and 4,303 of the total had been in casual wards, workhouses, and prisons.

34. The average ages of inmates of the Labour Homes last year were as follows:—9 per cent. were under twenty years of age; 33 per cent. were between twenty and twenty-nine; 35 per cent. were between thirty and thirty-nine; and 23 per cent. forty years and upwards.

35. *Results.*—The number who passed the three day test was 5,864, and 4,961 of these passed out of the Homes: 40·5 per cent. went to situations or were restored to their friends, or emigrated; 42·5 per cent. left of their

Mr. William Frederick Hamilton, K.C., and Mr. Walter Lloyd Jones.

24 Feb., 1908

The Church Army Labour Homes.

Cases of unemployment.

Effects of unemployment.

Objects and work of the Church Army.

Mr. William Frederick Hamilton, K.C., and Mr. Walter Lloyd Jones.

24 Feb., 1908.

Finances of Labour Homes.

own accord to seek work, after an average stay of fifty-one days, during which period their conduct and industry were satisfactory; 17 per cent. were dismissed as unsatisfactory. For averages for a period of four years and nine months (see *Appendix No. XI. (A).*)

36. The Homes are not financially independent of each other, but have one common fund. The Church Army organises the labour and disposes of its produce, meeting the deficiency out of funds given for the purpose by the philanthropic public.

37. The work done in the Homes consists almost entirely of wood-chopping. The sales of the produce of the men's labour for the twelve months realised £50,248; the receipts from board and lodging came to £15,611, and from other sources £1,196. The cost of materials, working expenses, and maintenance of the men came to £76,231, resulting in a loss of £9,176.

38. It may be of interest to note that more than £11,000 were paid away to the men in cash; without this the Homes would have shewn a profit of about £2,000.

39. The aggregate number of days' work done in Labour Homes was 226,286 (including 37,063 days to married men at various provincial Homes) and the loss works out at 9½d. per man per day, a cost of 5s. 6½d. per week, or not more than £14 per year, including all rent, management, etc., and the £11,000 referred to as having been paid away.

40. The average earnings of the men were 12s. 9d. per week.

Wood-chopping in Labour Homes.

41. If the Labour Homes were institutions trading in the ordinary way, very few of the inmates would be given employment at wood chopping. It is work which requires considerable skill and training; a good wood chopper could easily earn 24s. per week, and he would make 6,000 13-inch bundles out of a fathom of wood (216 cubic feet), whereas Labour Home inmates barely average 5,000 from a similar quantity of wood. The shortage is due to excessive waste arising from lack of skill.

42. The bulk of the firewood is delivered by hand in order to employ more labour, and this adds considerably to the cost. If it were desired to trade for profit the Society would saw all its wood by power, and chop and tie the sticks by machinery, and a considerable saving could be effected by having all the London trade carried on at one depot.

43. The firewood produced is sold at trade rates, and in the majority of cases direct to the consumers.

Complaints against Church Army's firewood business.

44. It has been stated that Church Army methods of production enable the Society to undersell the trade but as its object is to provide as much labour as possible, it is very evident that the finished articles do, and must cost considerably more than they would if produced in the ordinary way of trade.

45. Two officials of the Firewood Choppers' Trade Union waited upon the Church Army in the autumn of 1906. They were asked whether they complained of the Society underpaying its men or underselling the trade; the answer to both questions was in the negative. The object of their visit was to request the society to abandon wood chopping as an industry.

46. It has been urged that the manufacture of firewood by the Society may affect the employment of other wood choppers. This is quite true, but whatever work a man is employed upon the produce of his labour will compete with someone or other.

47. The average number of inmates in each Labour Home is twenty-five. The institutions are purposely kept small in order that the officer and his wife may get to know each man intimately, and so have an opportunity to encourage the unfortunate and advise and guide the weak and vicious in their efforts towards reformation.

The King's Labour Tents.

48. *The King's Labour Tents.*—These are opened only in very severe weather and when the Society has not sufficient accommodation for all the applicants for admission to the Labour Homes.

49. Each man receives a pint of soup and a piece of bread when entering, and a similar meal when work is finished, and he is also given an order for a bed in a common lodging house. The tents are worked night and day, from the time they are opened in the early winter till the end of March.

50. The loss on this work exclusive of donations, was £1,541 for 43,422 cases, equal to a cost per head of 8½d., after allowing for the value of the work done and includes all cost of management, etc.

51. *Receiving Homes.*—The Receiving Homes provide temporary accommodation for homeless and destitute men on the same conditions as the Labour Homes, but the period of stay may be limited to three nights.

52. Each man on admission is compelled to take a bath and his clothing is fumigated, and he sleeps in a bed provided with the usual bedding. He works from 6 a.m. to 6 p.m., and is provided with four good meals during the day. He is free to go out after breakfast the morning after his admission, or he may stay for three days, working in return for board and lodging. The net cost for 1907 was £580 for an aggregate of 75,380 days, equal to a cost of 1½d. per man per day.

The Church Army League of Friends of the Poor.

53. *Aim.*—To bring rich and poor into personal touch, and to give such assistance to deserving families as may permanently improve their position.

54. *Methods.*—To give each member of the League the name of one poor family to whom the member is expected to act as a real "friend," visiting the house, making the acquaintance of the wife and children, finding out the causes of their poverty, procuring work for the husband if unemployed, helping with sympathy, wise counsel, and where possible with practical assistance to aid them to overcome their difficulties. In this work members use all the many organisations of the Church Army: Labour yards, food tickets, hospital and nursing letters, Fresh Air Homes for the Sick, training for the young, Labour Homes, and emigration.

Remedies.

55. *Emigration.*—As there have been in recent years such large numbers of physically efficient men of good character quite unable to find employment in England, the Church Army has considered emigration a most successful and ready means of permanently benefiting them, and at the same time of lessening the competition in the home labour market.

56. The Society sent out to Canada in 1906, 3,000 persons, and in 1907, 1,595 persons, of whom £24 were men, 22½ women, and 533 children. The men readily found employment, and very few of them proved unequal to the work demanded of them. The few cases of failure were men whose character did not bear out the statements of the persons by whom they were recommended.

57. The Society assists in the emigration of selected cases who may be unable to raise sufficient funds to pay their own expenses.

58. Each applicant has to be well recommended and to furnish references as to good character and suitability for emigration. The cost of passage and railway fare the other side is advanced by the Church Army, and an undertaking is received from the emigrant that the money so advanced will be refunded by him within three years after his arrival in Canada.

59. The Society has its own officers at Montreal, Toronto and Winnipeg, and emigrants are met on arrival and despatched to situations obtained for them by the Church Army agents, or are maintained until situations are otherwise secured.

60. £1,215 has been refunded by emigrants for fares and advances made to them.

61. *Appendix No. XI. (E)* gives the occupations of the men emigrated in 1907.

62. *Labour Farms.*—The Society for some time owned two farms, one a freehold of 750 acres of land in Essex, and one leasehold of 150 acres in Surrey. The latter has been given up because there is ample room on the recently acquired Essex farm to do all the work of the Society for some years to come. A short statement of the working of the farms is appended marked F. (see *Appendix No. XI. (F).*)

63. Considerable success has attended the use of these as training ground for men preparing for emigration, but little has been done for fitting men for agricultural employment at home.

64. The effect of outdoor life upon the physical condition of the men has been excellent, but in the present state of the agricultural market only those of the highest skill can find continuous employment.

65. From the Society's experience, land colonies with unskilled labour can hardly be expected to be self-supporting; but the men, after a short training, could earn a large proportion of the cost of their maintenance. On a small scale the cost of management and supervision is heavy. On a large scale, it is impossible to provide work on the farm in bad weather or at certain times of the year, and the spells of idleness so caused make the cost heavy, and have a bad effect upon the discipline and industry of the men. Some industry that can be followed when out of door work cannot be given, is essential.

66. The men employed on the farm have been roughly taught according to the time of the year and the period of their stay, ploughing, sowing, harvesting, hedging, ditching, draining, etc., and to erect rough out-buildings. Most of these men have been emigrated by the Church Army.

67. The work of the Church Army proves that a very large proportion of unemployed are able and willing to work. But there are thousands who are, from simple lack of nourishment, physically incapable of hard work, and thousands more are unwilling to work if it can be possibly avoided. The former could and might be helped if the latter class were out of the way. Idlers seriously hamper the efforts of societies like the Church Army, and it would be a general benefit to the community if they were committed to penal labour colonies for an indeterminate period.

68. The Church Army asks the Commission to consider the suggestions contained in the attached paper (*Appendix No. XI. (G.)*) for a reorganisation of the Poor Law system and the establishment of penal and voluntary colonies to deal with all classes of unemployed men.

69. In the opinion of the Church Army considerable restriction should be placed on the immigration of aliens, until such time as the distress from unemployment has been rendered less acute than at present.

For the proper organisation of labour, it seems essential there should be a national employment bureau; that there should be telegraphic or telephonic communication between all depots of the bureau, and, if possible, a daily sheet should be issued giving full details of the demand and supply in the labour market. Some arrangement also appears desirable for the cheap conveyance by rail of men migrating to fresh situations, and for the recovery of the cost of removal by deduction made by the employer from the man's earnings.

93612. (*Chairman.*) In Paragraph 2 of your Statement, you give the number of homeless and destitute men dealt with in the Labour Homes; the Labour Homes give a more or less lengthened and permanent reception to the persons who go through them, as I understand?—Yes.

93613. And they are quite distinct from your shelters?—We never call the Homes to which you refer shelters; we call them Receiving Homes. They are quite distinct from the Receiving Homes, and they are quite distinct from the King's Labour Tents. The King's Labour Tents are only resorted to when there is special distress.

93614. In addition to the Labour Homes, the Receiving Homes and the King's Labour Tents, you have certain Labour Depôts, have you not?—For married men, yes. Those are also for periods of special distress. We take at the Labour Depôts married men of good character who have been recommended to us and who are in distress, and we provide them with work until such time as they are able to find employment.

93615. May I take it that the four branches of this part of your work would be Labour Homes, King's Labour Tents, Receiving Homes and Labour Depôts?—Yes. In addition to those, we have lodging-houses where men are able to get lodgings at a cheap rate. There we do not have labour done. The man pays 6d. for his bed, and he gets superior accommodation.

93616. Do you give him an order for those lodging-houses?—No. Instead of going to a common lodging-house, he can go to a superior lodging-house, where he pays for his accommodation.

93617. Has he got the means of paying for his accommodation from working with you?—He may have done so, but not necessarily.

93618. The persons you have had to deal with mainly are the unskilled labouring class?—Yes, substantially. May I say with reference to our Labour Homes that we have Labour Homes scattered over England, and then we have one in Edinburgh, one in Glasgow, one in Dublin, and one in Belfast. The Labour Homes in the provinces are managed by local committees, who interest themselves in the men and try and find them situations. These local committees look after the men, and devote a great deal of time in endeavouring not only to provide work for them, but to reform those who need reformation.

93619. Will you please look at Appendix B. (*see Appendix No. XI. (B.)*) which gives the classification of the inmates or occupants of the Labour Homes. There does not seem to be much difference in classification between those in London and those in the provinces?—No, there is not in classification.

93620. Do you think you can rely, as a rule, on the statements that are made to you by the inmates; are they fairly reliable?—I think they are. The men have no inducement to make untrue statements, because one is trying to find them work in the particular branch that they know.

93621. It has been suggested to us, I think, by previous witnesses that there is a double tendency which rather tends one to counteract the other—there is a tendency on the one hand for a certain class to make out that they have fallen from rather a better state, and there is a tendency, from shame, of another class to conceal what their original position was, and to describe themselves as general labourers?—Mr. Lloyd Jones, who is the assistant secretary of the Church Army Social Department, says that the references are taken up and inquiries are made, and that the descriptions in this table are verified by reference to the employers.

93622. Do you find that the information given is generally accurate?—(*Mr. Lloyd Jones.*) If the information is not verified, the Society does not consider itself justified in allowing the man to remain. The man is told that as long as he explains his past history, it does not matter what it has been, but that if he attempts to mislead the Society he will not be accepted.

93623. So you think that we may accept this as a fairly accurate classification?—(*Mr. Hamilton.*) Yes, I think so.

93624. A great many of these persons are not only of little skill, but a great many of them are what you would term physically inefficient, I presume?—Yes.

93625. That is to say, they belong to the class who, in time of prosperity would be the last to be taken on, and in time of adversity the first to be discharged?—Yes. Part of the physical inefficiency results from the fact that they have gone down and down. We have found when we have taken especially the younger men from London who were physically inefficient, and put them on to farm colony work, that working in the open air, and good food and good lodging for six or seven months, makes a wonderful difference to their physical efficiency.

93626. Then their physical condition is not due so much to inherent defects in physique as to want of proper nourishment and occupation?—Partly that; it is partly of course due to inherent defects of physique.

93627. You have a considerable number of ex-soldiers coming to you, I understand?—Yes, a great number.

93628. You get their characters, I suppose?—Yes.

93629. What are their characters?—I can speak from my own personal knowledge. I act as secretary to the Emigration Department of the Church Army, and very many of the cases come personally through my hands. We find that the ex-soldiers who apply for emigration have nearly all of them good characters. Mr. Lloyd Jones has prepared for the Commission a Statement giving you figures for three groups: (1) Workhouse and casual ward cases; (2) ex-soldier cases; and (3) ex-prisoner cases. That Statement shows that the number of ex-soldiers admitted for the year ending September 30th, 1907, which is our financial year, was 1877; out of those 123 failed to pass the work test, thirty-five were transferred to other institutions, 112 remained in the homes for some time, and 1607 passed out. Of these

Mr. William Frederick Hamilton, K.C., and Mr. Walter Lloyd Jones.

24 Feb., 1908.

Unskilled labourers dealt with by Church Army.

Question of credibility of applicants to Church Army.

Physique of men assisted by Church Army.

Character of ex-soldiers applying to Church Army.

Mr. William 1,607, the good were 456, the doubtful 934, and the bad Frederick 217. (*Handing in Table, see Appendix, No. XI. (H.)*)

Mr. Hamilton, 93630. I think from those figures we may fairly assume that you have got a large proportion of those men who were Mr. Walter Lloyd Jones, bad bargains in the army?—Yes.

24 Feb., 1908.

Seamen applying to Church Army.

93631. You say it is very rare that any seaman applies; do you mean by seamen a man who has been in the Royal Navy, or a man who has been in the Mercantile Marine?—Both. I remember seeing an able seaman in the King's Labour Tent, and asking him how it was he was there. He said he could not get work. I had my doubts about that, because I knew at that time that in Southampton the Union Company were anxious to find sailors.

93632. That is your experience even as regards the Mercantile Marine?—It is very rare that any seaman comes at all. I think one reason is that the mercantile seaman is a very handy man.

93633. (*Mr. Gardiner.*) When you are speaking of seamen, do you include firemen?—I do not think we have any firemen. (*Mr. Lloyd Jones.*) When we say "seamen" we do not include stokers. (*Mr. Hamilton.*) I was thinking of A.B.'s and ordinary seamen.

93634. (*Chairman.*) And of the men in the Mercantile Marine?—Yes. This man that I spoke to had been in the Navy.

93635. In Paragraph 7 of your Statement, you deal with character. Of the 29,533 men dealt with between January 1903, and September, 1907, 38·5 per cent. I see had never been in prison or in a workhouse, 39 per cent. had been in a workhouse, and 22·5 per cent. had been in prison?—Yes. (*Mr. Lloyd Jones.*) I should like to say that in the table I have just handed to you (*Appendix No. XI. (H.)*), giving a summary of the workhouse and casual ward cases, the numbers of ex-soldiers and the ex-prisoners, will not agree with the figures in the Statement Mr. Hamilton has previously put in. The figures that are contained in the latter Statement are confined to the classes in the Labour Homes; this table also includes cases dealt with in other ways.

93636. I think we may assume that the persons you have had to deal with were, to use your own expression, a rather rough lot, because taking those who had been in prison and in workhouses, I see they comprise 61 per cent?—(*Mr. Hamilton.*) Yes.

93637. Passing on to the married men, you have Labour Depots for those, you said?—Yes, Labour Yards and Labour Depots, which are only used in the winter when there is extra distress. The principal industry for those Labour Yards is wood-chopping. With regard to the married men we adopt a different rule. We put them on piece-work, and we add bonuses ranging from 50 per cent. to 100 per cent. according to the number of their family. No man is allowed to earn more than 3s. 4d. per day, but he ought to earn that easily in the day with the bonus.

93638. Are these Labour Depots confined to married men?—Yes. It is done with the purpose to try and keep a home over the men's heads, because if they once lose all their furniture, they very soon drift into the ranks of the permanently unemployed.

93639. In these cases, nearly all your dismissals were due to drinking, I see?—Yes.

93640. You have found that a limited number of these persons have been members of a trade union or a provident society?—Yes. Might I explain that? There was a separate census taken of the married men who were in the labour yards on a particular day. That was taken in the winter of 1905-1906. There were 244 men there, and in Paragraph 11 I give the percentages of the persons who had been members of a trade union or a benefit society, or who were at the time members.

93641. I see that eleven out of the whole number were members at the time?—Yes.

93642. Then in Paragraph 12 you deal with the period of duration; to whom does that apply?—That applies to single men. The Labour Homes are not so full in summer as they are in winter, because it is then easier to find employment, and there is more employment offering. At that time, too, we have no depots open for the married men.

93643. What is the period of detention in the Receiving Period Homes—three days I think it is?—They are not entitled to remain for more than three days, but as a matter of fact, they do remain frequently for much longer periods, especially if there is a chance of permanently helping the men. We reserve the right to send them away at the end of three days, and to say to them, "We only have you here for three days;" but many men are kept for longer periods.

93644. In Paragraph 14 you refer to the officers in charge of the "Depots" do you include there the Receiving Homes?—No.

93645. You say that those officers estimate that about 30 per cent. of the persons you have had to deal with have come for relief in successive years?—That is so. This paragraph refers to married men.

93646. They also say that about 90 per cent. are general labourers, half of whom have not been in continuous employment for several years?—Yes. (*Mr. Lloyd Jones*) That 90 per cent. is 90 per cent. of the married men who apply at the Church Army Relief depots in the winter time for assistance; that is the statement of the officers, etc., dealing with married men.

93647. (*Mr. Gardiner.*) And I suppose the words "half of them" means 50 per cent. of the 90 per cent.?—(*Mr. Hamilton.*) Yes; about half of the 90 per cent. have not been in continuous employment.

93648. (*Chairman.*) Now going on to the causes, I suppose the great majority of these persons are unskilled, workers, whose work is intermittent either from their being casual labourers, or from their being connected with some seasonal or periodic trade?—Yes. A casual labourer in London has a much greater field for employment than a casual labourer in the country. We call them casual labourers, but in London they are labourers who are always taking different jobs; they are not always working for the same people.

93649. That is your experience, is it?—Yes.

93650. When you say they are not always working for the same people, do you mean that they are working at a different class of job?—No. A dock labourer would work for different employers, but he would still work as a dock labourer.

93651. And the same would apply to the building trade, I suppose?—Yes.

93652. That is, the labourers in the building trade would stick to that trade?—Yes. As a rule, a bricklayer's labourer prefers working as a bricklayer's labourer, but we sometimes are able to find for men, who have never done any work in connection with the building trades, employment as builders' labourers.

93653. Have you any idea at all as to whether a large proportion of these persons who come to you are dock labourers?—I do not think they are. Of course the dock labourers apply in the neighbourhood of the docks.

93654. A very considerable proportion of the general labourers would be connected with the building trades, I suppose?—Many would, no doubt, especially in the last two winters, when the building trade has been very bad.

93655. We have had very much evidence as regards the causes and effects of unemployment, and what you say corroborates what we have already received. You state that you think "The competition for all casual work by the large numbers of the unemployed has a grave tendency to reduce the wages of unskilled workers"?—I will tell you why I think so. In Bermondsey, which I know something about, one finds that the wages of the casual labourers—that is of the labourers generally—are eked out in times when they are out of work by the earnings of their wives and daughters. In Bermondsey, many girls are employed in the factories, and, of course, they are employed at very cheap rates. When you have a great number of women and girls working, that tends to reduce the price of labour everywhere.

93656. Now coming to the paragraphs in which you especially deal with the Church Army, you state that it is an Incorporated Society?—Yes. It is incorporated under one of the Companies Acts, which allows an association formed for charitable or religious purposes to register without the word "limited" by the licence of the Board of Trade.

Character of men assisted by Church Army.

Labour Yards and married men's work.

Dismissals through drunkenness.

Trade unionists among men assisted by Church Army.

Duration of unemployment.

Number of men applying for relief in successive years.

Casual labourers.

The competition for all casual work and its effect on wages.

The Church Army—balance-sheet and financials.

93657. Do you publish a balance sheet?—Every year we publish very full accounts.

93658. I suppose you are dependent on the proceeds of the work you give and on subscriptions?—Yes.

93659. Have you got any endowment?—We have invested funds, but no endowments, because we can use them for capital purposes. One is obliged to be very careful about saying we have an endowment, as we may have the Charity Commissioners interfering.

93660. What sort of amount of subscriptions do you get?—I am treasurer, and last year in legacies, donations, subscriptions and collections, we got roughly between £75,000 and £80,000.

93661. That is including subscriptions?—Yes; I call all those voluntary contributions.

93662. And legacies?—Yes. Lately we have had some large legacies; but I am taking now an ordinary year.

93663. Would that be about the average for the last three years?—Yes, I should think so. I find that the average for the last 3 years has been £77,000.

93664. You did not send us a balance sheet with your papers, did you?—No, but we have a balance sheet which is just now being audited. I hope the audited accounts will be signed to-day. I will send to the Commission as soon as possible a full copy of the accounts of the Church Army, which will show exactly our voluntary contributions and everything else relating to our accounts (*see Appendix No. XI. (I)*).

93665. As regards the net expenditure, what relation do your subscriptions bear to the sales of work; would they be about half and half?—May I point out that the subscriptions and donations I have been talking about are for the whole work of the Church Army, much of the work being religious. Our Labour Homes really cost us very little; (For cost of Labour Homes (*see Appendix No. XI. (J)*) the social part of our work is a very inexpensive part of our work.

93666. The subscriptions carry on your general work?—Yes. The Receiving Home at Banner Street, I may say, which is our largest receiving Home, is self-supporting.

93667. Really! And what about your Labour Homes?—We paid the men in cash between £11,000 and £12,000 for the year, so if we had kept the money which we paid away to the men in wages, we should have been self-supporting.

93668. There is a paragraph here, I think, that throws light on that?—Yes, Paragraph 37: "The work done in the Homes consists almost entirely of wood-chopping."—I am talking there about the Labour Homes, and I am not talking about the married men's Relief Depots or the Receiving Homes. "The sales of the produce of the men's labour for the twelve months realised £50,248; the receipts from board and lodging came to £15,611"—that is what they pay themselves; we deduct 6s. a week for their board, their lodging, and their laundry. Receipts from other sources amounted to £1,196. "The cost of materials, working expenses, and maintenance of the men came to £76,231, resulting in a loss of £9,176.

93669. Then you say that you pay the men certain bonuses?—Yes. We paid £11,000 to the men in cash, and without that the Homes would have shown a profit as I say, of about £2,000. In Paragraph 39, I state what is the loss per man per day.

93670. Going back to the Labour Homes, they are nearly all situated in towns, I suppose?—I think they are all in towns, speaking from memory.

93671. Have you any place in the country, any farm colony, for instance, where you send people to?—We have one farm colony now, but we did have two. We have one at Hempstead in Essex.

93672. You make all your profit out of wood-chopping, do you?—Yes, that is we should make a profit of £2,000 if we did not pay £11,000 in wages to the men.

93673. Perhaps you are aware there have been great complaints of your competing with the wood-choppers?—Yes, I know.

93674. They have been here and put in a Statement?—Of course, it does compete with them, but we do not undersell them, and as we employ so much more hand labour, it costs us more to produce than it does them. We have tried several experiments, and we find that wood-chopping is the most economical form we have of helping the men.

Mr. William Frederick Hamilton, K.C., and Mr. Walter Lloyd Jones.

24 Feb., 1908.

93675. I suppose the real difficulty is this: That whatever you put the people to, you must more or less come in competition with somebody?—I think so. We cannot found a new industry; we have not the capital, and it would not be right. If you could found a new industry and provide work which never was done before, and were able to get rid of the produce of that work, you would, of course, compete with nobody, except that you might raise the price of labour a little.

Wood-chopping. Competition of Church and Army in firewood trade.

93676. The same difficulty would occur, no matter what the class of work was to which you put your people provided it had to be, as it probably would be to a certain extent, subsidised by subscriptions?—I think so.

93677. Why did you select wood-chopping; do you know?—Because we found that in other things we lost so much money. For instance, we tried basket-making at the Southampton Labour Home, because that is near the centre of the strawberry growing country, and we thought we could make strawberry baskets, I will not say with a profit, but at any rate without losing much. After trying it for some time, we found we were undersold by the strawberry baskets that came from abroad, which were made with cheap labour and where they had an abundant supply of osiers and other material. So that was abandoned. We could not compete against them as it cost so much and we had to give it up.

Failure of Church Army's attempt at basket-making.

93678. Now let us go on to the King's Labour Tents. Those, I understand, are only started in very severe Labour weather, and I see that a man receives a pint of soup and a piece of bread when entering. What work are these men put to—is it wood-chopping again?—Yes.

93679. Then I see that a man gets a similar meal when the work is finished, and that he is also given an order common for a bed; is that what you were alluding to just now?—These orders are given for common lodging-houses.

Orders for common lodging-houses.

93680. Do you select your lodging-houses?—Yes; and I must say one finds, as a rule, that the keepers of common lodging-houses are most considerate and kind to the men whom we send.

93681. In your receiving homes, you have told us that you take the men in for three days, but they may stay longer?—Yes, and they do stay longer.

Receiving Homes.

93682. Do you lose on those receiving homes?—Not at Banner Street. That, which is our largest receiving home, is so well managed by Mr. and Mrs. Hodder, that we do not lose.

93683. I should like now to go to the labour farms for a minute. You had two farms I think you said?—Yes. We had one in Surrey, Green's Farm at Newdigate. That was first used as a place to send inebriates to. We used to take in inebriates who had been sentenced to lengthened terms of confinement in an inebriates' asylum; but we had to give it up, we found it was so expensive, although we were well paid by the authorities responsible for sending the men. It took about twelve inebriates to do one agricultural labourer's work.

Inebriates farm in Surrey.

93684. Do you lose much on your Labour Farms?—I have not had an opportunity of going through the figures, but Mr. Lloyd Jones has prepared a Statement about Hempstead. I ought to say that Hempstead was given to us. It was a derelict place then, and it was in a dreadful state when we had it; but we have used it for the last two or three years as a training home for emigrants.

Church Army labour farm at Hempstead.

93685. Is there any paper put in as regards the results of the labour farm?—Mr. Lloyd Jones has prepared one, and it shall be sent to the Commission. I think I ought to say about that farm that it has been almost entirely used for emigration purposes (*see Appendix No. XI. (F.)*).

93686. Have you got anybody on the other side who looks after your emigrants?—Yes. I know all about the emigration work, because I am the secretary of the Committee; that is my particular work. We have an agent, Canon Renand, at Montreal; and a Church Army

Emigration by Church Army.

Mr. William Frederick Hamilton, K.C., and Mr. Walter Lloyd Jones. Captain, Captain Blake, at Toronto. We have another Church Army Captain, Captain Stephens, at Winnipeg.

93687. On the whole, are you satisfied with it?—Perfectly satisfied. After the many statements that were made with regard to the lack of employment in Canada, we wrote out to Captain Blake at Toronto to ask him whether there were many of our emigrants who were out of work. He wrote back to say that only about twelve of the number who had passed through his hands were out of work, and that he was getting work for them. They have done excellently, and they were people as a rule of very good character, judging from the letters we have had. We always take, not a legal agreement, but some agreement from the men that they will repay a proportion of the fare that we advance. During the year ending September 30th, 1907, we received from men who had gone out there over £1,200 on account of the money we had advanced them.

93688. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) How many men would that mean?—We sent out altogether this year a little over 1,500 people, some of whom were women and children who went with the married men.

93689. Shall we have the figures to show the proportion of women and children?—They are given in par. 56.

93690. (*Mr. Gardiner.*) Does that £1,200 refer to the 1,500 persons sent out?—Not altogether; during the year 1907, £5,203 was advanced to persons emigrated, and out of £1,736, the instalment due to be repaid, £759, has been up to Sept. 30th, and £400 since that date. In addition, £456 was received for money advanced in 1906.

93691. (*Chairman.*) Apparently the Farm Colony has been a decided success, judging by the results?—Yes, so far as training the men goes; but it has not been a financial success. As I say, Hempstead was in a derelict condition, but it is now being put into good condition, and we are hoping that in future we shall nearly balance expenditure. The difficulty, of course, is that we have to deal with men who are really not agricultural labourers and that they do not do so much as an agricultural labourer would.

93692. Who are the persons who superintend your Labour Depots and this Farm Colony?—The Church Army captains.

93693. They are influenced a good deal, I suppose, by religious motives?—Yes; but we consider other qualifications as well, because a man may make a very good Evangelist and a very bad head of a Labour Home. We keep a man as an Evangelist who is a good Evangelist and if he is not a good disciplinarian and able to exercise a good influence over the men in the Labour Homes, we do not send him there. We try to pick the men.

93694. It has been represented to us that men and women animated by a religious spirit do contrive to get a remarkable influence over the unemployed; if you were to extend your operations, do you think you would find a lack of persons who are ready to undertake that work?—I do not think we should. I should like very much to see, I will not say Church Army Labour Homes, but Labour Homes managed in somewhat the same way all over the country.

93695. Taking your own society, I suppose your operations have been rather extended of recent years, have they not?—Yes, they have.

93696. Have you found a difficulty in getting the right class of person, that is, a person of a certain practical capacity, who is at the same time animated with this altruistic spirit and a desire to benefit his fellow-creatures?—Are you referring to the committees?

93697. I am referring to the workers in personal contact with the men?—You should understand that those are paid, but they are paid very little. We sometimes find it a little difficult, but we think we could do it.

93698. I suppose you attach very great importance to it, do you not?—Very great importance indeed. May I say with regard to Glasgow that we have a Church Army Labour Home there, and I think the Established Church there has now started a Labour Home which they are managing on exactly the same lines. I do not see myself why this work should be confined to the Church of England; I do not see why a great many of our religious associations should not do the same kind of work.

93699. Have you been hampered, or have you found any difficulty at all, from having no powers of detention?—(*Mr. Lloyd Jones.*) I am not quite sure that it affects us, as our whole system has been based on voluntary work. But it must be recognised that a great many of the men who apply for help from societies like the Church Army would be benefited by detention. A number of the men physically unfit, and a number of them are undoubtedly workshirkers. Another trouble that I think might be lessened is the number of men who exploit various societies. I think we cannot help recognising that, that the trouble exists and it is at present quite impossible to check it. The Church Army tries to stop this by saying "If you leave us, you shall not come back under twelve months." But there is nothing to prevent a certain number of them going to other societies for two or three months, and I am afraid many of them do.

93700. Have you any persons sent you by boards of guardians or other authorities?—Yes. I have a return dealing with the men who have come to us from casual wards and workhouses in the London districts.

93701. You say "who have come," but I take it you mean who have been sent to you?—Yes. They have been sent to us from thirty-one workhouses in London, and from West Ham in Outer London. I will put in a table summarising the result. (*See Appendix, No. XI (H).*) We have had a total altogether of 590 from the workhouses, and 127 from the casual wards in London, excluding West Ham; and out of those we have found situations for seventy-five.

93702. That is over a period of how many years?—This is for a period of one year.

93703. Have any of those persons taken their departure?—Yes. It is all analysed in this table.

93704. And you have no power of detention?—We have no power of detention. A number have gone back to the workhouses.

93705. I understand from your evidence that there are a certain class to whom, if this method of training is to be used for their reformation, it would be necessary to apply some powers of detention?—Yes. I have read some of the evidence and the Report of the Committee on Vagrancy, and I think it would be a great help to us and a great help to our work if those men who are destitute and who can work but will not work were compelled to go to a Penal Colony, and were kept there for a considerable time, on very much the same terms as they are kept in Merxplas, in Belgium; except, of course, that Merxplas deals with criminals as well as with the destitute. I think if Penal Colonies of this kind were formed, the Church Army and other similar institutions would be able to deal with the unemployed who are willing to work and cannot get work.

93706. You seem to think that there are a considerable number of the unemployed who are willing to work and would be able to work if they were disciplined to it?—And if you could find work for them.

93707. That class you think you could deal with, but your efforts are hampered by idlers and others who are work-shy?—Yes.

93708. You take a considerable number of discharged prisoners, I think?—Yes.

93709. Do you mix those up with your other people?—Yes.

93710. Is there any objection to it?—I do not think so. (*Mr. Lloyd Jones.*) We find rather an objection the other way. At one time we had a small home where none but ex-prisoners were kept, and it was suggested to us that it was rather an interesting little nest where these men could plan sundry little *coups*, in the way of burglaries, &c., in the neighbourhood, I suppose. We have one institution which is set aside for ex-prisoners, but nearly all of the men live out, and I think we have only about eight or ten men living indoors, that is in London. We find employment for the star-class men, and I think last year we dealt with about 200 of them; but, as I say, nearly all those men are living at home, or living out, at any rate they are not living with the Church Army. We deal with a great number of ex-prisoners through the Labour Homes.

Results of
Hempstead
farm colony.

Qualifica-
tions of men
at head of
Labour
Homes.

Importance
of religious
spirit in
dealing with
the unem-
ployed.

Value of
power of
detention

Need of
penal
colonies

Dischar-
prisoner
dealt wi
Church
Army.

93711. If you were at all to be utilised as an agency for rehabilitating people of good character, or at least people who had not lost their character, though they may have had struggles to get employment, it would occur to one that they might more than dislike to be associated with ex-prisoners?—(Mr. Hamilton.) Yes, that is so.

93712. What is your answer to that?—You should understand that it is only single men who go into our Homes, and that the married men are dealt with differently—they never come into the Homes at all, as we help them in their own homes. We should welcome classification in the Labour Homes but under present circumstances it is not possible.

93713. Are there no ex-prisoners amongst these married men?—No, there are not, because they are only persons of good character. We have a society called the Friends of the Poor, and they sometimes help ex-prisoners. I know the case of a burglar who was sent to Canada and who is doing very well now—but not as a burglar. I do not want to say where he is, but he is earning very good wages, and his wife earns 35s. a week washing. I ought to say the Church Army declined to send him to Canada. I told the lady who wished to send him that we could have nothing at all to do with him, because under the Canadian Emigration Laws no person who has been convicted of a crime involving moral turpitude is allowed to land there, and if we sent such a person there and they discovered it, they would send him back at the expense of the Church Army. Of course, sometimes we are deceived, but we make it a rule now not to send out a person to Canada who has been convicted of a crime involving moral turpitude. If we have any doubt as to what is moral turpitude, we go and consult the Superintendent of Emigration. For instance, we had one case of a man who was convicted of going to an hotel and obtaining goods on credit; he was really a very respectable young man till he got into trouble. For that he was sentenced to twelve months' imprisonment. We thought that was a case in which there was no moral turpitude, and so we sent him over, and he is doing extremely well.

93714. Did this man pass through a farm Colony?—No; this particular man was a very good French scholar, and he is now working out there as a corresponding clerk, and he is doing very well.

93715. Do you work with the Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society?—Yes.

93716. Are the prisoners who come to you persons who have been as a rule some little time out of prison, or do they come to you directly?—Some come directly. Some do not.

93717. What is your experience of those prisoners; do you find them reclaimable as a rule?—Yes, many of them are quite reclaimable. (Mr. Lloyd Jones) 466 ex-prisoners were good cases last year. (Mr. Hamilton) Out of 1,762, 466 were good.

93718. I suppose the prisoners are in pretty good physical condition when you get them?—Yes. I have seen them come into the Church Army, and they appear to be in good physical condition.

93719. That would tend to be the rule with the men just discharged, would it not?—Yes.

93720. In that sense they would have an advantage over a man who is run down from lack of employment?—Yes.

93721. At the end of your Statement you have an Appendix G., (see Appendix No. XI. (G)), in which you make some suggestions in regard to Land Colonies?—Those really were Mr. Carlile's suggestions, and I think they could be very much simplified.

93722. We may just run down them. First of all, the paper deals with Compulsory State Land Colonies, which it is suggested should be divided into two classes?—With regard to that, may I say this? You know very well the nature of the Colony at Merxplas; there they deal with men whom we should class as rogues and vagabonds, I suppose; that is, they are destitute and always wandering about. If a vagrant is found in Belgium, as I understand, he is apprehended and sent somewhere or other, I think to a house of refuge or to

Merxplas; that would depend upon the magistrate who hears the case. If we had an institution like Merxplas to which magistrates could send men who really could work and would not work and detain them for a minimum period, say of two years, I think that would be a very useful alteration of our law.

93723. Your Class 1 would be at the bottom of the Compulsory or Penal Colony?—Yes. I would say that those men who did not behave well should have the minimum diet and should not be allowed to buy little things for themselves; but those who worked well should have money or tokens given to them, as they have at Merxplas, and should be allowed to purchase extras to eat; they should also have better sleeping accommodation.

93724. Now we will pass on to the Temporary Voluntary State Colonies?—Personally, I am not responsible for this Appendix, and I think I would only have Penal Colonies. State Colonies for the first class, and I would not have Voluntary State Colonies; I would let that work be done by such institutions as the Church Army and Labour Homes.

93725. The State should have a Penal Colony with powers of detention?—Yes; and voluntary associations should have the Voluntary Homes.

93726. Is it your idea, or Mr. Carlile's, that some of the existing workhouses in the rural districts should be turned into a sort of Farm Colonies?—I think that should be done. There are far too many bodies at the present time dealing with the administration of the Poor Law. In the old days there were only parishes; then there were unions. I think probably if the body was still larger, if it was a county body, administration might be much simplified and economies might be effected.

93727. I see that in all these proposals you suggest that men should be credited with a certain sum for their work?—Yes.

93728. That, of course, does not exist under the Poor Law?—No. I think it is an encouragement to work if they find that they are to get something for it, it is one of the strong points in our Labour Home system.

93729. That is your experience?—Yes. We say to many men in our Labour Homes: "Before we can send you out to Canada you must earn a surplus of £2—£1 for an outfit, and £1 to take with you." That is a very great stimulus.

93730. So that when they go out, or are able to go out, they have something to start with?—Yes.

93731. Dealing with the Church Army Voluntary Labour Homes or Colonies the paper suggests that these institutions should be supported by "(i.) State grants for maintenance of men sent from the State Colonies; and (ii.) State and municipal grants for persons from workhouses and casual wards"?—I do not think there need be all this elaborate classification. I think myself if you have two great classes—State Penal Labour Colonies and Voluntary Labour Homes or Labour Colonies—philanthropy will be able to deal with the latter.

93732. Should you suggest that these Voluntary Homes should be supported by or get grants from public funds for the work done?—I think they should to a small extent. If they had that, it seems to me that they must have powers of detention; at any rate if public authorities were to send persons to them, I should think it would be well to have some powers of detention. If you send a man to a Labour Home and he behaves badly, I should think that he should then go to the Penal Colony, and the local authority, or whoever pays the grants, should only pay the grant in respect of the number of days during which the man is at the Home—in other words, if he goes to the Penal Colony the grant should cease.

93733. (Sir Samuel Provis.) It would not be in fact a grant; it would be a payment for maintenance?—It would be a payment for maintenance, and I think myself it would be very much cheaper for a union to do that, than to try and support the men in the workhouses.

93734. (Chairman.) The suggestions you make seem to me very much to depend on whether you can get the class of persons you want to work these institutions; otherwise there is no particular advantage in voluntary associations undertaking what the State can do; and so

Mr. William Frederick Hamilton, K.C., and Mr. Walter Lloyd Jones.

24 Feb., 1908.

Mr. William Frederick Hamilton, K.C., and Mr. Walter Lloyd Jones. I come back to my old question: Do you think you can get persons influenced by that sort of devotion to their fellows who would, for moderate payment, be able to undertake these duties?—Yes, I think so.

24 Feb., 1903. 93735. You have so far found no lack?—No. Of course, we have been hampered; our funds, after all, are only limited; but I see no reason at all why there should not be these Labour Homes in every town.

Voluntary colonies.

93736. As regards your own officials, should you say that the inducement was rather a wish to do good than the pay?—Yes.

93737. The pay is sufficient for maintenance, but not much more?—That is so. Some of the men and their wives are most devoted workers. For instance, Mr. Colin F. Campbell suggested that prisoners' wives and children should be looked after while the prisoners are in prison, the wife of Mr. Hodder who manages Banner Street, is doing most extraordinary work for the wives and children—keeping the homes together while the men are in jail. We gave a tea-party to 2,000 of the wives and children of prisoners just lately; many people take a great interest in the work, and we are able to keep these homes together while the husbands are in prison.

Proper authority to administer Labour Colonies and other Poor Law institutions.

93738. There are some interesting suggestions in your Appendix G, (see Appendix No. XI. (G)), about the reorganisation of the Poor Law, and I think they are suggestions that speak for themselves. You suggest, as regards the management of the Poor Law, that the Labour Colonies and other Poor Law institutions should be administered by a Board of Commissioners under the Local Government Board; that is Mr. Carlile's idea, I suppose?—Yes. I have discussed this with him frequently. He thinks the work would be very much better done by a Central Board than by the guardians, and that it would be done more economically and more thoroughly.

Advantage of Receiving Homes and Labour Tents over casual wards.

93739. Practically, he would put all Poor Law Institutions under a Central Board?—Yes. There is just one thing I would like to say about Receiving Homes and King's Labour Tents. I do not believe that these are ideal institutions unless you can pass the men on to Labour Homes; but in my opinion they are better than casual wards. When a man goes to a casual ward he waits about in the afternoon—I have seen them at the Strand Union in the winter—sometimes two or three hours. Next morning, when he might be going out to find work, he cannot go out because he has to do his task. I would suggest that it would be very much better to allow him to do his task the evening before, so that he can get out the first thing in order to try and get work. All I can say for our Receiving Homes and King's Labour Tents is that they are better than the casual ward; they do allow a man a chance of getting employment.

Objections to free food and shelters.

93740. What is your view about the Shelters?—Personally, I would like free food and free shelters done away with altogether.

93741. What is your objection to them? Is it that they aggregate people together of the same class?—Partly that, and partly this—there are many men who seem to have sunk to such a condition that if they can get free food and free shelter they have no inducement to work and they live a very low life. To those men a prison is almost a palace.

System at vogue at King's Labour Tents.

93742. Would you say that your Receiving Homes avoid some of the faults of the Shelters?—Yes, because we do not give them free food. Our plan is this: The Captain who is in charge of the King's Labour Tents goes down to the Embankment and there he distributes about 800 tickets per night. These tickets entitle a man at the time stated, to go up to the King's Labour Tents where he gets a bowl of soup and a piece of bread; he works for that two or three hours wood-chopping; he then gets some more soup and bread, and an order for a bed at a lodging-house. They are taken on in shifts of three hours. I think a man must really want a bed and something to eat, if he is willing to wait about and do that work.

93743. In the King's Labour Tents there is no food given without work, then?—No, except this, that when a man comes in of course he is famishing, and he is given something to eat before he starts. But he never goes away without doing his work.

93744. Do you give food and lodging gratuitously on tickets?—No; never, it is a fixed rule that we do not.

93745. What are these tickets used for then that are purchaseable?—They entitle a man to go to a Labour Home and work. May I say one thing about that? It is rather strange, but these tickets are given out in very large numbers, and if every person who had a ticket went and applied at a Labour Home for work, he would not be able to get it; but as a matter of fact only a very small percentage of the tickets are presented. It is the same in Germany. What it means is that a man who asks for assistance really wants money, and he does not want food tickets or labour tickets.

93746. Then, of course, a great many people who buy those tickets do not get rid of them all?—That is quite true.

93747. Coming back to the re-organisation of the Poor Law, do you generally agree with Mr. Carlile on those points?—I agree, except that I think his suggestions too elaborate.

93748. I suppose that what Mr. Carlile thought would be better done by a central board would be classification?—Yes.

93749. And I suppose you attach great importance to classification?—Yes, I do.

93750. His system, of course, would necessitate a tax which he proposes to generally levy through the Inland Revenue authorities?—Yes; but I think it had better be left to experts to decide how a tax is to be levied.

93751. Of course, if the administration is central, it would be difficult to maintain it by a local rate?—Yes.

93752. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) In Paragraph 17 of your Statement you give us some figures showing why people are unemployed, and the first reason you give is "through fault of worker"; could you tell us what fault is really meant there?—Sometimes a man is dismissed either because of inattention to his work, or because he has left work without giving adequate notice, or because he has been drunk while he is at work. We sometimes find work for men and take great trouble over them, and then, after they have been working a little time, they come back again, and we ask: "Why have you left that situation?" Then it turns out that they have done something which they ought not to have done, and so they have been dismissed.

93753. Would any of these cases have been caused by labour disputes?—No, I do not think so.

93754. I understand that you have verified these figures?—Yes. We send to the employers to know why the men are out of work.

93755. So that the bulk of the men, according to your figures, are out of employment practically through no fault of their own?—Yes.

93756. Then their unemployment would have something to do with causes that the individual man could not control?—Yes, economic causes.

93757. That you have verified in the case of most of the people who have come to you?—Yes.

93758. Then about the actual work that you do, so far as I can gather it is in the main firewood-chopping?—Yes.

93759. The Chairman asked you a little about some evidence which we have had, which is in flat contradiction to your Statements, in reference to the effect of firewood-chopping by your organisation. We have had the Secretary of the Firewood Choppers Trade Association before us, and he tells us that you have forced out of employment 1,000 self-supporting work-people?—Of course that I have no means at all of checking. It is quite possible that many of these people, for after all, firewood-chopping is a very low form of hand labour, are being employed on higher kinds of labour.

93760. I suppose you know that they went to the President of the Local Government Board and put certain statements before him?—No, I do not know.

93761. You do not know that he has issued a circular to the Poor Law Boards about it?—No, but Mr. Lloyd Jones may know (*Mr. Lloyd Jones.*) The question of the effect on the skilled wood-chopper, as you know, has been very much to the front for several years. The Autumn before last the Secretary of the Firewood Choppers Union—not the society which has been agitating so much, and which consists almost entirely of manufacturers and not workmen—came to us, and the question put to him was this: "Do you accuse us of under-selling?" "No." "Do you accuse us of under-paying?" "No."

Poor Law re-organisation.

Unemployment through fault of work.

Church Army wood-chopping and question competition with private firewood traders.

Then he was asked: "What is it you want?" He said: "We want you to give up this work." We pointed out to him that that was impossible. Now that man could only speak for 400 or 500 men who were members of his union, and naturally I think it is fair to assume that he represents a very small proportion of the wood-choppers. As a matter of fact, the wood-chopping industry cannot in its present condition be controlled by any society of workers. We have no quarrel with the Association, but the facts are very difficult to get at. If you care to inquire into the facts privately, I should be glad to inform you, but there are many points that one does not like to make public statements about. For instance, it is a fact that we buy at times, when we are pressed, from members of that self-same Association at a less price than they profess to fix as the market price.

93762. Might that not be because they are so glad to do it at any price?—One man said: "I can sell to you at 1d. less, because it pays me on the cartage to send 5,000 to one place, instead of having to deliver 200 here and 100 there; I can afford to do it, and I carry on my business in my own way."

93763. Of course, there was a difference in the circumstances and the conditions under which he supplied to you?—Yes. May I point out another thing? We have felt for some time that, owing to the increase in the price of wood, there ought to be an increase in the selling price. Only last week I sent two officers out at the request of the secretary to see what they could ascertain about the selling price in the West End districts. We found one man, a very large manufacturer of firewood, delivering firewood bundles out at Harrow at 2s. 9d. The Church Army could not possibly afford to do that; neither could any other trader under ordinary circumstances, and it shows how difficult it is to fix a regular trade price.

93764. He probably would answer that he is driven to do that, because of the fearful competition that you have set up?—The majority of these men are driven to do this for this reason, that the firewood industry is very peculiar. The majority of the large firewood manufacturers buy firewood because they are obliged and not because they want it; the people on the other side sell wood that is fit for box-making and wood that is fit for fire-woodmaking all together, and if a man wants the wood for one thing he has to take it for both. The result is that a great deal of stuff is landed which is not useful for box-making and which a man has to dispose of for firewood. That man pays say £4 10s. to £5 for a fathom for this new wood and he must dispose of it. How is he going to compete with another man who is using old wood, (which is preferred by many for firewood purposes) and which can be bought here in London for £2 or £3 a fathom? It is no use that man complaining about the competition. The raw material differs from 25 to more than 100 per cent. in cost and he cannot get any more for his bundles simply because they are made of new wood and many makers quite ignore these facts. (Mr. Hamilton) I suppose we must admit that if we do wood chopping on a large scale, we must compete with labour outside the Church Army. It must be so. All that we take care to do is this—that we do not undersell outside people.

93765. That is just a point that we have got very clear evidence upon on the other side. It may not be true, but we have had a very clear statement put in print before us to this effect: "Where a shopkeeper has been paying, say 3s. per 100, the Army will supply at 2s. 10d. or 2s. 8d. and will give a larger bundle"?—(Mr. Lloyd Jones) That is not true.

93766. Here is another statement: "In order to prove how impossible it is to compete with the Army-made bundles of firewood, I would inform you that a trade made 13-inch bundle of firewood, made from the cheapest material obtainable, costs 3s. per 100 to produce, of which 1s. 4d. represents labour alone, and on which price there is no profit, yet the Church Army sell 15-inch bundles at 2s. 8d. per 100, and I am informed at even lower prices the main object being to get rid of the enormous quantities made in their homes"?—That is quite false; it is a misapprehension. In the first place, the price for the 13-inch bundle, which is not 13 inches but 12½ inches, though the trade call it 13 inches, has been 2s. 9d. for years. I have been with the Church Army twelve years and twelve years ago the selling price of the 13-inch bundle, which was then rather larger than it is now, for they have shortened the

length of the stick, was 2s. 9d. and the raw material was cheaper than at present, and last winter the price was 2s. 9d. to 2s. 10d., so that practically the price has remained the same all the way along. Three shillings is not correct. The majority of the Church Army bundles are sold direct to private customers at 3s. 6d., and the proportion which is sold to shopkeepers is ridiculously small in comparison with the output.

93767. If you sell to private people direct, there is no need for the shopkeeper?—We cannot be accused of selling direct to the consumer at an increased price, and also of underselling the trade.

93768. They challenge your statement, and I should think their statement ought to go in to the Church Army, because it is a case of hard swearing?—(Mr. Hamilton) If that statement is sent to the Church Army, I will undertake that it shall be looked into.

93769. They say that you have titled canvassers, ladies of title, one of whom was presented with a piece of furniture for her earnest work on behalf of the Army in getting customers?—I never heard about it, but I will inquire into that too.

93770. It is here in print?—(Mr. Lloyd Jones.) I think it is not worth serious attention.

93771. You are both very reliable looking gentlemen, but the other man looked a very reliable man too?—(Mr. Hamilton.) May I say that I will have it looked into, and have it answered.

93772. I have always understood from Mr. Carlile that he maintains that you pay as much for getting it done?—More.

93773. And that you charge as much?—Yes.

93774. He has always maintained that the Army pay, taking everything to-day, was as high as the ordinary reliable wood-chopper got, and that you get as much as, and sometimes more than the ordinary people do for your wood; but I think in face of this document from the Firewood Trade Association, we ought to ask you to give us chapter and verse for that?—I will do so with pleasure.

93775. Can you tell me whether it is true that a lady of title has been given a present by the Church Army, because of the success of her endeavours in getting orders?—I understand this arose in a joke. There was a Church Army bazaar, and there were bundles of firewood there, and a lady of very distinguished rank was there. Mr. Carlile playfully said: "You have been very successful in helping us, may I present you with a small table." It was a joke.

93776. She did get it, anyhow?—Yes.

93777. Then it is said that part of the wages of the men are paid in kind?—That is so. May I say that I have given evidence on that point before the Truck Act Committee, so that I do not think it is worth while repeating that. I think I satisfied the Lord Advocate that we did not come within the Truck Act, because there was a certain section of the Truck Act which exempted us.

93778. I am not saying that you did come within it, but you do pay these men in kind?—We charge them 6s. for board, lodging and laundry.

93779. That is rather low, is it not?—I do not think we overcharge them.

93780. No, I should not think you did. Would it be true to say that the Church Army pay a price of 8d. per hundred for making 15-inch bundles of firewood, when the trade union price would be 1s. 3d.?—(Mr. Lloyd Jones.) No, it would not be true.

93781. Could you tell me what is your price per 100 for a 15-inch bundle?—I am not quite sure that there are any 15-inch bundles now made by the Church Army. The Church Army bundles are 13 inches and 14 inches, the bulk of them being 13 inches. The Church Army price is the same as the trade price—1d. per inch. I think one thing ought to be made quite clear, and that is, to all married men coming to work for the Church Army, the basis of the pay is 1d. per inch, which is the trade price as far as there is any trade price, but, unfortunately, it does not obtain all round. With regard to the men who are engaged in the Labour Homes, a percentage is stopped from the men for the excessive waste they make, otherwise they are all based upon the 1d. per inch scale.

93782. Would they be single men in the Labour

Mr. William Frederick Hamilton, K.C., and Mr. Walter Lloyd Jones

24 Feb., 1908.

Question of underselling by Church Army in fire-wood trade.

The Church Army and the alleged unfair competition with the fire-wood trade.

Which any wood-chipping and competition of private wood choppers.

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Mr. William Frederick Hamilton, K.C., and Mr. Walter Lloyd Jones.

24 Feb., 1908.

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Homes?—Yes, and they are living with us. The Church attitude towards the men is this: "We bear the loss on your board and lodging, and we bear the loss in carrying on the trade, but you cannot expect us to bear the loss on your excessive waste in making as well."

93783. So that really they do get a little less?—They do get a little less, as a matter of fact, in that way. The suggestion has been made that if this is a technical point in regard to the rate of pay in the Labour Homes, we should increase that and also increase the charge for the board and lodging. But the Church Army's contention is that the firewood trade is only fairly entitled to protest against the Church Army if their methods of production enable them to undersell, which of course they do not. The relationship between the Church Army and the inmates of its Labour Homes is a very peculiar one, because it is not that of the ordinary employer and employed, for the simple reason that the Church Army is not making a profit in the case of these men; for instance, the net loss on these men last year was £9,000. (Mr. Hamilton.) The important thing is that we try not to undersell the trade.

93784. (Mr. Phelps.) Your contention is this, that you sell at a price which is the price at which the trade sell, but how that price is made up is a matter of indifference?—It is quite immaterial.

93785. (Mr. Lansbury.) But, on the other hand, if a large number of very philanthropic people put not only their money in it, but their energies also into getting customers for the Church Army, it would be rather an unfair competition with the ordinary person. Supposing you started making boots in that same way, and ladies of title and other people interested in your work got you customers; you might ruin the boot trade?—(Mr. Lloyd Jones.) I think that the question with regard to the lady—

93786. I will leave out her, and I will say the general body of your supporters?—I think the methods of the Church Army for obtaining this work are the same as those of any other people engaged in a similar business. Naturally the Church Army would come to you in your neighbourhood and say, "We are helping so many of your men, give us your orders."

93787. I was coming to that, because this is so not only in a district like the West End where the well-to-do people live, but in a place like Bow. We are all canvassed, everybody is canvassed, and we are canvassed on the plea that philanthropic work is being done?—Yes.

93788. I only want to point out that if that were done in industries other than firewood chopping, you might have exactly the same thing happening in them as has happened in the firewood trade?—(Mr. Hamilton.) May I point out that in this case it is the middleman who suffers and not the labourer. The labourer gets just the same wages.

93789. It is another set of labourers who are getting the work. You displace one set and you employ others. I will put this to you. It is admitted, I take it, that you do not decrease the volume of work, but that you simply shift it; on the other hand, the point I am making is that while you have not decreased it, you have not increased it?—I do not suppose the people who buy from us consume more firewood in order to increase their orders. (Mr. Lloyd Jones.) There is rather a curious point here which I would like to bring home to the members of the Commission. I am only speaking of my personal experience. Twelve years ago, it was quite a difficulty to get firewood in the West End. Many shopkeepers stocked firewood for the convenience of customers rather than for the profit it brought (it takes up so much storage room that in many shops it does not pay to keep). The consequence was, they did not encourage the business. The Church Army has made it so easy for the consumer to obtain these goods that the consumption has greatly increased—it may be wasted, but the fact remains that more wood is used for firelighting.

93790. That might also be due to your philanthropic methods? People might say, "We will assist the Church Army by burning more firewood," I mean I do not think you have shown there is an economic argument for the increase?—(Mr. Hamilton.) You may take my admission that you cannot deal in any commodity without coming into competition with other people.

93791. I only want it to be emphasised that that is

true of the Church Army, and of anything else of that nature that may be undertaken, whether by a public authority or by a private body?—Certainly.

93792. (Mr. Benthams.) Could we have a proper balance sheet, showing the cost of the materials and what you pay your men?—I have a number of balance sheets here of the individual Homes, which I should be glad to put in.

93793. (Mr. Lansbury.) That is what we should like?—Very good; they are all full balance sheets.

93794. (Mr. Benthams.) If the balance sheet for the principal Labour Home could be put in evidence, that would probably suit the purpose. We cannot possibly, from the figures you have given us in your Statement, bring out what has been paid in material and what has been paid in wages, nor what you get for it?—Very good, I will hand these in (handing in balance sheets). (See Appendices No. XI. (I.) and (J.).)

93795. (Mr. Lansbury.) Now about the Banner Street Home being self-supporting; what does that exactly mean?—We pay no rent for Banner Street, because that is a building which belongs to the Houseless Poor Society.

93796. Are there any rates on it?—Yes.

93797. Are the rates paid before you reckon that it is self-supporting?—Yes.

93798. What kind of men have you there, are they single men, or married men?—They are single men.

93799. Are they all single men?—Yes.

93800. Is the work that they do all wood-chopping?—Yes; but there we have some power; we have electric motors there for sawing wood but not for chopping or tying.

93801. So it is not done by hand?—It is not all hand labour there.

93802. It is done on up-to-date lines?—More up-to-date than the other Labour Homes. (Mr. Lloyd Jones.) There is not working space there for hand labour. (Mr. Hamilton.) That is our difficulty. We are thinking of taking a bigger place. We should be glad to employ more on the work than can work now because there is not room for them in the yard.

93803. Banner Street is run more like a commercial concern?—It is so far only as the woodchopping industry is concerned.

93804. Where machinery can do the work, the men are not engaged on it?—That is so with regard to sawing only.

93805. What about the other places?—In the King's Labour Tents there is no machinery at all; it is all hand work.

93806. So that Banner Street cannot be compared with your other Homes; that is a point I want to make?—Just so.

93807. It is a matter of opinion probably, but you said it was not right to start a new industry if you could; surely it would be better to start a new industry?—I did not say that.

93808. I understood you to say it?—You are quite right, I did say it, but in this way: Our money is entrusted to us by charitable people, and we ought not to speculate with that money, as we might lose it all.

93809. I only suggest to you that it might be worth while to speculate with a portion of it in trying to find a new industry, rather than sticking at this one?—I quite agree, if only you could suggest some new industry which we could start. I wish we could do it. I think it is a defect in our work that we have not a larger number of industries in which to employ the men who come to us.

93810. Do you know anything about the mortality amongst emigrants? We hear of the successful ones, but are there people able to tell you how many survive? Some die, the children especially, I understand?—We only began emigrating just after 1904-5 when there was so very much distress, and our experience is that emigration is the best way of dealing with unemployment, and that nearly all our emigrants have done well.

93811. Have the bulk of them been single men or married men?—The bulk have been single, but a number have been married.

93812. I am trying to get some figures as to the number of people, especially children, who really survive the Canadian winters?—Do you mean who are alive now.

93813. Yes?—I will try to inquire. I did not hear

that there was any unusual mortality, in fact most of the letters we have say that Canada is very much healthier than the place from where they have come.

93814. For those of course who are strong and can stand it; still, if you can get any figures, I should be glad of them?—I will try to get them if I can, certainly.

As to this the Witnesses subsequently sent the following note:—

With reference to Mr. Lansbury's question on infant mortality in Canada, I have enquired from our officer in Winnipeg, who states that so far as he can ascertain there is no abnormal mortality amongst the children of emigrants. I have also received a letter on the point from the Assistant Superintendent of Emigration in London, who says there is no excess of mortality of the children of emigrants over that of other children in Canada, and that there is no justification for the statement that children emigrated to Canada are more subject to fatal diseases than children born in the Dominion, unless it should be in isolated cases where children have been born of parents who themselves were not free from organic diseases.

93815. As I understand it, the main opinion you have about Appendix G, (see Appendix No. XI. (G)), is that only the vagrant colony, the colony for the very worst class, should be under State control?—Yes.

93816. Have you formed any opinion as to the number of that class and what percentage they bear to the total?—From our experience I do not think the percentage is so very large.

93817. Do you think it is quite small?—(Mr. Lloyd Jones.) I think you are looking at it from rather a different standpoint. Our statistics deal with selected cases to start with. For instance, we say we will not keep a man unless that man is physically fit to maintain his place on the labour market after we have succeeded in restoring him to health, and have helped him to get back there. (Mr. Hamilton.) And we will not have him, unless he will stay three days in the Home and work.

93818. Have you any statistics to help us in arriving at the number of men who are work-shy, as you call them?—I do not know that any of our statistics would help you in that, but I should think that the number that should be sent to the Penal Labour Colony would not be so very large. At Merxplas they have about 5,000 to deal with, but then that includes criminals.

93819. Would you say that it is any use having a Penal Colony merely as a Penal Colony, unless it offered some hope to the men who got there?—I think a Penal Colony should offer some hope. I think in a Penal Colony there should be power given to some one, when a man is behaving well, to release him.

93820. What would happen to him when you have built him up and made him a decent citizen; where is he to go to then?—If he cannot go out into the world and keep himself, let him go into a voluntary colony for a while; let him go from the State Penal Colony to the voluntary colony.

93821. I understand you to argue that organisations like the Church Army, if this small fraction were taken out, could deal with the rest; did you really mean us to understand that?—What I think is this, that if you take out the vagrants, the Church Army and other religious and philanthropic associations, with some aid from either the local authority or the State, could deal with the honest unemployed.

93822. There are 25,000 registered in London alone just now?—So I see.

93823. Do you think the religious organisations could deal with those?—I think they might.

93824. Why have they not done it?—At present we are paying very large amounts for poor rates, and the feeling is that every man who is unemployed can go to the workhouse and get employment; but if a radical alteration were made in the Poor Law, by the establishment of these Labour Penal Colonies and the establishment of these Voluntary Colonies on a large scale, I think the problem could be dealt with.

93825. What I want to find out is why it should be done by the Church Army or the Salvation Army or any religious organisation, and not by the community through the State?—My view is that men who do the work from love of it and not because it is a part of official

routine, would do it better. What you want to do is this—you want to take an individual interest in the men and to become their friend, and help them. You cannot expect a State official to do that, or else the relieving officers would have done it long ago.

93826. Do you think the bulk of the relieving officers do not take any interest in their cases?—That is my impression.

93827. What would be the cause?—I think they get hardened.

93828. That is because they run up against the bad side of life all the time?—I do not know.

93829. Do you think that the Church Army official would not also get accustomed to this kind of thing?—Judging by our experience, the Church Army official in charge of a Labour Home still takes a personal interest in the men and does his best for them.

93830. We have an established clergy, have we not?—Certainly.

93831. I suppose they take an interest in the work?—Yes, many of the clergy do help.

93832. Why should not the State service, the social service, do exactly the same thing?—I do not look upon a clergyman quite as an official of the State.

93833. He has his income assured for doing a certain amount of work. What is the difference between a man getting his wages from the Church Army for doing philanthropic work, and getting his wages from the community for doing what you probably would call social work for the community?—I am afraid I do not quite understand the question. We are now going into collectivism or Socialism.

93834. This is right at the bottom of the question. Excuse me, but you have been telling us this morning that your scheme will give us very much better men?—Yes, I think so.

93835. I want to know why? I put it to you that the Established Church has a service of clergymen who are paid at settled rates, and most of us think they do their work or try to do their work for the love of their work. I want to know whether that is so?—May I suggest that the work of a clergyman really deals with the souls rather than the bodies of men? Speaking for myself I do not believe unless you can reform the moral nature of a bad man that you will ever make him a very good citizen.

93836. You have told us that the very bad men are to go to the State, and to be dealt with by it—that is where I think the weakness of your position is—and that it is the good men that are to be dealt with by the philanthropic people?—May I say this, that directly this bad man, who will not work, but who ought to work, shows any sign of improvement, he might go to a Voluntary Labour Colony, where that little spark would be fanned and by-and-by it would burn, so that he would do very much better.

93837. I suggest to you that badness is never overcome by harsh methods or penal methods, but that it is more likely to be overcome by the methods that you are trying to advocate?—When I say that I believe in a Penal Colony, I mean that there should be opportunities given for a man to show that he really was a better character, and that he was working well. If that were the case, he should be released and he should go into these Voluntary Labour Colonies.

93838. I only want finally to suggest to you that this is the colony which requires all the love and consideration and sympathy, rather than the colony where the good men and women are to be?—May I say about that that the Church Army has prison missions, and that we send a number of our very best Church Army captains to hold missions in prisons and to do our best for the prisoners. If you will look at the report of the prison department you will see that very much good has resulted. Besides that, our Honorary Social Secretary, Mr. Cecil Campbell, is allowed to see convicts privately and to make arrangements to meet them when they come out, and we try to find employment for them. We do this work for them, and we would do exactly the same for the Penal State Colony if we had the chance.

93839. The colony which would need all the altruism is the colony where the worst are?—We should try to put the same altruism into work done in that colony as we do in our other work. We should be very glad indeed if we had the same opportunities of going into the State Penal Colonies that we have of going into the prisons.

Mr. William Frederick Hamilton, K.C., and Mr. Walter Lloyd Jones.

Possibility of religious and philanthropic organisations dealing with the unemployed.

Mr. William Frederick Hamilton, K.C., and Mr. Walter Lloyd Jones. 93840. (*Mr. Bentham.*) In Paragraph 22 you refer to a bonus paid of from 50 to 100 per cent.—Yes.

93841. I suppose that is a bonus over and above the regular rate of payment for work done, according to the size of the families?—Yes, they get piecework rate just the same, and then in addition to that they have this bonus of from 50 to 100 per cent., depending on the number of dependents upon them.

93842. Have you any printed scale showing what a man is entitled to in the way of bonus? For instance, a single man would be paid his 1d. per inch for the bundles?—Yes, but we do not have single men in these homes at all. These are the married men's depots; they do not live there at all.

93843. They simply go there to work?—Yes.

93844. And the wage then is not a fixed wage per bundle, it varies according to the number in the family?—They are paid a fixed wage per bundle, and to this is added this particular bonus.

93845. It does not run so much per bundle?—No.

93846. Is the bonus a fixed amount per day?—If he earns 1s. 6d., we will say, a man might have a bonus of another 1s. 6d., that would be 3s. In order to fix the bonus he first of all has to earn the money at piecework. I remember two men came complaining that they could only earn 1s. 4d. and 1s. 3d. at the labour yard; and it was pointed out to them that a skilful wood-chopper could with ease earn 4s. a day without bonus. Then one of them said: "But was I put on piecework? When he was told "Yes," he said "I have been very badly used. If you had told me I had been put on piecework. I could have earned two or three times the money." That is why we put them on piecework.

93847. You say that no person is allowed to earn more than 3s. 4d. per day in London including the bonus?—Yes.

93848. Why should you give the bonus if a man could earn 3s. 4d. without the bonus?—Some of them do it. Some of them who are honest say: "I do not want the bonus, I can earn 3s. 4d.; put me on as a skilled wood-chopper and I can earn more;" and we allow him to do it then.

93849. Of course, they each get to their limit of 3s. 4d.?—No, some get to the limit of 3s. 4d. Some can reach it in half a day, but not many.

93850. What you mean is that without a bonus every man could not get to 3s. 4d. a day?—No. We find that the average earnings in the Labour Homes come to between 12s. and 13s., about 12s. 8d., for five days' full work and half a day on Saturday. The men to whom we give a bonus are married men, and we try and keep the home together while they are out of work.

Finances of Church Army's wood chopping. 93851. Taking the wood-chopping industry as separate from the rest of the receipts and expenditure of the various homes, would it be possible to give us a return? I notice in this balance sheet the whole of the receipts and expenditure are mixed up the one with the other, there is not a separate account for wood-chopping?—It would be possible certainly, the accounts would show it.

93852. Just a wood account?—Yes.

93853. It would show whether there is really a loss on every 100 bundles that are made, apart altogether from anything else?—Yes, we can show a wood account if the Commission would like it.

93854. So that we can see exactly what 100 bundles cost, what the men get in wages, what the wood costs, and then what the average price is?—Mr. Lloyd Jones suggests that after all we are traders, but I do not know why we should not give it.

93855. There would be no difficulty, I presume?—I do not think so.

As to this the witnesses subsequently sent the following note:—

With regard to the point in your letter that I promised Mr. Bentham that I would show exactly what 100 bundles of firewood cost; what the men get in wages; and what is the average selling price, I am sorry to say I am unable to show the cost, as on going into the matter I find that in the Homes the material varies so considerably in cost, and in the London Homes the wages for a large proportion of the bundles made are paid at the rate of from one and a half times to twice the trade rate of pay—being made by married men employed at our

depots (*see* Paragraph 22 of my Statement of Evidence), the bundles so made being sold through the Labour Homes. The wages total includes not only the cost of making, but also the money paid to men at the depot for stacking and handling the wood. In the Bow Labour Home, to which Mr. Lansbury referred, the cost of materials and wages exceeded the selling price.

Reference to the total figures sent you of the wood trade for the year 1907 shows that the sales realised £38,226, while the materials cost £23,779 and wage amounted to £13,507, making a total of £37,286. This left a margin of £940 for working expenses, such as motive power, repairs to plant, stable expenses, etc., which came altogether to £2,400. The officer's salary is not included in the wages above stated.

With regard to selling prices, taking one East and one West London Home as typical of the whole, the average selling price at the Bow Home for 1907 was 36 1d. per 100 bundles, the largest-sized bundles made being 14 inches and the smallest 10 inches, and all the material used being old wood. At the Marylebone Home only one sized bundle is made, viz., 15 inches, and the average selling price for 1907 was 41 2d. per 100, also all made from old wood.

I am not sure whether these particulars will answer Mr. Bentham's purpose, but I think they will clear up the point that the average selling prices of the Church Army compare more than favourably with trade prices.

93856. With regard to your Receiving Home, is there anything done at the Receiving Home in the way of returning men to their own homes and to their friends before they are drafted on to the colony?—Yes, they are called Receiving Homes, but you must not understand that every man who goes there is either restored to his friends or sent on to a Labour Colony. We cannot deal with so many.

93857. You say the man is free to go after breakfast on the second day?—We give a man at least three days' work.

93858. Not at least; you say he is free to go out after breakfast the morning after his admission, or he may stay three days?—He is free to go out if he likes to seek for work.

93859. Then any man may come and get a night's lodging practically free, if that is so?—He has to work.

93860. It does not say so here, does it? He may go out after breakfast the day after admission?—(*Mr. Lloyd Jones.*) The man has to work, it does not say when; a man when he comes in can work from the time he comes in in the afternoon. (*Mr. Hamilton.*) It is what I was suggesting: If a man in the casual ward could work the night before and be free to get out the next morning instead of being compelled to work when he might be finding work for himself, it would be better.

93861. This paragraph is not quite clear; it says: Each man on admission is compelled to take a bath and his clothing is fumigated, and he sleeps in a bed provided with the usual bedding. He works from 6 a.m. to 6 p.m., and is provided with four good meals during the day. He is free to go out after breakfast the morning after his admission, or he may stay for three days, working in return for board and lodging?—The answer is that he must do work for his board and lodging.

93862. And then he is not at liberty to go out?—I suppose he does it the evening before. (*Mr. Lloyd Jones.*) Besides, you cannot stop him, he walks out if he wishes to do so.

93863. Of course, many of these men who might be strangers would like to get back to their friends. If they were allowed to go out so soon it seems to me that they would not come under the personal observation of the man in charge, and there would be precious little chance of these people being restored to their homes and friends. Take a boy adrift in London of sixteen to eighteen years of age who gets into the Army Home one night. He may easily escape if he is allowed to go out without that influence being brought to bear which I understand is the object of your homes?—(*Mr. Hamilton.*) Yes, he may in that case. I think I said before, I look upon the Receiving Homes and the King's Labour Tents as being merely palliatives; they are very useful, and better than the casual ward, because they allow men a chance of getting employment; but personally I should be very glad indeed if we could do away altogether with this special distress work and have only Advantage of Church Army Home over casual wards.

Advantage
of Church
Army Homes
over casual
ward.

our Labour Homes. In speaking of Receiving Homes I am only referring to the cases which are not retained for more than three days.

93864. How do you mean they allow men to get work?—When a man goes into a casual ward he gets his night's lodging and food, and the next morning he has to perform an allotted task which takes him several hours. He is not allowed to leave until he has done that work. If he is a dock labourer, for instance, his chance of getting work for the day is gone; in many cases you can get work early in the morning, but cannot get it in the middle of the day, therefore, the people who have not been in the casual ward get the work in front of him.

93865. It is not quite clear to me that there is any difference between that and the Church Army Homes?—There is this difference, we make the man work the night before for his lodging.

93866. That would depend on what time he comes in, entirely?—No doubt, but that is the rule. It may, perhaps, be sometimes more merciful to break a rule, but our rule is that a man shall not receive anything either in the way of lodging or wage unless he works for it.

93867. That is exactly the same as a casual ward?—Except there is this difference: That we set him to work the evening before and the casual ward does not.

93868. That is only an incident?—It might be altered of course.

93869. It would depend entirely upon the time he applied for admission whether it is feasible to do it the night before?—It makes no difference with the casual ward: You cannot work the day before as I understand. You do not get there until it is about six o'clock: You wait about there outside, and at six o'clock, or whatever the time is, you are allowed to go in, and then you have your bath and go to bed.

93870. It is not a very great difference, though?—It is a very important difference, if I may say so. We have often heard men complain it is no use going into a casual ward, because they have not the chance of coming out early; there is this also, that every man who goes into a casual ward is liable to be detained three days. Mr. Lloyd Jones reminds me that a man is much better fed in the Receiving Home than he is in the casual ward.

93871. He certainly gets enough food in the casual ward, does he not? It is a fixed quantity and it is supposed to be quite sufficient?—It is supposed to be.

93872. It is not so palatable, I suppose we may say that?—I do not suppose it is.

93873. The quantity may be good. When a casual is kept, you notice he gets out very early the following morning, so it answers exactly the same purpose as your suggestion that the men should get out early in the morning?—If he gets out early in the morning it does.

93874. That is the second day: the only thing is that he has had an additional day in?—A day he has not been allowed to go out. We would rather that the man should go out and find work for himself.

93875. It struck me you are doing very much the same kind of work as is done by the casual ward?—I look on it as being better than the casual ward. Personally, I should be glad to see that kind of work dispensed with altogether if we could.

93876. For the man who has no home and no lodging? I suppose if you dispense with it a similar scheme would be set up in order to provide that man with a night's shelter. What would you substitute for the work you are doing?—I do not know that I quite understand your question.

93877. You said you would like to see this done away with—both casual wards and these Receiving Homes, I understand?—Yes.

93878. The Receiving Home is like a casual ward, and I put it it is exactly in the same category: You do not see the good of these Receiving Homes?—If the law is altered so that a man who is a vagrant can be committed to one of these Penal Colonies, I should think very likely the need for these casual wards and Receiving Homes might be done away with altogether. I do not suppose there are so many people in London who are vagrants. There was a census of the London County Council of people who were sleeping out, and I think it was about 3,000 people. Some of those I am afraid are habitual vagrants. If so, they would be dealt with

by the Penal Labour Colony, and they would not require any assistance.

93879. How would you get at those if they put in an appearance at the Receiving Homes of the Church Army, and you proved they were vagrants, would you say that would be sufficient to detain them in a Labour Penal Colony?

—Under the present law a man if he is idle and disorderly appears before a magistrate and gets a small punishment. If he has been convicted of that once and he appears again, then he can be convicted as a rogue and vagabond; if he appears again after being convicted as a rogue and vagabond he may be convicted of being an incorrigible rogue and vagabond. I would give the magistrates some discretion with regard to that. If the police were to enforce the law about sleeping out, and the law is that if a man sleeps out, unless he has visible means of subsistence or can give a good account of himself, he should be punished, then if it were only a slight offence he might be sentenced to a day's imprisonment, and would be discharged at once, but the next time I think he should go to a Labour Colony, I would leave it in the discretion of the magistrate. If the police were to do that, our streets in London would be cleared of people sleeping out.

93880. What you suggest is that the law is not carried out to-day because there is no proper means of dealing with them?—I do not think the law as to sleeping out is carried out properly.

93881. They are sent to prison for a short period, and it is no good?—They are very rarely arrested.

93882. Do you think if colonies were set up for that purpose, the law might be more rigorously carried out, and it would be far better for the men and the general public?—Certainly.

93883. It would still be open to a philanthropic society like yours to set up a home in order to prevent persons being detained in a colony, that is to provide them with a night's lodging to keep them out of the streets?—Certainly.

93884. Would not it exactly obtain as it obtains to-day, free lodging and so on, because they would say it is a hardship for a person to be committed for a period to a Penal Colony merely because he is unfortunately out of work, and people are apt to put the construction on it that most people are out of work because they are unfortunate, and there would be a great amount of sympathy extended to these people against being sent to a Penal Colony?—Certainly, but the magistrate would exercise his power with discretion.

93885. But I was thinking of something being set up against the magistrates, that is that societies like yours would set up free shelters to enable people to keep out of the clutches of the magistrates?—What I should be afraid of in setting up free shelters is that there may be men who are just on the verge between being habitually idle and not, if they once had the idea that in London it does not matter, they can go to London, it is a more attractive place than the country and that in any event the worst that can happen to them is that they will get a free shelter somewhere or another, it may encourage vagrancy.

93886. No doubt it does. Is it not rather a serious suggestion you are making that these people who have no reasonable means of subsistence should be taken and detained?—That is the law now.

93887. Public feeling and sympathy is against its being carried out. I am only suggesting to you that the same feeling might obtain even under the new arrangement?—Of course, it depends, in some counties it is very rigorously carried out. I understand in Lincolnshire the law as to vagrancy is rigorously carried out, with the result that there is very little vagrancy in Lincolnshire. It seems to me that a case like you are putting is one in which the magistrate would say, this is a case in which the Probation Officer, or in London the Police Court Missionary, should be asked to do something for the man, and we should be very glad indeed to receive proper cases into our Labour Homes. I think it would be a very good suggestion to put to a man: You are unfortunate, but here is a Labour Home you can go and work at; will you go there? We should be very glad indeed to have him, and bring him into our Labour Homes, and subject him to good influence.

93888. That is possibly a way out. It seemed to me it would be difficult to carry out the law if a person were merely caught for the first time doing nothing, and that he was to be detained for a long period in a Penal Colony,

Mr. William
Frederick
Hamilton,
K.C., and
Mr. Walter
Lloyd Jones.

24 Feb., 1908.

Need of
penal colony
system for
stricter
dealings with
vagrants.

Danger of
attempting
to deal too
strictly with
destitute
unemployed

Need of
penal colony
system for
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24 Feb., 1908

because he happened to be unfortunately out of work?—I would not suggest that. I should rather think it would be a case in which a man would be brought before the magistrate; of course if it were only one night he would not do anything at all, he might dismiss the case, or he might say to him: "I will hand you over to the Probation Officer; he will take you to a home, and he will either find work for you, or you can go into a colony and work."

93889. Another suggestion would immediately be made, would it not, that is, that the person should not be committed by a magistrate, or detained in a colony, unless he had had a chance to work prior to such conviction. That he should have a chance to earn his own livelihood, and the opportunity should be provided by the State?—That of course is Mr. Ramsay MacDonald's new Bill, which he has introduced this year into the House of Commons, which I have read with interest. If it can be provided by voluntary effort I should prefer that an opportunity should be provided that way, but of course, in a Labour Penal Colony the State will have to provide the work. I prefer that the two things should be separate, that the honest unemployed, and the unfortunate unemployed should be dealt with by philanthropic agencies, and that other people who will not take advantage of them, such as vagrants, should be dealt with by the State. Personally, I am all in favour of giving every man as many opportunities as possible.

93890. I am afraid there would be very large demands made on your society and others, if they had first the chance of going to you in preference to going to a Penal Colony?—I am not so sure. I see Mr. John Burns' stated the other day that the number of able-bodied paupers in the workhouses was between 8,000 and 9,000; I see by the *Board of Trade Journal* that there are about 11,000 able-bodied paupers, so that after all it is not such a very large number.

93891. That does not cover the whole field. How many of those would be considered able-bodied that you deal with at your place?—I think all we deal with are able-bodied.

93892. Would the medical officer of a workhouse call them able-bodied, and classify them as able-bodied?—I think they would, the men we deal with. We do not take a man who cannot earn at wood-chopping practically enough to keep himself and to have a small margin.

93893. It would depend on medical classification, would it not, as to how many of your people would be considered able-bodied in the eyes of the Poor Law?—Our test is this, if a man cannot do wood-chopping, really he is not able-bodied for our purpose; if he cannot earn at least 6s. a week to pay for his board and lodging, we do not consider him able-bodied.

93894. You do not have any medical inspection, do you?—No.

93895. They are not medically examined?—No. For emigration of course we always have medical inspection.

93896. But not for work?—No.

93897. Is it not likely that a good many of the men you put to wood-chopping would be classed in a workhouse as not able to work?—I do not think so.

93898. It would depend on the workhouse very largely, would it not?—It might. I think the men there are really able-bodied from a reasonable point of view. (Mr. Lloyd Jones.) Is there not some little misunderstanding on this point? The inmates of the Labour Home are selected; a man must be not over forty-five years of age, and he is not admitted unless he is physically capable of doing ordinary unskilled labour work. I think all the men passed into the labour Home would be considered sufficiently able-bodied by the workhouse people. They are selected.

93899. What do you do with the others?—We do not take them; they are sent to other Societies.

93900. They are refused admission?—(Mr. Hamilton.) Yes.

93901. Is that stated in this statement?—Yes. I think you will find it there. (Mr. Lloyd Jones.) The age limit I think is down there. The qualifications for admission are in Paragraph 27. (Mr. Hamilton.) Freedom from such infirmities as would prevent a man earning his livelihood in the ordinary course. Willingness to work, and to abide by the rules and regulations. Must not be under sixteen years of age or over forty-five. The limit

of stay is four months, and each man has to undergo three days' test of his willingness to work and capability of working, before he is entered on the books. We give statistics showing how many have failed to pass the three days test.

93902. With regard to the displacement of labour, if I may put it in that way, which is caused by your selling these chips in the open market, I take it you do not commit yourself to the statement that the amount of labour you provide chopping chips displaces an equal amount of labour in the open market apart from the statement made by your Secretary that there may be more chips burnt—apart from that altogether?—We do more by hand, whereas outside they do more by machinery. We get as much hand labour as we can. If we were to do wood-chopping as a trade or business, instead of having a great number of depots, we should have one depot and one distributing depot. Instead of doing the great part of the work by hand, we should have the best and most improved machinery, and for distribution, which is now a great deal done by barrows on purpose to give the men work, we might have motor wagons.

93903. I am afraid I did not make my point quite clear. It was suggested that if one man in your shelter is chopping chips—Do not say shelter, please.

93904. I beg your pardon, in your Labour Home—is chopping chips and earning 3s. 4d. a day, that some other person somewhere is earning 3s. 4d. less.

93905. (Miss Hill.) Is that not true of all work you give anywhere. If you take a housemaid you do not take two house-maids, some house-maid is out of work. (Mr. Bentham) I only want to ask the witness if he committed himself to that statement. It has been stated that that is the net result?—I cannot say. I do not think it is quite so, as I said before, because I assume for the sake of example that we do much more hand work, and we may displace a machine.

93906. But you do more than that, do you not, if you provide work for idle hands, the demand outside may be a little less for that particular commodity, but there is another demand set up by the work of that man which probably is equivalent, it may or may not be, to the amount of work which is displaced in wood chopping?—It may be.

93907. I suggest to you is that not the answer?—I suggested once before I think that it is possible that the work displaced in wood chopping might be applied in a more highly organised trade, and a better trade, so that a man may go from a very inferior kind of trade to a better paid trade.

93908. (Mr. Phelps.) Do you in the Church Army Labour Home co-operate at all with the guardians?—Yes. We take a number of cases. There is a return here of cases which we have taken from the workhouses and casual wards. I think I have referred to it before. (See Appendix No. XI. (H).)

93909. Would you describe your methods?—(Mr. Lloyd Jones.) With regard to the casual wards, in the first place in London we keep an officer going round to the casual wards regularly, and if there are any likely cases he gives them an opportunity of coming into the Church Army Labour Home. In the provinces, with the permission of the guardians we put cards in the casual wards offering men able and willing to work employment in the nearest Church Army Labour Home. With regard to the inmates of the London Workhouses, we have approached some Unions and others have approached us with a view of taking able-bodied men from them. We have taken a great many during the last year. I think the number taken from the London workhouses has been 590, and from the casual wards, 127. The largest number from any London Workhouse is ninety-nine from Camberwell and the next eighty from Southwark. With regard to these workhouse cases, we consider that for real able-bodied men, not what the Poor Law call able-bodied, but men who are really able to maintain their place on the unskilled labour market we ought to prove a useful outlet. We used to take them quite free of charge, but latterly we have made a charge of a few shillings per week towards the working expenses.

93910. On whom?—On the workhouse authorities, but that only applies to two or three workhouses. The majority of them make us grants according to the work accomplished. With regard to the majority of the workhouse cases which come to us, they are very difficult to deal with.

93911. We will stop there for a moment. You say

Numbers of able-bodied paupers.

Question as to how far men dealt with by Church Army are able-bodied.

Qualifications for admission to Church Army Homes.

Question of displacement of labour by Church Army's firewood business

Co-operation of Church Army with guardians

you go to the casual wards in London and give this opportunity to the inmates? Is that with the permission of the guardians in the various unions?—Yes.

93912. How often would your officer visit an average casual ward?—He would visit them all once during the week, and some he may visit twice.

93913. With regard to the inmates of the workhouse, how many of the Board of Guardians in London do you co-operate with?—We have received men from thirty-one workhouses, thirty-two with West Ham.

93914. What I want to get at is how many boards of guardians have you a real understanding with?—I could not tell you how many we have a working agreement with; all these workhouse cases that are taken here I believe are sent to us by arrangement with the guardians.

93915. By the master of the workhouse?—If the master of the workhouse or the clerk of the guardians approach us and ask the Church Army to take a man, whether we have a working arrangement with them or not, if we thought the man was a likely case we should take that case.

93916. How many guardians have you got to pay this few shillings?

93917. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Is it 10s. a week?—No, nothing like that.

93918. (*Mr. Phelps.*) How many boards of guardians have you any contract with to that extent?—I cannot say; I do not think more than half a dozen.

93919. In London?—Yes.

93920. Not in the provinces?—No, none in the provinces.

93921. Do you co-operate with the guardians as regards the able-bodied in the workhouses in the provinces?—Yes, we are in touch with the guardians. Our officer is supposed to be in touch with the casual wards and the workhouse master.

93922. Is that where you have a station?—Yes, a labour home.

93923. Would your officer go to the workhouse and see the people that are admitted?—No. He would make the acquaintance of the workhouse master, and he would have permission to put up in the casual ward what we call a casual ward card offering the men work. He would say to the workhouse master: "The first time you have a decent man we might be helpful to, send him along to me, and we will take him."

93924. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) Did not you say you had sometimes been paid by results?—According to the number of cases the guardians pay us. For instance, the Paddington people give us about £10 a year.

93925. (*Mr. Phelps.*) As a subscription to your general fund?—Yes, but in the case of about half a dozen workhouses we have a payment per head per week.

93926. How with regard to gaols?—The same thing applies with regard to gaols. With regard to convicts, we are licensed to visit convict prisons. Mr. Colin F. Campbell visits the convict prisons periodically; he is notified of the men who are shortly coming out, and he inquires from them whether they would care to be discharged to the Church Army. Those men come to us directly to be dealt with. With regard to the short time prisoners, many of the cases we receive at either the Local Discharged Prisoners Aid Society or the Governor or Chaplain communicates with us, and frequently our own officers are in direct touch with prisoners. Where a Discharged Prisoners Aid Society is already at work the Church Army does not appear in the matter.

93927. You might co-operate with them?—We do of course always. I think the majority of our prison men come through our own officers or the Discharged Prisoners Aid Societies.

93928. Have you any organisation for visiting Police Courts?—(*Mr. Hamilton.*) I can speak about that. Nearly every Police Court in London has its own Police Court missionary. I think many of those Police Court missionaries have been trained in the Church Army. Under the new Probation of Offenders Act which came into force on the 1st January, we have had a number of Church Army Officers appointed Probation Officers for the different Police Courts in London. We have one home which we have reserved for women who are discharged to a home under Probation Order.

93929. With regard to a certain portion of your people you send them to a farm at Hempstead?—Yes.

93930. How long is the average stay there?—(*Mr. Lloyd Jones.*) I think about thirty-four or thirty-five days.

93931. When you send them to Hempstead, what is your intention with regard to them, or your hope with regard to them?—(*Mr. Hamilton.*) To train them and to emigrate them.

93932. You do not look forward to migrating them to different parts of England?—Not at present.

93933. In the average case, how long a period of residence at Hempstead do you think necessary?—Do you mean in order to make them trained?

93934. To qualify them for emigration?—The longer we have them there the better. They do learn a good deal, but really an agricultural labourer to my mind is a skilled workman.

93935. I quite agree?—It is only rough work that they can learn in that time, but they improve in health and strength. When they first go down there they catch colds at once, but after a while they get weather proof.

93936. On your farm colony have you any discipline?—Yes.

93937. How do you enforce discipline?—It is enforced by the farm bailiff. If a man misbehaves he would be sent away.

93938. Have you ever had to take a man before a magistrate?—Never to my knowledge.

93939. Have you any public-house in close proximity?—We had one, but we bought that and closed it. The cost of the purchase is part of our capital expenditure.

93940. Is there any bar upon entering a public-house. Is that an offence on the part of the inmates?—Yes.

93941. It would be dealt with as an offence?—Yes, that is one of our conditions; we do not receive anyone unless he is a total abstainer while with us.

93942. Do you think on the whole the emigration has been a good result?—Yes, I know a great deal about that, because during the last year I have read almost all the reports of the cases, and judging by the reports we have received from Canada, the cases have been most successful. I think I went and saw off every batch of Church Army emigrants that went away from the Great Central Station. I spoke to many of them; they were a very good class of people.

93943. You do not emigrate the worst type?—No. We are very much limited. The fact is that the Dominion Act as to emigration in Canada is very strict.

93944. Have you looked into the schemes which are proposed for re-afforestation in England?—I have read about them.

93945. Do you think that anything in the way of a State forest service would help you in that particular?—I am not an expert on that matter, and I would rather not give an opinion. I noticed the other day that there was some evidence given about a reclamation scheme which was undertaken by a company on the Wash, and the company have been most unsuccessful. They found it a most expensive business, and they suggest that it should be done by the State. I fancy all the expensive schemes of afforestation and reclamation would be handed over to the State. If it could be an economic success it would be done by the owners of the land I imagine.

93946. Have you looked at it in the light of applicants for small holdings?—I think the Small Holdings Act, if worked properly, would be a very useful thing.

93947. Could you see your way to placing out any of your people from your farm?—We have had that in our minds. Of course, we have not had our farm colony long, but we have considered whether it would not be possible to use part of that land in establishing people who would have a long lease at a comparatively low rent, and to give them a chance of living out of the land. I think that is an experiment we shall try before long.

93948. What procedure do you take with regard to women, do you take single women?—We do rescue women vagrants. Practically there are no women tramps and no women vagrants.

Mr. William Frederick Hamilton, K.C., and Mr. Walter Lloyd Jones.

24 Feb., 1908.

Church Army's farm colony at Hempstead: its objects and methods.

Results of emigration by Church Army.

Afforestation and reclamation.

Small holdings.

Women's rescue work by Church Army.

Mr. William Frederick Hamilton, K.C., and Mr. Walter Lloyd Jones.

24 Feb., 1908.

Women's rescue work by Church Army.

93949. With regard to your rescue work, what occupation do you find for those people?—Laundry work is the successful occupation. Women's work is most costly, we cannot find them employment like we can the men. Laundry work is the work that is most paying, but with regard to needlework and things like that, we do not get much more than the price of the material.

93950. Do you take in laundry work?—Yes.

93951. Do you have any complaints about competition?—I do not think we ever have had.

93952. With regard to the future of those women, do you look forward to their earning their own livelihood as laundresses afterwards?—Certainly; we keep in touch with them, and many of them are most capable indeed.

93953. Are most of your cases brought to you by private agencies, or do you find them in public institutions?—Sometimes some of our Sisters go out into Hyde Park and bring them in, especially if they are young.

93954. With regard to the workhouses, have you any co-operation with workhouses?—As regards women?

93955. Yes.—I do not think so.

93956. Or gaols?—We do sometimes take women from gaols, because I remember Miss Walker, the head of that department, saying one woman was rather refractory and said she was not going to stay a day longer. She said: "It is a pity to go away, what will you do; have you a good character?" The woman looked at her and said: "Oh, well, I only murdered my husband and had five years for it." Anyhow, she stopped, but I am sure we do take prison cases.

93957. Do you co-operate with Aylesbury as you do with the male convict prisons?—No; that matter has been discussed.

93958. Do you know any cases of female inebriates?—Yes.

93959. Do you have homes to which they can sign in?—We have homes.

93960. Where you have compulsory powers of detention?—Not compulsory powers. We had one at Newdigate and took men; we had that for some years, but the expense was so enormous, their physical inefficiency was so great and they were so hopeless in every way, that we gave up taking them; apparently they had no craving for drink when they were there, it was an offence to go out, but if they did go outside and saw a public-house and they had any money in their pockets, they got drunk at once.

93961. You had no distinctive home for the female inebriates?—No, not under the Act. We have voluntary homes for them. We think our voluntary homes do show very good results.

93962. (Mr. Chandler.) With the exception of your farm at Hempstead and your wood chopping, you really have no other employment?—I think at one or two of the provincial homes they tried market gardening on a small scale. We leave it to our local committees to do very much what they please. All we do is sometimes to supplement their deficiencies.

93963. Unlike the Salvation Army, you have not yet started business as contractors?—No, and we do not intend to. I may say it was suggested to us when we started emigration that we should undertake the business of emigration agents. I said: If you do, I will have nothing to do with it; I am here for philanthropic purposes, not for trade purposes, and I shall decline to be a party to it.

93964. In your Appendix C (see Appendix No. XI. (C)) there are the terms of the agreement under which the men undertake to do their best after the first month to obtain work for themselves independently of the Church Army?—Yes.

93965. Are there any facilities given to the men to carry that out?—Yes.

93966. What are they?—They are allowed to go out.

93967. And come back at night?—Yes, after doing work, and there are facilities given to them in the day time.

93968. Do a large number avail themselves of that?—Many do go; many leave to seek situations. We call those doubtful cases, but we have reason to believe that many of them get situations, only they do not keep in

touch with us, because they naturally do not want to be connected too much with us.

93969. I see from an analysis of the cases you have 44 per cent. of good ones. I suppose through the agency of your organisation that 44 per cent. have been assisted into situations?—Yes, into good situations.

93970. I see you favour labour bureaux, you recommend national bureaux?—I do; I think it is very important there should be. Of course, there are bureaux now under the Unemployed Act, but they are only partial. They seem to work with very great success in parts of the Continent. I think there should be a general labour bureau with telephonic communication between the branches and a clearing-house.

93971. Do you keep up any such communication between your various depots over the country?—We have no registration bureau.

93972. You have in each depot a large number of men?—We have telephonic communication between all our London homes and most of the country.

93973. Do you find that useful for the purposes of exchange?—Yes.

93974. I was wondering whether, having tested it in the limited sense you have been able to do by your organisation, it would not be something as a guide to the others?—I feel sure, if you had bureaux which communicated to all parts of the country, saying that they wanted labour, it would be very helpful. May I mention a case in my own experience. Someone saw one of our advertisements saying hundreds were out of employment, and came all the way up from Cornwall, saying he could hardly believe it; he said: I want so many men in Cornwall; can you send them? and he took them.

93975. (Miss Hill.) How many stopped there?—The last time I heard, they were still there; they were men who wanted to work and were quite willing to work, and he had the work for them.

93976. (Mr. Chandler.) Was it agricultural work?—It was not quite agricultural work, but work on an estate.

93977. (Sir Samuel Provis.) How many were there?—Four or five. We have a League of Friends of the Poor now, what has been very successful. Of course many of the "friends" are very well-to-do people, but it is quite extraordinary the number of situations they are able to find for the unemployed.

93978. (Mr. Chandler.) I was interested in your account of the distribution of tickets on the Embankment here. Do you find a very large percentage of these men take advantage of that ticket and use it by coming up to your homes?—Yes, nearly all.

93979. In spite of that if you go along here every night they are sitting about on the Embankment?—Yes, we do all we can, but there is not enough to go round. I sometimes go into the Labour Tents. I once said to Captain Robbs, who looks after the King's Labour Tent: "Do you discriminate so as to refuse the men who have been here before?" and he said, "No. I tried to discriminate once, but was nearly torn to pieces, since then I have always given the tickets out in rotation."

93980. You deal with a large number of men who have served various terms of imprisonment?—Yes.

93981. What result, from your observation, has prison life had on the habits and character of the men; did you notice anything different?—I cannot say that I of have come across them individually. It is Mr. Jones who attends to that; I have seen some of them.

93982. Does prison life operate in the way of forming habits or character, which would distinguish them from the other men who have not been in prison?—Do you mean whether there is a prison type?

93983. Whether there were special traits in a man's character?—We have a portrait gallery at the Church Army containing portraits of all those—

93984. I think the idea is, do you find them more tractable, and more anxious to do right?—(Mr. Lloyd Jones.) It is the general experience of the Labour Home officers that they would rather deal with prison cases than the workhouse men. A prison man has energy but it is misdirected. The other man does not seem to have any energy at all; you have to supply energy

Failure of inebriates' home at Newdigate.

Work provided by Church Army.

Facilities given to men for getting work independently of Church Army.

Need of national labour exchange.

Instance of work found through Church Army: per-tisemen

Church Army ticket distributed on the Thames embankment

Church Army experience as to character and efficiency of ex-prisoners

and direction. (*Mr. Hamilton.*) I am not sure that the same observation applies to tramps sent to prison.

93985. (*Mr. Chandler.*) Could you put in a comparison showing whether the applications for food and shelter in London are increasing generally?—They are not. In 1904-5, and 1905-6, the number of applicants to our Tents and Receiving Homes was very much larger than in the present year. (*Mr. Lloyd Jones.*) It has been 2,000 and over per day in some previous winter, but this winter it has been from 800 to 1,000.

93986. With regard to the detention and employment of vagrants and unemployed men of bad character, you suggest compulsory State Land Colonies?—(*Mr. Hamilton.*) Not land compulsory State Colonies. I would like to see a colony like the one at Merxplas, where there are a variety of employments.

93987. Who do you suggest should commit them to these colonies?—The magistrates. In Belgium I think it is the *Juge de Paix*; he commits. There is no appeal from him, but here you can appeal to the Home Secretary. I have read their rules. In Merxplas it is not a prison; there are no walls round, and if they escape, unless they are re-arrested as vagrants, they are at liberty to be outside.

93988. You think that would do in this country?—Yes, it shows some energy if a man wishes to escape, and he eludes observation, and does not beg; I do not see why he should not do so.

93989. With regard to your system of training for emigration at Hempstead, what provision do you make with regard to the wives and children while the men are with you?—We send single men alone there. We do send married men away, but we do not send them there for training. Many men have applied to us who are farm hands.

93990. The question of their wives and children would not apply?—No. May I say this; we make it a rule never to emigrate a married man, without his wife and children.

93991. In paragraph 60 you give us £1,215 as being refunded by emigrants for the advances made to them? Yes. That was up to the 30th September, 1907.

93992. What percentage is that of the total that should have been refunded?—It is really a considerable percentage, because it was the first instalment, which was an instalment of one-third. £759 has been repaid of £1,736 due in November last.

93993. This question is asked because the evidence of the persons connected with the newspaper funds has been that it was hopeless to get the money back from the people. You have been more successful?—The East End Emigration Society and the Charity Organisation Society, who have an emigration scheme between them, have said the same thing. When I first had to consider this question, forms were sent to me, under which, under the Canadian Act, if you sent a man out to work there, and he went on to a farm, he had to remain there for twelve months, unless he could give some very good excuse, otherwise he was sent to prison. Under this same form of agreement you were able to recover the amount advanced to a man and unless he paid you could also send him to prison. That was discussed, and I said I would not be a party to such agreement. I would leave it to their sense of honour and see what happened.

93994. (*Miss Hill.*) Do I gather that your general objection to the casual wards is their not letting the people out to get work in the morning?—That is one great objection.

93995. And that you do see a difficulty in dropping the King's Labour Tents and the Labour Homes, mainly because you cannot use the casual ward for that reason. Are there other reasons?—Of course, there is some religious influence brought to bear upon the men in the King's Labour Tents as well as in the Receiving Homes. But the time is so short. It is very little you can do for a man who only remains in the King's Labour Tents three hours. It would be much more satisfactory if we had more Labour Homes, and instead of sending them there we could send them to a Labour Home. That is my ideal.

93996. You would not regret to see that part of your work drop, if the casual wards would take the people and let them go out early enough to get work?—That is so.

93997. In Paragraph 63 you speak about having trained people for emigration, but you say that little has been done for fitting men for agricultural employment at home. Is that because there have been no openings, or few openings, or because the men will not take the agricultural work?—I think part of it was this: That there were so many men applying for emigration purposes that we could not use the farm for that purpose. We never seriously have tried to prepare men for agricultural work at home.

93998. There is a demand for agricultural labourers, is there not?—There is. In fact, one so often wonders, when you have talked to a man, why he came up from the country. The reason for their dislike to the country is that it is so dull. They like the life of the town, and the amusements of the town. I hope we may be able to devise a scheme under which a man may have his own land practically to farm.

93999. That is starting him at the top of the tree rather than at the bottom?—I would train him, first of all.

94000. The man who stays steadily in the village and works hard is the man you would expect to make a good settler. Unfortunately we are not working for the good, it is the other class. As a rule the good can take care of themselves.

94001. You mean these people who drift up to the towns? If they are to be started back in the country at all, it seems to me that they should begin as labourers; and there is a demand for labourers?—There is a demand for labourers; we try wherever we can to find work for them.

94002. Those people you have sent to Cornwall have stayed on so far, have they?—Yes.

94003. You say it is not pure agricultural labour?—No, it is on an estate.

94004. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) With regard to the casual wards, you are aware that the Act contemplates that a casual pauper should remain two nights in the casual ward?—I had forgotten that for the moment.

94005. That being so, he can do his task of work on the day which he must pass in the casual ward?—I think it would be a very great improvement.

94006. There is an Order of the Local Government Board which provides that when he has done his task he is to be allowed to go out in the summer at half-past five and in the winter at half-past six in the morning?—I do not think that is generally known or acted upon.

94007. You think it is not generally known or acted upon?—I think not. That is the complaint the men make about the casual ward. (*Mr. Lloyd Jones.*) May I voice the opinion of some men who voice it to me very strongly indeed?

94008. Are they places where they have been allowed to only stay one night?—These are two-night places.

94009. There is, in fact, an Order which was issued I think in 1892, to the effect that a casual pauper who has been detained for more than one night, and who represents to the workhouse Master that he is desirous of seeking work, who has to the best of his ability performed the prescribed task of work, may discharge himself between half-past five in the morning, between Lady Day and Michaelmas Day, and at half-past six the rest of the year. That really meets your point, does it not?—(*Mr. Hamilton.*) Yes. Our men can go the next morning, if they please, if they have done the work.

94010. The law says that save in exceptional cases they shall be detained two nights so that it may be deterrent?—Is it not the practice to allow them to go away if they choose the next morning?

94011. In some cases that is done.—That is my point really, that a man has not a fair chance of getting employment.

94012. This gives it to him, if detained for the two nights?—Yes.

Mr. William Frederick Hamilton, K.C., and Mr. Walter Lloyd Jones.

24 Feb., 1908.

Demand for agricultural labourers, and cause of rural depopulation.

Casual ward and question of men getting out early to seek work.

Mr. William Frederick Hamilton, K.C., and Mr. Walter Lloyd Jones.

94013. (Mr. Bentham.) At the present time in London is it not the fact that the casual wards let the men out the first morning without a task at all?—I am glad to hear that, I did not know, I cannot say.

24 Feb., 1908.

Labour exchanges.

94014. (Miss Hill.) I think workhouse officials have nearly always told us that when they think a man is anxious to work, or has the chance of it they let him out?—These casuals may make that an excuse.

94015. (Chairman.) You attach considerable importance to establishing a general system of labour bureaux?—Yes.

94016. Have you ever thought it out at all, or is that a general opinion?—I have read a good deal about it. I have read the report of Mr. Schloss.

94017. Would you make it purely optional, or would you go so far as to force employers to get their casual employees through the labour bureau?—No, I do not think I would go so far as that.

General failure of unemployed insurance schemes on the continent.

94018. Have you ever thought whether it is possible to work a labour bureau for casual labour with a system of insurance against unemployment?—I have carefully considered all the schemes of insurance for unemployment on the continent; and it seems to me that they all of them fail. It is only the people who are usually unemployed who come in.

94019. The schemes seem to have promoted unemployment funds amongst the skilled and organised trades, but not among the casual?—Not among the casual at all; and even then according to the actual figures it does not seem to have been successful.

Likelihood of employment being found through labour exchanges.

94020. There are at the present moment a considerable number of persons out of employment who would be able to get it if they had more accurate knowledge of the particular wants?—I think so. I think it would be one of the ways in which unemployment would be remedied.

94021. Is that based on your experience, or is it merely theory?—It is based partly on this. We do find that our friends in the League of the Friends of the Poor are able to find employment in some way or other, so there must be employment. I think people would co-operate with a bureau; an employer, I think, would be glad to get hold of employees in that way. It seems to work most successfully in Bavaria.

The League of the Friends of the Poor.

94022. What is the League of the Friends of the Poor?—It is one of our new organisations. It consists of a number of persons each of whom is willing to look after a poor family and help them with counsel and advice. They are not allowed to give them money. If they want help, they come to the Church Army and we help them, and look after them for a period, when, but for that help, they might go to the workhouse. They visit them and look after them.

MR. JOHN RICHARDSON, M.Inst.C.E., called, and Examined.

Mr. John Richardson.

94039. (Chairman.) You have been kind enough to send us a Paper in which you have answered certain questions which were put to you, and you have drawn up a scheme at the end. If you will kindly hand that in, we will treat it as your Evidence-in-chief?—Very well. (The Witness handed in the following Document.)

24 Feb., 1908.

Question I.—What is the general effect:—

- (a) Of the spread of machinery;
- (b) Of more highly organised processes; and
- (c) Of industrial legislation on the demand for labour?

Effect of spread of machinery and of more highly organised processes.

Answer I.—(a) The general effect of the spread of machinery is certainly to diminish the demand for labour. This does not take place at once, as the cheapening of the product by the use of machinery leads to a greater consumption of it, or an extension of its use. This for a time causes such an increased demand, that as much, or more, labour is required. In the long run the production overtakes the demand. When this occurs, there is a decreased demand for labour, and a lower rate of wages for the skilled worker.

(b) In highly organised processes the effect of machinery is not only to cheapen but also to perfect the production of the details which make up the pro-

94023. And through its instrumentality you find The League of the Friends of the Poor situations for a good many?—Yes.

94024. Rather unexpectedly, I suppose?—Yes.

94025. Because that was not the primary object of this society?—It is an object certainly to help in any way we can.

94026. But you did not think this would be an instrument in getting employment?—We thought it would be a way of helping people.

94027. By getting them employment?—Yes. We have sent some to Canada who are doing extremely well.

94028. Do you organise this League of the Friends of the Poor, or do they organise themselves?—They are organised under the Church Army; they have rules and a committee.

94029. They are really a number of local committees of the Church Army with limited power, is that it?—No, we have a central committee. That work is all done in London. Of course, many of the "friends" have country places.

94030. What starts one of these?—It is only one League, we have a Central Office at Bryanston Street: Miss Collin is the Honorary Secretary and she gets as many as she can to join it. Much of the work is done in London, but we are able to find work in the provinces.

94031. Who maps out the districts?—Miss Collin, the Honorary Secretary.

94032. It is all done from the centre?—Yes. It is practically only in London, but there is no reason why it should not be spread over the country.

94033. How long has it been in existence?—This is our second year.

94034. Has it increased much?—Yes, we have now 792 "friends" who have between them 734 cases.

94035. Is it not rather difficult to work the whole of London from one centre?—It is difficult. We try and get a friend who lives somewhere in that district to look after the case.

94036. Does it work at all with the relieving officers or is it quite outside the Poor Law?—It is outside the Poor Law.

94037. They have no funds?—We have subscriptions.

94038. From the parent society?—The Princess Louise Augusta of Schleswig-Holstein who is the President of the League and takes a personal interest in its working, arranged a concert at the Aeolian Hall from which we received nearly £400, and we also get subscriptions from the members.

duct. This obviates the need for so much skill in all but a few of the workers, and sinks many of them almost to the level of machines.

My own experience of some 50 years, shows me that the highly skilled workman who could turn his hand to anything has almost ceased to exist. Self acting tools, automatic and semi-automatic, have been introduced to such an extent, that nearly every process in the manufacture of an engine is now done by very perfect machinery instead of by hand. I have frequently been able, within a few hours, to teach a farm labourer how to superintend the working of such a machine, and in a week or two's time he would get quite skilled at it.

Care and attention is what is required, and such a man is often able to turn out from three to ten times as much work as was formerly done by a skilled mechanic, while he would get little, if any, more than half the wages.

(c) Industrial legislation in many respects has been good. Thus the raising of the school age, and the Factory Acts limiting the age at which boys may be employed at overtime and at night, has been an un-mixed good to the worker.

The laws which provide for factory inspection, and which compelled the fencing of dangerous machinery, have reduced the number of accidents enormously.

Effects of industrial legislation.

Still more has been done in this direction by the Compensation Acts. To those who remain in work this last is a great boon, but it has led, without doubt, to the discharge of many old and comparatively feeble men. These are got rid of for fear they should have an accident and bring heavy claims for compensation.

Question II.—In particular, do modern developments tend to displace:—

- (a) *Middle-aged by younger persons;*
- (b) *"All-round" skill by specialised mechanical skill;*
- (c) *Skilled labour by unskilled; and*
- (d) *Adult men by women and young persons?*

Answer II.—Without question modern developments do tend (a) to displace middle-aged men by younger and stronger ones, and (b) all-round skill by specialised mechanical skill. In all highly-organised engineering shops most of the workers, both boys and men, are taught to do one part of an engine and nothing else. I have had men working for over 20 years at the same little job. One forging nuts by machinery, another superintending a tapping machine, a third turning their ends, a fourth shaping their sides, another hardening them, and a last one polishing them after hardening. Thus six men, each doing day after day for many years, one portion of so small a thing as a simple screwed nut. (c) The result of such specialisation is that skilled labour is displaced by unskilled, and (d) adult men by women and young persons.

In Lincoln, one of the chief centres of steam-engine manufacture, women and young persons of the female sex are not much used, as the work is rather heavy, and custom and tradition is against their employment. This is, however, beginning to break down, and they are now employed in some of the smaller engineering shops.

I am acquainted with many machine factories in the Birmingham and Coventry district where the work is done principally by women and girls. They are, of course, got at a much lower rate of pay.

Question III.—Do modern developments tend to reduce temporarily or permanently the total demand for labour within the trade where such developments occur?

Answer III.—Modern developments tend first to the displacement of labour; then to its temporary re-absorption owing to increased demand due to cheapness of produce; then to its permanent displacement when sufficient machinery has been introduced to overtake the demand. It also tends in many industries to the production of low priced and comparatively worthless goods, as they can be so cheaply made.

Question IV.—Are the changes indicated in Questions I. and II. fully compensated for by new demands in other directions for the labour displaced?

Answer IV.—The changes indicated in answer to Questions I. and II. are very inadequately compensated for by new demands for the labour displaced.

Question V.—Do such changes call for greater mobility of labour:—

- (a) *As between different trades, and*
- (b) *As between different branches of the same trade?*

Answer V.—Greater mobility of labour is a good thing in itself; but, under present conditions, it would not make a great or permanent difference in the lot of the worker, as nearly all trades and all branches of all trades are more than supplied with labour. Skilled stone masons who can also do sculpture are the only ones of which I have found a lack.

Question VI.—If so, in what way is the mobility being, or should it be, provided for?

Answer VI.—"Mobility" is not being provided for now, and is getting scarcer. It should be provided for by giving all workers the opportunity of learning and practising all the branches in their own trades, and by teaching apprentices at least two trades; but this is not so profitable to the employer as specialisation.

True, there is sometimes a demand for labour in one trade and a surplus in another, and greater mobility would enable the demand to be more easily met; but even now it is very rarely, if ever, that such a demand cannot be met by the absorption of the unemployed in the trade needing them.

Question VII.—If the demands on the adult worker are now more exacting and if the apprenticeship system is falling into disuse, how would you suggest that youth be trained? *Mr. John Richardson.*
24 Feb., 1908.

Answer VII.—The demands on the adult worker are more exacting as regards quantity, but less as regards quality, *i.e.*, he is expected to do much more; and thus works under a greater strain, but with the help of the tools, templates, and appliances which are at his service, while the quality of the product may be equal or even superior, the quality of his labour is less. As regards apprentices, the old system under which they were properly taught all the details of their trade has ceased entirely with the small employer.

In the large factories, unless a heavy premium is paid, the apprentice is taught to carry out some small process for many months after he has learned all that can be learned from it. As he gets bigger and stronger, he may be put to another process at which he may be kept for years, working for the profit of his employer, not for his own instruction.

The way in which I think youths of both sexes should be trained is shown very fully in my book "How It Can Be Done," chaps 2 to 5. Briefly, all are taught two trades (handicrafts); all have also the opportunity of learning more if they wish it, *i.e.*, any art, science, or accomplishment. The school life of all is extended to the age of twenty-one, by which time they are much more than self-supporting. The theoretical and practical training goes on side by side. In this way the highest skill and the greatest mobility would be secured. Four years' employment at full time in the university workshops, farms, etc., pays very amply for the balance of the cost of their education and training.

Question VIII.—In view of the greater complexity of economic conditions, do you consider that some public organisation (such as, e.g., Distress Committees, Labour Exchanges, and the like) is necessary?

Answer VIII.—In view of the much greater complexity of economic conditions at the present time, public organisation of employment on an extensive scale is, in my opinion, absolutely necessary. Anything, however, in the nature of the present Labour Exchanges and Distress Committees is useless, for, though making at great cost a slight alleviation in the condition of a few, they can effect no real or permanent improvement in the condition of all.

On the average from 4 per cent. to 5 per cent. of the skilled, and an equally large proportion of the unskilled, labourers are always out of work.

The reason they are out of work is this: We carry on nearly all our industries, not for the sake of public utility, but for private profit. Thus, when a man needs to be employed the private employer or his agent does not ask if it would be a good thing for the man to be employed, or a good thing for the nation that he should produce wealth for his own or national use; but only, can he (the employer) get any profit out of the man's labour? Very often he cannot, and so the workman remains unemployed, and becomes a burden instead of a source of wealth to the nation.

District Committees and Labour Exchanges can do no more than transfer the burden, *i.e.*, they may at great cost obtain work for some instead of others, but they do not, and cannot, materially increase the total demand for labour. Thus A is employed instead of B, but the number out of employment remains practically the same.

Private enterprise and the efforts of Labour Exchanges and District Committees to obtain employment for labour cannot in the nature of things ever solve the unemployed problem, as it is very much to the interest of the private employer that there should be always a man out of work when for any cause he wants one.

Any effort also to prevent sweating by penal enactments must fail so long as any willing worker is out of work.

All sweating and all improper employment of female and child labour, as well as unemployment, will stop as soon, and only as soon, as we give an opportunity for work and fair wages to all willing to work, at all times, and in all parts of the country.

This can only be done in connection with State farms, forests, and factories. State employment.

These State workers should not be set merely to make or mend roads, chop firewood, or break stones, as has often been done in the past, nor to do anything which

Mr. John
Richardson.

24 Feb., 1908.

meant competition in the open market. That would only raise further difficulties in disposing of their products. The right way is to let them supply their own and each others needs, *i.e.*, to grow, reap, and prepare food for themselves, to build houses, and dwell in them, make tools and use them, breed and tend sheep and cattle, and eat them; make leather of their skins and produce their own boots; spin and weave their own wool, and make all their own clothing and furniture. With the exception of raw cotton and a few spices and tropical fruits, the communities would be entirely self-contained and self-supporting.

With their labour properly organised, these workers would produce far more wealth than they could possibly consume, so that there would be no difficulty in finding the small proportion that would be required to exchange for cotton, tropical fruits, etc., and to make provision for old-age pensions.

Cost of dealing with the unemployed.

We have now unemployed some 500,000 persons, and to deal with them all properly there would be required a national credit (not cash) to the extent of at least £25,000,000. This would not be required all at once. This is a large amount, but it is much less than the sum that we actually expend every year on our criminals and paupers, *viz.*, about £32,000,000. Long before we had reached our maximum expenditure the greater part of this latter cost would be saved.

Relation of crime to poverty.

A long experience of some twenty-seven years as a magistrate has convinced me that much more than half our crime is due merely to poverty. This cause of crime would be removed with the national provision of work for the unemployed. Pauperism would then be limited to the very young and to the aged and helpless.

It may be objected that the class of labour we should get is of a low grade. To a certain extent that may be true, but to a much smaller extent than is generally supposed, as there are thousands of quite worthy, highly-skilled men out of work. If even some of them are second and third rate, they rapidly improve under good conditions.

As a Visiting Justice of Lincoln Prison and Chairman of the Borstal Committee, I have taken a great interest in the care and reformation of criminals. These we have to deal with are a much more degraded class than the worst of the "out of works," and on their reception some of them seem quite hopeless. Nevertheless, a few months of regular habits, school, and useful work, transforms most of them into quite different and better characters; they become bright, intelligent, and skilful. If, when their term of imprisonment was over, we could be sure of regular and remunerative employment for all of them, I feel sure that nine-tenths of them would become useful and honourable citizens, as some do now; with the unemployed this is still more certain.

Estimated expenses of training and providing work for the unemployed.

It must be remembered that the average earnings (not wages) of all workers in England is now, in spite of the wasteful way in which much of the work is carried on, over £3 a week, allowing for a somewhat lower class of worker in the unemployed, we may safely take their average earnings to be two-thirds of this amount or £2 a week. Then assuming that we absorbed all the unemployed, we should have 500,000 persons earning £2 a week for forty-eight weeks in a year = £48,000,000.

The contra account would be as follows:—

By wages of workers— <i>i.e.</i> , credit in the national stores at an average of 32s. per week each for 48 weeks	- £38,400,000
15,000 instructors and foremen at £150	- 2,250,000
500 superintendents at £500	- 250,000
50 district superintendents at £1,000	- 50,000
One chief at £2,000	- 2,000
Clerks, bookkeepers, etc., say	- 1,000,000
Raw material, such as cotton, dye stuffs, spices, and tropical fruits, which cannot be produced on their own land, say	- 2,000,000
Total	- £43,952,000
Balance for old-age pensions, sick fund, education, etc.	- 4,048,000
	- £48,000,000

In addition there would be a saving to the nation in the reduced expenditure over crime and pauperism of not less than - £10,000,000

Such is the scheme which I would suggest, when in its entirety, and it would have to develop to these dimensions in order to absorb all the unemployed. Naturally it would begin on a much smaller scale, but it would be well to acquire all the land required at once. About 250,000 acres would be needed for forests, farms, factories, and dwellings, and it is for this purpose and for purchase of the original stock that a large part of the credit of twenty-five millions, say, about ten millions, would be required.

The land should not be all in one place, but in at least ten different centres, so that it would comprise all kinds, containing coals, minerals, and stone and slate quarries, as well as forests, grazing and arable land, and it must be well watered.

About one-tenth of the total number employed would be engaged in agriculture and cattle raising. These would begin at once. Then those engaged in food preparation, such as bakers, butchers, etc., then brickmakers, joiners, carpenters, and blacksmiths.

Coal and iron mining should be commenced as soon as possible, and blast furnaces and ironworks should be set up. Thus the materials for tools, houses, and factories would be prepared.

As materials were accumulated, houses would be built and furnished, and farm buildings and factories erected. Army tents could be used for the shelter of workmen until this was done.

The national stores in the various centres would be the first to be erected, and for the first year these would have to be supplied with food and some clothing from our credit, afterwards by the produce of the workers. These stores would absorb about £4,000,000 of our credit, and supposing that we started with 10,000 persons, and went in the first year up to 50,000, there would be spent in organisation another £300,000.

Thus:—	
Land and stock would take	- £10,000,000
Stores	- 4,000,000
Organisation	- 300,000
Raw materials, say	- 700,000

Total £15,000,000

Beyond this there would be required:—

Seed for the root and corn crops, seedling and transplanted forest and fruit trees. The whole would come well within the credit of 25 millions, and the whole of this, with the exception of about six millions, would consist of remunerative capital expenditure.

By the end of the first year, vegetable and animal food enough would be produced; flour mills would be erected, then cotton and woollen mills, clothing and boot factories, wood and metal works, and factories for engineers, machine and agricultural implements in proportion only as they were needed.

The number employed might be added to at the rate of 50,000 a year, thus absorbing all within ten years, but making an immense difference from the very first.

After the first three years no further credit would be required, and when in full operation the results would be as shown above and would continue a constant source of revenue to the nation.

94040. (Chairman.) Some of these questions are very technical and abstruse, and involve answers of a similar character. You seem to think, and I think your testimony is rather contrary to a good deal of the evidence we have had, that the effect of the general spread of machinery is to diminish the demand for labour?—At present it is so; it was not always so, but it is now.

94041. How long do you think it is since this change has occurred?—At any rate during the last ten years I should say it began to turn, and from that time year by year machinery is displacing labour to a greater extent.

94042. I think you are a civil engineer?—I am.

94043. Have you a factory?—For forty years I was Partner and Managing Director of an engineering works.

94044. Your opinion is that the demand for labour has in the last ten years, in consequence of the spread of machinery, been checked?—That is so.

94045. You have no figures, I suppose, to prove that; it is theory a good deal, I suppose, based on your own observation?—That is so. I have known many cases where the introduction of machinery has operated so that one man has been able to do as much as four, five, or six, and in some cases a dozen men, and the introduction of such machinery is becoming more general.

94046. Do you not think it may be you are more conscious of the effect of displacement in the immediate locality, but you may not be conscious of the increased demand for commodities which cheapening processes produce, and therefore you may be unaware of the movement which is going on outside elsewhere?—I do not think so. My business extended, not only all over England but all over the world practically.

94047. I suppose you would agree that the diminished cost of an article increases the demand for it?—That is so. I have stated that in my evidence. The first effect is to increase the demand, but now and for ten years past, and increasingly year by year, the production has overtaken the demand, and more and more skilled men are being displaced.

94048. You do not think that the general fall in price, or the fall occasioned by the introduction of machinery in price, has resulted in an increased demand for other commodities outside?—Not nearly to an equivalent extent.

94049. You think that the Workmen's Compensation Act has rather curtailed the age at which people used to be able to get employment?—Decidedly.

94050. You have no doubt in your mind about that?—No doubt whatever that the old men are got rid of.

94051. We have had that in evidence too, but there has been a difficulty in the previous witnesses finding figures; I suppose you have no figures in respect to that?—I have no figures in the way of statistics, but I can put my hand on a good many men who have been displaced merely because they were old.

94052. I think you do assert that the strain on the men working in some trades has increased of recent years?—That is so.

94053. The machinery has been speeded up?—Yes.

94054. On the other hand, longevity seems to be greater than it was?—Yes, but there are other causes which produce that, our towns are better sanitarially dealt with than they used to be.

94055. You think the working life of a man, partly from legislation, and partly from the speeding up of machinery, has not been extended but rather contracted?—From that cause contracted, but extended from other causes.

94056. His natural life has been extended, but his working life has not?—His working life has been contracted.

94057. Going on to some of your suggestions, I take first that with regard to the youths. I think you endorse the opinion which has been given by previous witnesses that one of the evils of the present day is that so many boys rush into unskilled trades directly they leave school, casual employment?—My own experience is that there is a tendency for boys to rush into unskilled trades, it depends on what you call the clerk. I do not find many boys try to rush into unskilled labour.

94058. The tendency rather is to run into clerical work?—Yes, there is a tendency that way.

94059. As opposed to manual work?—Yes. That is counteracted. I may say that sons of the working classes rather have a tendency to go into clerical work, but sons of professional men, and even landowners sometimes, come into mechanical work.

94060. Mechanical work of the highest kind?—Yes.

94061. I suppose you would say the tendency of our modern education has been to encourage boys to go in for a profession where they wear black coats?—That is so, but that I think has been overcome. I should say that was strongly so ten years ago, but I think we have got past the worst of that. It was an evil thing, and many of them to-day are put to something better.

94062. At present we are told there is an abundant supply of clerical labour which can be obtained on very cheap terms?—That is so.

94063. As regards the school life, you say here, you would like the school life to be extended to twenty-one?—Yes, to twenty-one years of age.

94064. By which time, you say, they would be more than self-supporting?—Yes.

49065. Of course, that would have two effects, it would on one hand deprive the parents and others of the wages that the boy might earn, and would also entail the State or Public Authority maintaining those people while they are so at school?—Where their homes are not convenient and good enough for them, it would entail them being maintained by the State.

94066. That would be a heavy expenditure?—It would be a heavy expenditure, but, on the other hand, the production of their labour would go to the State, and they would earn more than they could consume; that is after they were sixteen years of age.

94067. Do you contemplate their doing anything that would be of such a character as to contribute to their maintenance?—Yes, decidedly.

94068. They would be partly self-supporting?—Partly self-supporting, and entirely self-supporting after sixteen or eighteen years of age; I would rather say eighteen. They would contribute a good deal at sixteen, and be entirely self-supporting at eighteen.

94069. The State should make up the difference up to a certain age, and after that age they would be self-supporting?—Yes.

94070. You do not propose the cost on the State should be extended to twenty-one years, but only that it should go up to the period until the boy became wholly supporting, which you put at eighteen?—I put it at eighteen. It is quite clear by the time this proposal of mine had been in operation for some years it would leave a revenue for the State, rather than be a burden on it, but the State would need to supply a good many millions, perhaps £10,000,000 the first year, and a little less the next year, of and so on; but within twenty years it would begin to reap a revenue.

94071. You draw up a very large scheme for our contemplation, and you start from the supposition that at present an employer does not employ anybody unless he can get a profit out of his labour?—That is so; I have never known an employer who did.

94072. That would be the natural state of things?—Yes.

94073. You think that there are about some half a million unemployed, and you think it would be possible for the State so to organise them as not only not to lose by the transaction, but even to make, independent of other advantages, a little profit out of it?—I think to make a good deal of profit out of it.

94074. It is a big scheme, but does not the whole scheme depend on this, that you can make the work of these unemployed worth £2 a week?—It does depend on that.

94075. Is not that a big supposition. Should you say the work of the great mass of the people of the wage-earning class in this country is worth £2 a week?—Most of it is worth £4; £3 on the average at least. Most of it is worth £4 and some £5.

94076. You would argue, I suppose, that the employer gets the whole difference between the £3, or whatever sum put as the worth of the labour, and the wage he pays?—No, he wastes more than half of it in his trade expenses, the expenses of competition; he keeps a little for himself at the end.

94077. This big scheme you put before us all depends on these 500,000 persons earning £2 a week for forty-eight weeks in the year. Of course the scheme is a very big one and would entail a most enormous expenditure; but supposing they would only earn £1 a week, which from my own experience I should think would be putting it very high, there would be a very large deficit at the end of the year?—If they only earned £1 a week, that would be so but they could and would do more. I do not see why a man should earn any less when working for himself than he did when working for an employer.

94078. Do you not think those who are unemployed, these 500,000, are practically the worst, or the least efficient workers in the labour market, and that is the reason they are not employed?—No, I have known some of the best and most highly skilled men to be thrown out of work.

94079. But they can form a small proportion? Take London for instance. You would not deny that in London

Mr. John Richardson.

24 Feb., 1908.

Extension of school age.

Scheme of State organisation of unemployed.

Economic worth of workmen.

Character of unemployed.

Mr. John
Richardson.
24 Feb., 1908.

the great mass of those out of employment are the inferior labourers ?—I am afraid that there are wasters, in London especially, somehow or other.

94080. Your 500,000 unemployed would to a large extent come from London and the other centres of population ?—I do not think so, if the suggestion I make were carried out, that one of our centres was in Scotland, and another in Ireland, and two or three others in the North of England. If we put our Colony near London we should get all the worst, but if we made at least ten colonies, we should then get the best from the various districts.

94081. You start with 15,000 instructors and foremen ?—I do not start with that ; I should only need those 15,000 if we had the 500,000 workmen. That is strictly *pro rata* to the number.

94082. You put one to thirty ?—Yes, about one to thirty. That is about the proportion I generally had of foremen to workmen. One to fifty sometimes, and in some high skilled work perhaps one to twenty-five, but on the average one to thirty.

94083. How many acres would you want for say 10,000 people ?—We ought to have at least half an acre per man ; I should prefer an acre.

94084. Half an-acre per man would not be enough would it, because they have their families.—It would not be enough if they were working all on the land, but I can put perhaps 10,000 men on an acre sometimes in a factory.

94085. Do you really think you would be able to train this class to be so far self-supporting as to build houses and dwell in them, make tools and use them, breed and tend sheep and cattle, and eat them ; make leather of their skins, and produce their own boots ; spin and weave their own wool ? It is a charming picture of primitive civilisation, but it would want very competent people nowadays to be able to hold their own.—They would be very competent people. It would be a foolish thing to start it all at once, but you would start it with a few, but make provision for doing it all. It would need all doing before we could get rid of the unemployed ; the number would get greater every year.

94086. We will put it into what to my mind seems a more practical shape. Do you think you could run a Labour Colony with 1,000 people on it, financially ?—To a profit, I am afraid not. I should want a sufficient number of people to include within them, all the necessary trades to provide everything that they want, and in such quantities as to do it economically.

94087. You think that if you extended the system and got it on a big scale, it would be profitable, though it would not on a smaller scale ?—I think so. It could be profitable on a smaller scale than I have put down there, but I have dealt with the whole problem. I think no doubt with 10,000 people it would pay well, but not, 2,000.

94088. How would you pay your people ; would you pay them piece work ; would you pay them in kind, or both pay them in kind and give them a certain cash allowance in addition ?—I should pay them like a business man is paid, by crediting them with the value of what they had produced in the books of the firm ; I should need no cash.

94089. Unless the community consumed what they produced, it would fetch a very low price outside ?—I think I have stated that I do not want them to compete with the outside market at all, but just to produce the things they need for themselves, and a man can produce much more than he consumes.

94090. Assuming you pay them in cash, how can you prevent them going outside your colony and buying these things cheaper ?—I would not pay them in cash they would be credited with the full value of their work. The first thing set up would be central stores, and they would be credited in the books of the department with all the work they had done ; there would be issued credit notes to get out of the store such quantities of the things as they had produced as was due to them.

94091. Might not this turn into rather a glorified truck system ?—Yes, but it would be different from that, because in the old truck system a man was paid something which was worth less than what he had earned ; in this system all they produce would be their own to divide

amongst themselves. There would be none of the truck objections to it ; they could not be sweated.

94092. You would credit a man with a certain sum which you say is equivalent to his wages ?—Yes.

94093. If he is forced to exchange that at an excessively high price for commodities, it is practically paying him low wages ?—It would not be at excessively high prices ; he was forced to do that under the truck system, but he would buy everything at prime cost here.

94094. But assuming your prime cost was much above market cost ?—I do not know why I should assume that ; a man who could make a handsome profit for an employer would make an equally handsome profit for himself. If a man can produce, as I know he can, £4 worth of wealth a week, and he only consumes £2 a week, he would have £2 extra to his credit.

94095. (Mr. Bentham.) You would have to have some system of getting at the value of the commodities produced, because you would have to get at the relative value of the things. How would you get at it ?—A competent man can do that. If you put an uneducated clerk to do this for them, they would be gammoned like anything, but a farm bailiff knows about how much work a man should do with a plough and he knows how much a man should reap in a day. In my own department, I should have no hesitation in knowing what a man should do at a vice, or lathe or machine.

94096. (Chairman.) You have given a good deal of State thought to these questions. You have written a book ?—That is so.

94097. Will you send us your book ?—I shall be very glad to do that.

94098. Your book is entitled, "How it can be done" is it not ?—Yes.

94099. (Mr. Lansbury.) That deals rather with education, does it not ?—I wrote that book in the midst of a period of great trade depression fifteen years ago, when I tried to find out for myself what was the cause of all this, and the best way out. I think the scheme in that book is the best way out of it.

94100. (Chairman.) That relates to what you told us about education ?—Yes, I think if we did anything like this and dealt with the adult unemployed now, and also started dealing with the young as well, that within about five years they would meet each other and form parts of one great whole.

94101. Do you think you could carry on a thing such as you suggest, I will not say on such a big scale, but on a moderate scale, without power of detention ?—Certainly, I would make it worth their while to stay. I think anything in the way of force with regard to attending at such works would be fatal to its success.

94102. You mentioned 500,000. Does that include women and children ?—No.

94103. Then there would be more ?—Yes.

94104. (Sir Samuel Provis.) You would have a certain number of people who would not stay, would you not ?—Certainly.

94105. What would you do with them ?—I should let them starve, and the sooner the better.

94106. Do you think public opinion would quite stand that ?—I think public opinion would, when there is a place where a man can earn all a man needs and get as good a living as anyone else can ; if he will not do it that man ought to starve. Public opinion will not stand it as long as a man cannot get a job.

94107. A man need not starve if he goes to a workhouse, but there is considerable public opinion if he starves because he does not go there ?—I think if we provided work for everyone that we could soon do without the workhouse.

94108. You suggest the school age should be raised to twenty-one, contemplating that during a certain period the scholars would earn their own living, or more than and earn their own living ?—Yes.

94109. Do you think they would be willing to work if they did not receive that amount for themselves ?—I do not think there would be any difficulty in that. If we

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send a boy now to a technical institution he stays there until twenty-one sometimes, and his father pays for him. He is doing the work, and the boy does not run away; he is getting good training; I do not see why a boy should run away from a good thing.

94110. Would he not find he was earning a wage that was not paid to him?—Not if he thought, "Up to a certain age I am receiving from the State and have contributed nothing, from a certain age I am earning perhaps half my living, now it is only honourable for me to stay till I am twenty-four or twenty-five years of age, until it has been shown quite clearly that I have earned enough to pay the expense on my education."

94111. You think he would feel that he should recoup the State for what was spent on him in the earlier years?—Yes.

94112. Do you think your experience shows that he would repay it?—Yes.

94113. (Mr. Chandler.) In your reply to Question No. 4, you confirm a reply that has been repeatedly expressed here, that the Employers' Liability Act has had the effect of driving aged men out of the labour market?—I think it has.

94114. Do you not find that the employers, since the passing of that Act have been compelled to insure themselves against this liability?—In nearly every case they have insured.

94115. Then it could not be such a factor in the discharge of these men, could it?—Yes, it is, because the employer knows if he has many accidents his premium is going to be raised. The insurance companies have to be carried on at a profit.

94116. I was trying to think whether the explanation was not more; what is said in one of the other paragraphs in answer to Question 8, where you say that no employer would employ a man except a profit can be got out of his labour, and when, by reason of age, his labour ceases to be profitable, then the employer gets rid of him?—There is less consideration for workmen now than there used to be. Going back a few years, when employers knew their employees more, they did keep on the old men out of consideration; the next stage was not so much consideration as convenience; an old man was kept on at a reduced wage; they dropped him 2s. a week this year, and 2s. a week the next year, so, instead of giving him 45s. a week as they once did, they got him at £1 a week.

94117. That was when an employer knew every one of his men and lived amongst them?—Yes; now the idea of that has gone.

94118. With regard to your experience as Chairman of the Borstal Committee, you say that there has been some remarkable results of the useful work the prisoners are doing?—That is so.

94119. You say it has transformed them into quite different and better characters?—That is so. I do not say in every case, but a large number of cases.

94120. You are quite satisfied that the work of that committee is proceeding in the direction of reforming the character?—That is so; we have now about forty-five, and, within the next year, we shall double our number, because the Department is so satisfied with the usefulness of the work we are doing at Lincoln. We make good carpenters and smiths, not very skilled, but still useful men, and good gardeners.

94121. (Mr. Phelps.) I quite understand the value of your system and the effect of it on the rising generation. I quite see if we adopt your line we might do a good deal for the next generation, or the next generation but one, but how do you propose to deal with the present moment? We have an immense number of adults who comprise the unemployed. How do you propose to deal with that mass of people?—I say I should require at least 250,000 acres of land at once. I would start afforestation, I would start cultivating it, I would set the men to grow some food for themselves, to tend cattle and so forth.

94122. That is all skilled labour?—That would absorb some skilled labour.

94123. That is all skilled labour?—Yes.

94124. A number of these people are quite incompetent to do forest work or raise their own food?—*Mr. John Richardson.* There are plenty of men out of employment who are able to do that. 24 Feb., 1908.

94125. A large number would require a period of training, would they not?—I know plenty of men who are working hard all day long as engineers or carpenters or builders, who take the greatest delight in growing their own food in their spare time.

94126. Why is it, do you think, these people have flocked so much to the towns and given up the country?—I think in consequence of the dulness of the country population, and the low wages principally. That is what the farmers tell us.

94127. Have you any remedy to suggest under those two heads?—Yes, I think so, if they reform the land question.

94128. You think that is a cure for it afterwards?—Yes, too much goes in the rent, and too little in the labour which produces the rent.

94129. Do you think on the whole the agricultural labourer is worth more than he is paid in labour?—I think a great deal more.

94130. In the result of his labour?—Yes. He is the only indispensable person in the world.

94131. Would you be glad to see more done in the way of technical training for agricultural labourers?—Yes.

94132. How do you think it could be managed?—I Schools for think it could be managed by establishing such schools agricultural as I have suggested in my scheme, which I shall be glad to place before you, and these would be centres of intelligence and centres of interest to them; and would make village life have more life and interest in it.

94133. What authority would you put them under, who would you rely on to carry out these works?—The head of the establishments, the masters of the schools.

94134. Do you think the county would be a large enough area for a scheme of that sort?—Yes.

94135. Have you ever sat on the county council in Lincolnshire?—No, not at all.

94136. Do you know at all how far their work at present really fills up their time, how much they have for any other work?—I think to put it under the county council would be a great mistake.

94137. Where would you put it?—I would start with the small schools and make real good schools in every village in a county; and there I should have a school board (we have no better name for it than that) and then we should have a smaller number of secondary schools; the committees of those schools should elect the members of the secondary ones, and the secondary schools should again elect their committee to work the industrial centres, and they should all work from below; they should know what they are doing, and do it as part of their business.

94138. People interested in education who have really studied the question?—Yes, who are fitted for it.

94139. When would you pass on a boy from an elementary school to a secondary school?—About fourteen; a good deal depends on the boy, from twelve to fourteen. Many could go at twelve.

94140. And the higher training school?—In my scheme I put it at sixteen; then his parents and the schoolmaster together must decide how he is to be specialised, then he is to go into the special one.

94141. Would you be prepared to let him work at the time he is at the special school?—Yes, about four hours a day.

94142. Do you think that plan would work in the country? Knowing what agricultural labour is, do you think that would be possible?—I think it would be sure to work.

94143. You think a man who could only work four hours a day could really find employment in the country?—The man who would be working for four hours would be working within the establishment; he would have his lessons for four hours, and his work for four hours all within the walls of the establishment, like a big college.

Mr. John Richardson.
24 Feb., 1908.
Schools for agricultural labourers.

94144. You do not mean he should do his work for a farmer outside for four hours?—No, the work should be part of his instruction.

94145. Would he earn any wages?—He would not be getting wages, he would be living in the establishment and getting board and lodging, and the account would be credited with the value of the work he did and debited with the amount spent on him.

94146. You know under ordinary conditions in the country children who are earning make a considerable addition to the family income?—I do.

94147. You would stop all that?—Yes, but I should take away also all the expense of the children.

94148. You think on the whole that is greater than the amount which they bring in?—Yes.

Housing of poor in rural districts.

94149. Have you paid much attention to the housing of the poor in the country?—No, I have not. Generally I have considered it.

94150. How far that is responsible for the efficiency of the agricultural labourer you have not examined very much?—Except that I know that in many places there are no houses for them, so that a man shall not get a settlement, and come on the rates.

Effects of machinery on employment.

94151. (Mr. Benthams.) I notice that you lay very strong emphasis on the fact that labour-saving machinery does not tend to increase employment; you say it rather decreases it?—I state it clearly that labour-saving machinery in the first instance does tend to cheapen the production and therefore increases employment very considerably, but eventually the production overtakes the demand, and then it decreases it, and that we have more than reached the point in our development where that takes place.

94152. Therefore if we wish to return to a stable state of affairs, we should give up inventing machinery?—No, I want to invent it. I have invented a great deal myself and it is a delight to do it.

94153. If it creates an evil?—It does not create an evil. It is society that creates the evil. The invention of machinery to create wealth is a great good, but when that is employed in such a way that a great many are brought to misery, then I say society does that, not the invention of machinery.

94154. It is a question of distribution really?—Yes, of equitable distribution.

94155. To take the first point first, that is as to whether it really does tend to increase employment ultimately, can you point to any single industry where there have been great strides in production, where there are fewer people employed to-day than there were prior to those inventions of labour-saving appliances?—I am not sure that I can, but I can see the time coming when that will be so. I can point to Laing's in Sunderland which is shut up, and many ironworks and establishments that have ceased to be and become bankrupt, and that sort of thing. I can just now see the turning point.

94156. It is more or less a question of locality, is it not, whether the coal, iron and various other things that enter into the production are as good as they are in other districts; the sum total in the iron trade, and in almost every other trade in the country, is higher now than it ever was before?

94157. (Mr. Chandler.) May I suggest there is a much less number employed in the spinning trade in Lancashire now than there was before this wholesale introduction of machinery. I mean spinners only, not weavers or any other department of the textile trade.

94158. (Chairman.) The aggregate in the cotton trade has increased has it not?

94159. (Mr. Chandler.) Granted, but in this particular department owing to the introduction of machinery the number of spinners has considerably decreased.

94160. (Mr. Lansbury.) Your argument is based on the fact that the output is so much greater?—The output of some things, but not of everything. Take such a thing as that which I am perfectly familiar with, the output of threshing machines. There was a time when people could not get threshing machines fast enough. Now there are so many people making them all over the world that there is a machine for every farmer. There are only

so many people in the world, and you cannot go on increasing your output of threshing machines long before you overtake the demand.

94161. (Mr. Benthams.) There are a number of people employed now in consequence of the introduction of machine reaping and threshing machines, that is, in making machines and in reaping, which would have to be taken together in order to ascertain whether the sum total of employment in those two industries is reduced?—Yes.

94162. If there are more people employed in making machines and fewer people in reaping and threshing corn by hand, there may be more corn grown by the use of these machines than there was formerly?—But nobody will ever grow more corn than we require to eat. It would be no use to us; there must be a limit, when we have grown enough to eat we do not want more.

94163. It has extended in many ways the use of the commodity, the use of the commodity for other purposes than eating?—True, but there is a limit.

94164. There is scarcely any limit to human wants and the produce of that could have been used in many ways to satisfy human wants which we never dreamed of before?—True.

94165. I think that the cotton industry which was taken as an example ought to be taken in its entirety and not one branch of it, just as even corn should be taken in its entirety, because certain machinery might facilitate production which would increase enormously the consumption and the manufacture of cotton goods; one process might be lessened, but the other process might be considerably increased?—Yes.

94166. I thought you might have some data, but it is an impression you have that it has reduced employment rather than increased it after a certain period has elapsed?—Yes, but it is an impression based upon careful observation during forty years.

94167. (Chairman.) Employment in Lincolnshire has increased now?—Yes, within the last forty years very much indeed, but not in the last few years; it is decreasing. Unemployment in Lincolnshire.

94168. The last three or four years?—The last year especially. There are more skilled men out of work now. One in ten in all the skilled trade unions in Lincolnshire is out now.

94169. That is largely in the manufacture of agricultural machines?—Yes, and the building trade is very poor.

94170. (Mr. Benthams.) Take the introduction of the steam engine, no one will deny that the facilities for increased production were almost undreamt of prior to that?—That is so.

94171. The sum total of employment has been increased enormously in consequence?—That is so.

94172. It introduced also our railway system which has made it possible to produce things, because they can be carried to where they are wanted?—True.

94173. We say, therefore, the sum total of the number of people employed is enormously increased, and is made possible by the introduction of these labour-saving devices?—True, and a great many people are employed now doing work that does not need to be done, but not more people in proportion are being properly fed and clothed now.

94174. You say there are people employed now doing work that need not be done?—Yes. Wastefulness of competitive system.

94175. What kind of work do you mean?—I not infrequently see on parallel lines of railway a truck of coal going one way, and a truck of coal going the other way, which is a waste of labour. In my own works I know that I have men sometimes who will spend a day in getting machinery ready to do a piece of work by machinery which can better be done by machinery than by hand. They will spend a whole day in setting a machine to do it, and they will do their work perhaps in a couple of hours when it is done, and then they have to spend a day in altering it for something else; that is because they are doing a small part of what the country needs. Very often in some small works they are wasting three parts of their time in altering the machines to do the work; and in the firm next door they are doing the same thing, wasting their time; it is the same thing in the next town, they are

wasting their time. A great deal of work is being done that does not need to be done at all, because we are all competing with each other.

94176. Various employers, in order to meet the demand and to satisfy their customers, are taking the shortest possible cut in the production; they know otherwise that they would be very soon superseded and other people would take it on. Taking it on that ground, there cannot be a great amount of waste.—There is. If you have, as we have in Lincoln, which is a typical case, three very large firms doing practically the same thing, each firm must have special machinery for doing part of their work, and there must be three sets, whereas one set could do it for all three. They must each have a complete set of moulding boxes and patterns, and three sets of draughtsmen, where one could do for them all. That is what I mean by a waste of labour.

94177. The same appliances could be more fully employed?—Yes, in doing the work, instead of spending the time altering it and getting it ready for the next job.

94178. That points to a wider organisation of all industry?—Yes.

94179. I do not think we need go into that, because it is not the point at issue?—No, but it was in answer to your question.

94180. In the scheme which you outline, you suggest that £25,000,000 should be raised on credit?—Yes.

94181. You say not cash?—Yes.

94182. I suppose that £25,000,000 will have to be issued somehow. How are you going to issue that £25,000,000? How could you do it entirely upon credit?—I do not say entirely without cash at the beginning, to buy the land we might require whatever the sum is—£10,000,000 for land. Government stock could be issued to pay for that.

94183. If it is paid by Government stock, it would mean that interest would have to be paid for it?—Yes.

94184. Then you would be really borrowing £25,000,000, that is what it means?—Borrowing from ourselves.

94185. There is one set of persons going to be put to work in various ways by the use of this £25,000,000?—Yes.

94186. And you go so far as to say it shall be in the way of agriculture and cattle-raising, and then you would require all the subsidiary industries which follow, even to coal and iron mining?—Yes.

94187. If you are going to raise money to provide coal and iron mines and such industries as those, would you not reduce the amount of coal and iron mining that is already going on? Would it not be a simpler process to buy up some of those coal and iron mines?—No, I do not think so; we want to provide employment. We are dealing with the unemployed question. To merely go and spend £10,000,000 in buying up a lot of things does not employ anyone. I want to employ these 500,000 usefully. To dig a mine and find some iron is to find some useful employment for them.

94188. If, as you state here, you find work for one man, and he displaces another man, which you say in one of your other paragraphs, if you set up a coal and iron mine in one district, you stop a coal and iron mine somewhere else?—No, because I am going to produce more wealth; these men go insufficiently clad and fed; I am going to put them to make more clothes for themselves; they are improperly housed, I will set them to work to build houses for themselves. I do not want to interfere with anyone else's trade, they would not compete in the open market at all, they would provide for their own wants. We, through the open market, have to pay through the rates and taxes for them.

94189. In order to try a scheme of this kind you would be prepared to suggest that, with this amount of land and this £25,000,000, you would take so many persons, for which you have stipulated here, 500,000, and you would say all those would be able to earn their living?—Some of them would starve, and I would let them, but some of them would earn a great deal more.

94190. You think you would be able so to organise their labour, and so produce things that they would all have a sufficiency, and be able to work for it and live in comfort?—Certainly; not only that, but everybody will live in comfort because of the labour they do.

94191. There is one thing you will have done, you will have taken £25,000,000 of money from other people who are already employed by this money, and those will be brought into your hands; they are already waiting to be absorbed in consequence.—I would not take £25,000,000; I want a credit of £25,000,000, that is all; I should have to pay interest on it for a few years; bye-and-bye, within a few years, I would be able to pay it back.

94192. It is often said that these people are now being provided for and they are now consuming less, I grant than possibly you think they ought to consume, but yet they are consuming?—Yes.

94193. Therefore you would withdraw the whole of this demand from the outside market, from the other people who are now providing them with things?—Yes.

94194. And you would also be taking more from them in the way of taxation, which is assisting the people to employ others; therefore you would be increasing the number of people who wanted to be dealt with under your system.—Again I am not going to deal with all at once. By the time we have got it all done we shall have relieved the nation of at least £30,000,000 a year in other ways. It is no extra burden on them; we spend it on the criminals and paupers now, but then on ordinary industries.

94195. How will you save that?—By eliminating them. A great many of them would die off in twenty years, and we should not make any more. Those who drift to the workhouses now would come into our workshops instead.

94196. You do not suggest you would take all the people out of the workhouses?—No, you would let them die.

94197. You would not take all those out?—No, but I would not put any more in.

94198. Your scheme would tend to stop the supply?—Yes.

94199. To stop the wreckages and failures of society?—Yes.

94200. Would it stop the man who takes to drink and disposes of all he has. Would it stop the man who has premature illness brought on by his own evil habits of life? All that kind of thing would still go on, would it not?—Not all of it; it would stop a great deal of that. A good deal of that depends on ample opportunities of doing wrong and no opportunity of doing right.

94201. Your scheme would not regenerate society, it would only deal with the surplus which now exists. I do not see how you would reach these people and so influence their lives as to prevent them becoming wreckages of society.—I am thinking of a great many men I know personally who would be only too glad to come in and work their way; and as good men as those, in the present state of society, have no chance of work.

94202. I want to take a wider view, it affects the whole nation. Sometimes we can see on a small scale what appears to be feasible, but applying it to all the nation it would alter the whole problem.—I do not quite understand your question.

94203. It is easy to see how possibly you can deal with two or three people who are round you; but when it comes to dealing with all the people who would need to be dealt with in this way it becomes rather a serious problem, its dimensions are altered immensely?—I have found in my experience of life that nearly everybody has a great deal more good than evil in them, they at most would rather do right than wrong if they had an equal chance. Even as to criminals, sitting on the Bench I have often been asked: Will you give me a job? or: Can you tell me where I can get a job? But you cannot do it now.

94204. I take it we all want to make it easier to do right and harder to do wrong. We want people to recognise that they have obligations to society as well as some rights?—Certainly.

94205. In bringing that to their notice would you suggest to them now, when you have no work to do, that the nation will provide you always with a ready job or full maintenance, as you suggest here?—Yes, I would.

Mr. John Richardson.
24 Feb., 1908.
Question of money to provide large scheme of employment?

Scheme of State employment.

Mr. John
Richardson.
24 Feb., 1908.
The right to
work.

94206. Then there would be really no inducement for people to rely upon their own exertions, that is, provide against the exigencies of life which come to all, if at all times they could fall back on the State and be provided for?—Fall back on themselves. Here is a man who can earn £3 or £4 a week; how many want an opportunity of doing it? A private individual cannot provide it, the State has a right to do it then. The provision of work by private individuals has signally failed. It has broken down from day to day; but the man relies on himself; he says: I want a chance of working for myself. We have taken his land from him, we have taken his workshop from him. What are you to do? You must give them to him again.

94207. You think it would not prevent the man from so husbanding his resources as to be able to tide over any period of distress from whatever cause it may be; or on the other hand you do not want him to tide over it?—I do not want him to have the period of distress to tide over; I do not see why he should, because each man can earn so much more than he consumes; it is a foolish thing to let a man who can earn more than he consumes fail to do it.

94208. It all depends on this: You think things can be so organised that there will always be sufficient work for every man; then there are the women and children to come in somewhere?—To maintain wife and family.

94209. Sufficient work for every person who needs to work under proper conditions?—Yes.

94210. Then comes another question, as to the payment for work. All men are not equal in their producing power?—No.

94211. It may be mentally or it may be physically?—True.

94212. And all men have not equal liabilities, that is they have not equal responsibility?—True.

94213. They have not equal families; a single man might very well be able to earn what will maintain him even though he may be inefficient; he may produce more than he consumes; but when you come to a man who may be more or less efficient he has these other liabilities or responsibilities attached to him. He cannot provide for all those unless you actually pay him far more than he earns?—Are you dealing with a man now physically or mentally weak? He must be either mentally or physically weak. If he is a cripple and cannot work we pity him, and maintain him out of our funds; if he is mentally weak, we maintain him now out of our national funds; there is a similar provision now.

94214. As an employer, have you known men who are below the standard at which you would care to employ men regularly for some reason or other; it appears he is in dolent, you do not know why, it may be from some physical defect, and if you have no knowledge of any physical defect, at any rate, there is an inefficient worker of his class, I suppose we always shall have those, and I suppose under your system that that man is going to be paid and maintained on exactly the same level as the man who is more alert and industrious?—I do not say so.

94215. It comes to this then, that if you are going to discriminate between the two you are going to pay on the basis of what each man earns, not what he needs. Which do you propose to pay on, the man's producing capacity or upon his needs?—I would pay, first, everyone according to their needs, but some men's needs are smaller than others, and sometimes their capacities are greater. At present I should give the man who earned the most the chance of having the most. I would give to every man all he earned for himself, just less the cost of administration. It would be to their interests then to earn as much as they could.

94216. You would have to give some men more than they earned?—I do not think so, unless the man is really an idiot or a cripple, and we have to deal with them now, we put them into an institution for incurables.

94217. He suffers to a certain extent in this way, it may be for his own misdeeds, but at any rate he has not the same easy time of it as a man who has a better facility of production and better reward for his labour. You must face this fact, you have to pay the men according to their needs or the value of the work done. If you

pay according to the value of the work done, that means Basis of that a single man would be getting twice as much in pay- remuneration as a married man who needed it more and could not to work- earn it. Unless you pay according to their wants you are not going to remedy all the evils you think you are. under public ownership system. If you pay according to needs, what inducement is there for the single man to work hard and make up, as he would have to, for the inefficiency of the others. What inducement would there be to him if he does not get the reward of his labour?—I would give him the reward of his labour. I would not give to anyone the reward of someone else's labour, if he can earn it himself. If he cannot earn it himself, he must be a burden upon society as he is now.

94218. That class would be a burden on your community if they enter it?—They are now, they would be then, but we should have fewer of them.

94219. In spite of that, you think you could make your community practically self-supporting, because it would get a fair sprinkling of all classes?—Yes.

94220. It would carry its own sick and own wreckages and provide for all emergencies?—I do not suppose that more than 10,000,000 men do any work now, and they carry the whole burden of all society, they carry the burden of all those who do not work now. We should not have any millionaires to keep then. With regard to the credit, may I be allowed to say I know a firm quite well, a very large firm, which has for many years paid in dividends over £60,000 a year. That was started almost without any capital. A rich man said: If you will give me one-third of your earnings, I will guarantee you at the bank; I will open a credit for £25,000. For many years time that man drew out an average of £20,000 a year, and about £500,000 in capital at the end of the partnerships. That was all done by working men's earnings.

94221. Do you think you could find a man at £2,000 a year who would manage your establishment?—Yes.

94222. When he could get £20,000 a year by a private venture?—You do not get people who do the work getting £20,000 a year, it is those who do not do the work who get it.

94223. It is the person who organises it?—The persons who organise do not get £2,000 a year. The best filled offices in the country are filled for under £2,000 a year.

94224. Who gets it?—This man who merely guaranteed two clever young men. He merely guaranteed them £25,000, and he got all that. I am speaking of a wealthy capitalist who was convinced of the skill of two young engineers and guaranteed them at the bank for £25,000. He did not put down a penny. In about ten years he drew about £20,000 a year out of it. The real manager of those works never got over £1,000 a year—the man who really did it. That man did not do anything certainly to it, but he drew £500,000 in twenty-five years' time.

94225. He was able to discern the skill.—He did not do anything, he did not earn a penny.

94226. (Chairman.) He put the money in?—He did not, he said to the bank: I will be responsible for this money and pay if they do not. He was convinced these young men, i.e., the factory, would pay it. He looked into their books and he insisted on their paying a competent clerk out of his own office to see that they kept their accounts right.

94227. (Mr. Bentham.) That was exactly the same as finding the money?—No, I was showing what can be done with credit, without money. I want to emphasise the fact that the men who earned the money never got more than £1,000 a year for managing the works.

94228. (Mr. Lansbury.) You have had a good deal of experience, have you not?—I have. Practical experience of witness.

94229. You are not a professional political economist?—No, I am merely a practical man.

94230. Your paper is the result of the experience of forty years' work amongst skilled and unskilled workers?—That is so.

94231. You were one of a very large firm of engineers in the country?—That is so.

94232. You have been able to see the results of inventions and machinery in the conditions under which men employed labour?—I have.

94233. The things you tell us in the first part of your Statement are things which have come within your own knowledge and are not theoretical at all, but practical?—They are things which came within my own knowledge.

94234. On that point about production overtaking the demand, is not your contention this, that our means of producing commodities to-day are so great that individual production and distribution does not absorb them as rapidly as our means to produce come along?—That is so. As an illustration, a few weeks ago I visited a boot factory, one of the large boot factories in Leicester, and I counted up the processes to calculate the time, and taking the time of the processes they went through I found that a man there can make a pair of boots in a quarter of an hour. You cannot consume them at that rate.

94235. Although it is true that there is an increased demand at the moment, yet, even if we take it for granted that what a particular machine that is invented at a particular time will produce can be got rid of under ordinary circumstances, is it not the fact that invention keeps on at a more rapid rate, so that what is a new machine to-day becomes an antiquated machine, practically speaking, to-morrow?—That is so.

94236. Supposing it could be said that in one case they were absorbed, or would be absorbed, another machine comes along and really displaces the older machine?—That is so.

94237. With regard to skilled work, is it not also the fact that more and more, in your trade particularly, skilled work is really not required with the people who are employed—skilled work in the old sense?—In the old sense there is not. There must always be a few skilled men, but there are fewer of them needed, and unskilled men can do now a good deal more skilled work than a skilled man could do a few years ago.

94238. Does that allow for the fact that women and boys are very much more largely employed in some engineering shops than formerly?—That is so. Personally, I think the women are employed because they are cheaper and more tractable than men; you get more out of them.

94239. (*Mr. Bentham.*) Would you say there were fewer skilled mechanics to-day than there were?—I do not say there are fewer skilled mechanics, but I say the proportion of skilled mechanics to the number of men employed is fewer than it was.

94240. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) And the need for them is not so great in proportion to the output?—That is so.

94241. Of course, the women are employed because besides being more tractable they are cheaper, are they not?—Yes, they are cheaper.

94242. And in all industry, so far as you have had to do with it, the trend is to cheapen production?—Decidedly.

94243. That results in two things happening; first of all you displace the men, or a number of men, and then they have no demand; they are not competent to demand anything. They have got to go without things?—That is so.

94244. Therefore, you very often have as in Leicester, if you have been investigating there, the curious position, that the power to produce boots is so great that people are going without boots there who used to be bootmakers?—That is so.

94245. Did you investigate the unemployment amongst the shoemakers in Leicester at all?—Thoroughly, no. I do not know so much about it that my evidence on that subject would be worth a great deal.

94246. We are continually told that we ought to give boys a better training, so that when they are men they will have more skill, and all the rest of it?—True.

94247. Do you think under present conditions we are in need of more skilled men?—I do not think a man can have too much skill. The fault I find with the present man is that he does not know enough, they do not think about it enough. I would like to have as much skill as

possible, and as much invention as possible, and as much production as possible, but then I want those who produce it to enjoy it.

94248. I am not thinking of a condition of things which would be Socialism, but I am thinking of the present condition of things. This Commission will have to report on some practical means for dealing with the unemployed to-morrow as it were. What I want to get from you is this: If in your judgment all the unemployed people to-day were skilled mechanics, had been trained as you say you want the boys and girls to be trained to industries, would there, under the present circumstances, be a demand for their labour?—There would not.

94249. You speak as one who represents a very large firm of engineers; what I want to get is that in your definite opinion, leaving the present industrial arrangements as they are, it is not merely more training that is required to bring employment within the reach of men, it is opportunities for using the knowledge and skill they have, and those opportunities at present private enterprise does not supply, does it?—That is so. It supplies it very largely, but it does not supply sufficient. I think it is likely to supply less.

94250. That is a point I was coming to. You have said once or twice that you thought most distinctly that there were less and less men needed, or less and less help needed now than there were a few years ago. Do you think the tendency is to squeeze out men more and more?—Yes.

94251. Does that to some extent account also for the fact that labour of all kinds apparently is becoming more and more casual in its nature?—That largely accounts for it.

94252. Could you tell us whether it happened in Lincoln, or whether it is happening in Lincoln, and in places that you know of, that employers instead of taking men on, and keeping them year after year, are simply taking them on for a job now, and knocking them off, and that sort of thing?—I would hardly say that. Lincoln has been exceptionally favoured in that respect. The rule is for a man to be employed for many years, but of late years the practice has been to discharge them at a much earlier age and take on fresh lads as apprentices, and train up a younger generation of men.

94253. That is, I suppose, because competition is very much keener?—Yes, competition is keener; it has been stated, but I do not know it of my own knowledge, that more than 700 skilled men have been discharged within the last six months in Lincoln. I had it from the principal of one of the works, but he does not know that of his own knowledge again,

94254. On this question of employment, you say that private enterprise has failed in the provision of work for a large number of our people?—Yes.

94255. You are aware that the Poor Law has attempted to deal with the problem, are you not?—Yes.

94256. In your judgment, I suppose, that has failed?—That has failed, and failed miserably.

94257. Have you had experience of the Unemployed Workmen Act that was passed three years ago?—No.

94258. You could not give any opinion as to that?—No. I retired from my position as managing director of my firm four years ago; and that has come into operation since.

94259. You have been asked a good many questions about the waster? Of course, as we are not living under an ideal system we have got those men and women, and they have to be dealt with. You admit that, do you not?—Yes.

94260. Your contention is that they should have a chance, before any penal measures are tried with them, of working under reasonable conditions?—That is so.

94261. Failing that, you are not particular what measures are taken with them?—Not at all.

94262. Your claim is that a man or woman should first of all have a chance to develop the best that is in them?—I think so; but I do honestly think that a great many more of them than we now imagine, would develop

Mr. John Richardson.

24 Feb., 1908.

Skilled training no remedy for unemployment.

Ration of production to demand.

Proportional increase of skilled men in industry.

Failure of private enterprise and of the Poor Law to provide sufficient work.

Skilled training no remedy for unemployment.

Mr. John Richardson. the good that is in them; and I base that upon my prison experience, that there is a great deal more than I thought there was.

24 Feb., 1908.

Questions
of the
inefficient
unemployed.

94263. You have had a good deal of experience. How long have you been a visiting justice?—About four years.

94264. Have you taken a good deal of interest in this?—I have.

94265. You come in contact with the prisoners?—Yes; we have a charity also in connection with it, and we personally interview the prisoners before they are discharged, or a large number of them.

94266. In your opinion there is not such a large number of people who will not respond if they are given a chance?—Not so many. We do try to find work for them now when they go out. I do not know a case of an adult prisoner (we only take the best cases) where we have found a reasonable job for him, who has not done well.

94267. Seeing that the unemployed are not, in the main of the criminal class, you think it is much more hopeful to deal with them in the same way; by finding work, than by any other means?—I think I do.

94268. (*Mr. Bentham.*) There is rather a difference between being in prison under discipline and being a free man?—Yes.

94269. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) I understand this is after they are discharged?—Yes.

94270. (*Mr. Bentham.*) Have you any system of following them up, and getting the results of their after life?—Our chaplain keeps in touch with them for some years. We have very interesting accounts from those who have done well. Of course, those are principally those of twenty-one years of age, juvenile adults, 40 or 50 per cent. of those do very well.

Necessity of
reform of
present
condition
of society

94271. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) You have been asked a good many things as to what might happen under your scheme. It is only fair to point out that a good deal of misery and destitution and wrong-doing is going on under the present method of carrying on society?—That is so.

94272. It is not an ideal state we are living in just now?—If it were, we should not be sitting here, I presume.

94273. You do not profess to have solved all the evils of mankind?—I do not.

Necessity
reform of
present
condition
of society

94274. You are putting this forward merely because the Poor Law, and all the other arrangements by which people for a hundred years have been trying to deal with the problem, have broken down?—That is so.

94275. You think they might as well try some other way instead of going on with the old condition of things?—Yes. When I say some other way, it is a way that we well know. I say that wealth is produced by labour; now give them an opportunity of producing wealth by their labour.

94276. And to have the user of it?—To have the user of it.

94277. Your contention all the time is that it is not that England is too poor, or that our means to produce things are not big enough, but it is a question of distribution and organisation all the time?—Yes, I put it down in my paper here, because I do not want to exaggerate, at £3 a week, but the average of production is nearer £5.

94278. You mean by that, that that is really what the man earns? It is not what he gets?—No; he gets about one-third of it, as a rule.

94279. (*Mr. Bentham.*) With regard to the instance you mentioned of the two young men, did I understand you to say those two young men never got more than £600 a year each?—No; those young men soon developed into country gentlemen, High Sheriffs, and so forth. They made their few thousands, and then they appointed the most competent man they could find and gave him £500 a year, increasing it to £1000 a year, for managing the business, continuing to receive the large profits for themselves.

94280. They organized the business?—Yes; so long as they were working.

94281. You did not say how much they got then?—They took out of the business, as long as they worked in it, £300 a year each, and did their own work; then when they got very rich they paid £600 to another man to do it for them.

ONE HUNDRED AND FORTY-EIGHTH DAY.

Tuesday, 25th February, 1908.

AT SCOTLAND HOUSE, WESTMINSTER, S.W.

PRESENT.

Mr. George Newman,
M.D.

25 Feb. 1908.

The Right Hon. Lord GEORGE HAMILTON, G.C.S.J.,
etc., etc., etc. (*Chairman*).
Sir SAMUEL B. PROVIS, K.C.B.
Mr. F. H. BENTHAM.
The Rev. T. GAGE GARDINER.
Mr. GEORGE LANSBURY.
Mr. T. HANCOCK NUNN.

The Rev. L. R. PHELPS.
Miss OCTAVIA HILL.
Mr. FRANCIS CHANDLER.
The Right Rev. The LORD BISHOP OF ROSS.

Mr. R. H. A. G. DUFF (*Secretary*).
Mr. J. JEFFREY (*Assistant Secretary*).

Mr. GEORGE NEWMAN, called; and Examined.

94283. (*Chairman.*) You are a Doctor of Medicine, F.R.S. (Edinburgh), and D.P.H. (Cambridge)?—I am.

94284. You are Chief Medical Officer of the Board of Education; late Medical Officer of Health of the Metropolitan Borough of Finsbury; Director of Public

Health Studies and Lecturer on Public Health and Sanitary Law and Administration in St. Bartholomew's Hospital (University of London)?—Yes.

94285. You were also Consulting Medical Officer to the County Council of Bedfordshire; Examiner of the Sanitary

Inspectors' Examination Board; and Member of the Board of Hygiene Studies of the University of London? —I was.

94286. You are the author of "Infant Mortality," and joint author of "Hygiene and Public Health"? —Yes.

94287. You have been kind enough to send us a very interesting and full Statement in connection with certain very important questions relating to the health of the people: and if you will kindly hand that in we will treat it as your Evidence-in-chief?—Certainly. (*The Witness handed in the following Statement.*)

THE RELATION OF POVERTY TO DISEASE.

1. To show the relation which obtains between poverty and mortality I submit some returns for Finsbury on the following points:—

- (a) The number of deaths in institutions compared with the total deaths.
- (b) The number of deaths taking place amongst the very poorest of the community who live in one room tenements compared with the deaths occurring in the

population living under better and, therefore, less poor circumstances. *Mr. George Newman, M.D.*
25 Feb. 1908.
Relation of poverty to disease.

(c) The number of deaths from phthisis, which is particularly a disease of poverty and exposure combined with poor nutrition, and also the number of those consumptive deaths which occur in institutions under the Poor Law.

(d) The distribution of mortality in relation to poverty from a topographical point of view, that is to say, the mortality in very poor areas of Finsbury compared with less poor areas.

(e) Some points in regard to infant mortality which indicate an indirect relation which obtains between it and poverty. [See under (d) above, and under "Infant Mortality" below.]

(f) The incidence of mortality upon certain occupations of the casual and poorer classes.

2. *Institutional Deaths.*—In Finsbury in 1906 one in every two deaths occurred in institutions and not in the homes of the persons dying; one in every four deaths occurred in workhouses or workhouse infirmaries; and one in every five in hospitals. *Percentage of Deaths in institutions in Finsbury.*

3.—THE FOLLOWING TABLE SHOWS THE FIGURES RELATING TO DEATHS OCCURRING IN INSTITUTIONS, &c., FOR THE LAST SIX YEARS.

Year.	Total Deaths.	Deaths in Public Institutions, &c., outside District belonging to Finsbury.	Deaths in Institutions inside District.	Percentage of all Deaths in Public Institutions on Total Deaths.
1901	2,161	876	33	42·0
1902	2,283	908	40	41·5
1903	1,993	870	43	45·8
1904	2,084	965	59	49·1
1905	1,855	886	38	49·8
1906	2,020	1,020	37	52·3

4.—THE FOLLOWING TABLE OF COMPARATIVE RETURNS SETS OUT THE PERCENTAGE MORTALITY OF LONDON AND FINSBURY DEATHS IN INSTITUTIONS, 1903–1906 (*Outside District only*).

Institutions in which Deaths took place.	1903.		1904.		1905.		1906.
	London.	Finsbury.	London.	Finsbury.	London.	Finsbury.	Finsbury.
1. Workhouses and Workhouse Infirmaries.	18·9	25·2	18·7	26·8	20·1	29·1	27·8
2. Fever Hospitals (Metropolitan Asylums Board).	1·6	1·6	1·4	1·5	1·5	1·5	1·6
3. Other Hospitals - - -	15·9	16·9	15·9	17·9	17·2	17·1	20·6

5. *Deaths in relation to Tenements.*—In 1906 we classified the deaths in relation to the number of rooms occupied by the persons who died. The causes of death have been divided into (a) all causes, (b) zymotic disease (including the notifiable diseases, influenza, and zymotic enteritis), (c) phthisis, and (d) respiratory diseases other than phthisis. The results appear to show that the smaller the tenement the higher is the death rate of all causes and of the diseases named. This is an instructive result when it is considered that each of the four years (1903–06), tells the same story, and that as

many as 4,000 deaths are tabulated on a population of approximately 100,000 persons. It is necessary, however, to recognise that the figures are of relative value only, for it must not be assumed that a man dying of phthisis in a one-roomed tenement in 1906 has lived all his life in that tenement. He may only have been living there a few months or years, his disease having been contracted elsewhere. But even as a relative return the figures are striking, and illustrate in a marked manner the broad fact of the evil effects of living under "overcrowded" conditions.

Mr. George Newman, M.D. 6.—FINSBURY, 1903-1906. DEATH RATES FROM ALL AND CERTAIN CAUSES IN HOUSES OR TENEMENTS OF SEVERAL SIZES.

25 Feb. 1908.

Size of Tenements.	Census Population, 1901, 101,463.†	All Causes.				Zymotics.			
		Death rate per 1,000.	Death rate per 1,000.	Death rate per 1,000.	Death rate per 1,000.	Death rate per 1,000.	Death rate per 1,000.	Death rate per 1,000.	Death rate per 1,000.
		1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
One-room tenement - -	14,516	38·9	40·6	32·7	39·0	5·6	5·1	3·4	6·4
Two-room tenement - -	31,482	22·6	21·9	19·5	22·5	3·8	4·1	2·8	5·5
Three-room tenement - -	21,280	11·7	14·7	12·3	14·8	1·8	2·1	1·8	2·6
Four-room tenement and upwards of four rooms - -	33,185	5·6	7·5	6·6	6·4	0·54	0·1	0·69	0·8
Institutions* - - - -	1,000	16·0	28·0	8·0	33·0	—	—	—	3·0
Deaths not traced† - -	—	273	216	268	185	12	11	18	22
The Borough Death Rates -	—	19·8	21·1	18·9	20·7	2·6	2·8	2·06	3·7

Size of Tenements.	Phthisis.				Respiratory Disease (excluding Phthisis).			
	Death rate per 1,000.	Death rate per 1,000.	Death rate per 1,000.	Death rate per 1,000.	Death rate per 1,000.	Death rate per 1,000.	Death rate per 1,000.	Death rate per 1,000.
	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
One-room tenement - - - -	4·5	4·5	3·5	3·4	9·3	9·8	6·4	8·3
Two-room tenement - - - -	2·8	2·2	2·1	2·3	5·0	4·9	5·2	4·8
Three-room tenement - - - -	1·2	2·3	1·3	1·4	2·4	3·4	2·8	2·9
Four-room tenement and upwards of four rooms - - - -	0·63	1·2	0·81	0·93	0·84	1·4	1·4	1·2
Institutions* - - - -	7·0	5·0	—	14·0	4·0	8·0	6·0	7·0
Deaths not traced† - - - -	13	25	28	38	10	62	69	23
The Borough Death Rates - - - -	2·2	2·5	2·1	2·3	3·9	4·8	4·4	4·0

7. Deaths from Phthisis.—The following table sets out the number of phthisis deaths which have occurred in Finsbury in institutions (1901-06) as follows :—

—	Total Number of Phthisis Deaths.	Phthisis Deaths in Holborn Union Infirmary.	In other Institutions.	Total in Institutions.	Percentage of Deaths in Institutions.
1901	216	82	39	121	56·0
1902	240	88	20	108	45·0
1903	223	97	20	117	52·5
1904	251	113	27	140	55·7
1905	215	97	31	128	59·5
1906	232	85	58	143	61·6

From this table it will be seen that more than half the deaths from this disease in Finsbury occur in institutions, and, with few exceptions, poor law institutions. This means, in the first place, that more than half the deaths are of the very poor, and, secondly, it means that more than half of the advanced and dying cases of this disease are isolated from the community, and in this way a large body of infection is removed from the district, which is a matter of the greatest importance as a means of prevention of the spread of the disease. But our chief need at the present time in dealing with phthisis in Finsbury is earlier and more frequent isolation of the patient, both for his own sake and the protection of the community.

8. Further, I must add here that the evidence of the relation of phthisis to poverty is even more intimate than appears from the above table. We have found in Finsbury, as a result of our visitation of all cases of this disease notified to us, amounting to upwards of a thousand since the system began, that phthisis is one of the commonest of the causes of personal and family poverty. Repeatedly

* Institutions include Common Lodging Houses, Houseless Poor Asylum, House of Retreat, and other similar Institutions (excluding, of course, Hospitals, Infirmarys, &c.). The population is stated approximately only.
† These are deaths (not death rates) returned as belonging to Finsbury, in which no address was furnished or the deaths were not traceable at the addresses furnished, or for special reasons the deaths were not visited.
‡ For the purposes of this Table it has been necessary to use the Census Population (1901), for all four of the years included in the Table. It should not, however, be forgotten that the population is declining, and the death rates for each year in this Table are, therefore, approximate only.

Percentage of phthisis deaths occurring in institutions.

Need of segregation of phthisis patients

Relation of phthisis to poverty and family poverty and illustrations thereof

Mr. George Newman,
M.D.

25 Feb. 1908.

Mortality in Finsbury.

we have found that the begin ing of the decline of a family in social status and condition has been due to this disease in the bread-winner. Indeed it has been rare to find cases of phthisis among the poor which have not greatly jeopardised the fortunes of the family. Finsbury was the first borough in London to introduce a system of voluntary notification of phthisis which during the last six years yielded an average of 193 notifications, which is about the same percentage of the population as at Sheffield under a compulsory system of notification.

9. The following half-dozen illustrations, in no way exceptional, may be quoted :—

(a) J. L., 26, Roscoe Street, printer's labourer. Wages, 30s. per week. Notified October 21st, 1902, died March 12th, 1903. Lived in a two-roomed tenement from time of incapacity to work; his wife worked to support him and two children; her earnings were very small, so that husband had to go to Highgate Infirmary, and until his death the family were on the verge of starvation. The wife and children then moved to a single-roomed tenement.

(b) G. E., 22b, Roscoe Street, french polisher. Wages, 30s. to 35s. per week. Notified, March 16th, 1903; died December 27th, 1904. Lived in a three-roomed tenement: previous to incapacitation in comfortable circumstances, but after lost his regular work, did odd jobs of any kind, wife went out to work to help support him and four children. This was supplemented by help from neighbours and friends, otherwise they would have become destitute.

(c) A. B., 1, Lamb's Buildings, carman (originally a hardwood turner). Notified January 16th, 1903; died March 3rd, 1903. Wages, about 25s. to 30s. per week. Previous to incapacitation lived in fairly comfortable circumstances, but owing to ill health fell out of regular work; did a few odd jobs from time to time; wife went out to work at office cleaning, but was unable to earn sufficient for the maintenance of family of four, so that they drifted to semi-starvation until death of husband. A son of above died early in this year and the mother attributes his early development of phthisis to being ill-clad and under-fed; family now living in two small rooms.

(d) T. P., 39 M., 12a, Dufferin Street, potman. Wages, 10s. and food. Notified May 10th, 1904. Has done little or no work since notification and from his appearance does not look capable of doing anything. Wife goes out to work to support him and family of two.

(e) C. E., 26 M., 7e, Errol Street, engineer's labourer. Wages, 30s. Notified March 7th, 1906; died April 12th, 1906. Lived in two-roomed tenement. After incapacitation, wife had to go out to work at office cleaning to support him. This man was ill a long time previous to notification and removed to live in a single-roomed tenement.

(f) — Timmans, a drain layer and plumber for eighteen years. Wages, 35s. weekly; lived in Guinness Buildings, Lever Street; wife and seven children. Worked for some weeks in a cold-air stores, and contracted severe chills, which weakened his health. About eighteen months later he laid a drain under a workshop under very damp conditions and thereafter his health broke down completely. He was laid up with phthisis for about four months in the winter of 1905; then worked on and off during the summer of 1906, and went into hospital 1906-07 (winter.) Discharged as hopeless. Mrs. Timmans went out charing to earn money but poisoned her right hand at work, and has since had right thumb amputated. Since the father's illness commenced the youngest child has died. The eldest (a boy) is now fourteen, and is earning 5s. a week. Four children are attending school and one is below school age. The school children are given dinners at the Alexandra Trust by their teachers, and neighbours give the family food, etc. The only income of the family is the boy's 5s. weekly with small sums collected by Timmans' workfellows. The rent is 5s. 6d. a week.

10. Deaths in relation to Enumeration Areas in Finsbury. —In 1906 we distributed the births and deaths in the seventy enumeration areas used in the census. Such distribution should always be made, but hitherto it has not been practicable to undertake the increased labour necessitated. The results of this distribution are of great interest, because by its means we are able, so to speak, to localise our general death rate and infant mortality rate and discover more exactly where the chief incidence of mortality really falls.

(a) Distribution of the General Death Rate.—The death rate for the whole borough is 20·7 per 1,000. By distribution in areas we find that there are fourteen areas in which the death rate is above 25 per 1,000 :—

Amwell	2.	29·2	City Road	3.	26·6
	5.	36·2		4.	30·1
	14.	30·8		11.	25·1
	15.	27·2		12.	39·0*
St. James	7.	29·6		16.	26·4
City Road	1.	26·3		19.	25·7
	2.	31·4	Finsbury	10.	26·3

When we come to examine the general characteristics of these high mortality areas we shall find that there are some which are common to them all. First, there is a high density of houses per acre. Take, for instance, Amwell 14 and City Road 16, and compare them with such an area as Amwell 11 (see Table below). The former areas are covered densely with dwelling-house property, with narrow streets and small back yards and without open spaces; the latter is characterised by the reverse conditions. Secondly, the high mortality areas have a high percentage of poor-class tenement houses, which have in the main degenerated from better days and are now the home of much domestic insanitation of every description. These houses built for one family and now inhabited by six or eight families are most inconvenient and unsatisfactory, and though perhaps not overcrowded according to the bye-laws, are in fact overcrowded from the point of view of personal and public hygiene. Thirdly, these areas have a high percentage of poverty. The persons living in them are engaged in casual occupations, carmen, labourers, etc., and their average wages are from 15s. to 25s. per week. Rents average about 2s. 6d. to 3s. per room. Lastly, it must be said that in these areas rather more than elsewhere, and perhaps largely because of the above-named conditions, there is a low standard of social life. Many of the inhabitants of these areas are "birds of passage," drifting from one poor district to another, above the average in age but below it in health, in nourishment and in stamina, and below it often in social responsibility and in social habit and custom. And thus it comes about that they are the most susceptible to disease and the least able to throw it off. A high percentage of them die in institutions.

Eleven areas yield a death rate below 15 per 1,000, and may thus be classed as exceptionally healthy. In such areas there is less density, fewer tenement houses, better wages, and a higher standard of social life.

(b) Distribution of Infant Mortality Rate.—The average infant mortality rate for the whole borough is 157·3 per 1,000 births. There are nineteen enumeration areas with a rate which is over 200, four of these are over 250 and four are over 300. The following are the eight areas over 250 :—

Amwell	-	-	2	-	-	-	337·7
"	-	-	5	-	-	-	260·0
Charterhouse	-	-	22	-	-	-	256·4
City Road	-	-	1	-	-	-	275·8
Finsbury	-	-	1	-	-	-	333·3
"	-	-	5	-	-	-	307·7
"	-	-	6	-	-	-	250·0
"	-	-	7	-	-	-	375·0

From such a return we are able to localise the infant mortality of the borough. Elsewhere in the present statement will be found particulars as to the conditions which produce a high infant mortality, and to understand the meaning of the above returns it is necessary to consider such conditions in relation to these areas. Briefly, however, it may be said that these eight areas are characterised (a) by poor tenement houses, poverty, and a low standard of social life; or (b) by the predominance of block dwellings, or by both. Indeed, it is the combination of these conditions which appears to lead to the higher mortality among infants and children. It is unnecessary to burden this statement with many figures and therefore

* This death rate appears unduly high owing to the very small population in this area.

Mr. George Newman, M.D. particulars are furnished of one registration district only, as follows :—

REGISTRATION SUB-DISTRICT, "AMWELL."

25 Feb. 1908.

Topo-
graphical
distribution
of infant
mortality
rate in
Finsbury.

No. of District Street.	Popula- tion (estim- ated).	Birth Rate per 1,000.	Death Rate per 1,000.	Infantile Death Rate.
1 Baron Street -	1,412	25.5	21.8	166.6
2 Suffolk Street	1,885	28.1	29.2	337.7
3 Warren Street	2,151	42.8	22.7	120.6
4 St. Silas -	2,174	29.0	23.9	196.6
5 Cynthia Street	1,879	41.5	36.2	260.0
6 St. James -	1,563	22.4	14.1	142.8
7 Busaco Street	1,714	29.2	24.5	200.0
8 Affleck Street	1,168	48.8	23.9	193.0
9 Collier Street-	1,515	37.6	12.5	122.8
10 Weston Street	1,872	25.6	16.0	141.1
11 Holford Square	1,871	21.4	14.4	50.0
12 King's Cross Road -	778	25.7	19.2	50.0
13 St. Philips -	1,270	26.7	8.0	58.0
14 Noble Street -	1,651	32.7	30.8	240.7
15 Baker Street -	843	34.4	27.2	206.9
16 Wilmington Square -	1,697	34.2	24.1	172.3
17 Attneave Street	1,370	37.9	24.9	172.7
18 Exmouth Street	1,762	39.1	22.7	144.9
19 Northampton Road -	1,157	37.1	23.3	139.5
20 Coldbath Square -	1,190	35.2	15.1	190.5
21 Farringdon Road -	1,072	28.0	15.9	100.0
Amwell Sub-regis- tration District-	31,994	31.7	21.8	161.0

Incidence of occupation on death rate. 11. *Occupational Mortality.*—We have distributed the deaths in Finsbury (1902–1906) according to occupations. The matter is exceptionally difficult to measure as it is open to many fallacies and would require a lengthy statement for its elucidation. For the present purpose it will be sufficient to say that the lowest paid occupations are those which necessitate a maximum amount of exposure and result in increased mortality. For instance, if we take labourers, carmen, and outdoor porters, between the ages of twenty-five and fifty-five, and compare their mortality rates with persons of the same age occupied in other ways, we shall find the percentage of mortality is higher for the former, even though they furnish less than 10 per cent. of the occupied males. The following table illustrates this point in relation to three groups of disease, namely, respiratory disease, tuberculosis, and circulatory diseases :—

Year.	Less than 10 per cent. of Occupied Males.	More than 90 per cent. of Occupied Males.
	Mortality per cent. of Casual Labourers dying between 25–55 from Respiratory Diseases, Phthisis and Circulatory Diseases.	Mortality per cent. of other Occupied Persons dying of the same Ages and from the same Causes.
1902	40.4	59.6
1903	37.9	62.1
1904	49.7	50.3
1905	40.1	59.9
1906	46.3	53.7

That is to say that though casual labourers (aged twenty-five to fifty-five) furnish less than 10 per cent. of the occupied males they contributed in 1906 46 per cent. of the total mortality (at same ages).

THE MEDICAL ASSISTANCE OF THE POOR.

12. The medical assistance of the poor in Finsbury divides itself naturally under three groups of operations :—

(a) Under the Poor Law.

(b) Under the sanitary authority.

(c) Under voluntary agencies such as general and special hospitals, charities, dispensaries, and a considerable variety of philanthropic agencies for feeding, clothing, convalescent homes, surgical instruments, etc.

The last named are of course not rate-aided and, therefore will only be referred to briefly. Some notes, however, may be added under the other two heads.

MEDICAL ASSISTANCE FOR THE POOR UNDER THE POOR LAW.

13. *Indoor and outdoor medical relief under the Holborn Union.*—In 1906 the average daily number of indoor paupers, adults and children, relieved was 3,523, and outdoor more than 1,700 per week on the average. In addition to this there was an average daily number of persons relieved in the casual wards of sixty-eight.

14. The indoor poor are maintained in the under-mentioned institutions :—

Workhouse, City Road, E.C. For chronic, aged, and infirm. Average daily number (1906), 1,526. Nursing staff expenses, £593 per annum.

Workhouse, Mitcham, Surrey. For ordinary able-bodied persons. Average daily number (1906), 1,045.

Infirmary, Archway Road, N. For acute sick cases. Average daily number (1906), 545.

Schools, Mitcham, Surrey. For children aged three to sixteen years. Average daily number (1906), 143.

15. The guardians consider, on their merits, claims for assistance through the Infant Milk Dep't and medical relief in cases of child-birth where midwives consider it necessary.

16. There are seven outdoor medical officers (salaries for part time service, £105–£135) a midwife for outdoor poor (6s. per case), and six indoor medical officers. Drugs, medicines, and medical appliances used in in-maintenance (1906) amounted to £1,284 4s. 11½d., excluding salaries of medical staff ; for out-relief the similar expenditure amounted to £270 15s. 2d. These amounts do not include vaccination expenses.

17. *Vaccination.*—In 1905, the latest year for which figures are complete, there were in Finsbury 3,380 births, of which 2,316 were successfully vaccinated. Five were insusceptible, twenty-one escaped on account of "conscientious objection" and 331 died before vaccination. The remaining 712 are excluded from the figures because of exemption, removals, etc.

18. *Hospital Isolation.*—Practically all the hospital isolation for infectious diseases in Finsbury is carried out by the Metropolitan Asylums Board. Since 1901 as much as 72.5 per cent. (1904) to 85.5 per cent. (1901) of all the cases of notified infectious disease have been removed to hospital. The remainder of the cases have been treated at home, and have paid for their own medical treatment, nursing, etc. It thus comes about that a Poor Law Body (the M.A.B.) isolates and treats free of expense to the patient not less than 70 per cent. of all the notified infectious disease in the borough. In 1906 only sixteen cases out of 588 cases isolated were treated in other institutions (not under the Poor Law).

19. *Phthisis Treatment.*—As I have already pointed out, more than half of the phthisis deaths occur in institutions (see par. 7). This figure, however, by no means

Agencies
Finsbury
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Daily av-
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Provision
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Poor Law
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rnh Union.

Details of
administra-
tion of Holbo-
rnh Union.

Extent of
provision
of Poor Law
for infectious
diseases.

Treatment
of phthisis
by Poor Law

represents the service of the Poor Law infirmary in isolating and treating this disease: for it is frequently the case for consumptive patients in these infirmaries to come out before death, sometimes because they wish to die at home, sometimes because they hope to struggle on and regain health outside. At present in a district like Finsbury, without available means of isolation or treatment of phthisis in sanatoria, the poor law infirmaries are the only means we have of isolating advanced cases of the disease.

20. *Miscellaneous.*—Under the Public Health (London) Act, 1891, Sec. 3., every relieving officer is required to bring to the attention of the sanitary authority any general or special nuisances with which he may meet, and in this way the Poor Law is acting in some measure as a sanitary authority for the assistance of the poor. Under Sec. 89 (2) of the same Act the relieving officer shall, under stated circumstances, bury the dead. The Board of Guardians shall pay all expenses, recovering them if possible.

21. Much might be done by the Poor Law medical officers in notifying cases of epidemic diarrhoea, phthisis, pneumonia, etc., to the sanitary authority. In some districts a mutual arrangement is made to this effect.

MEDICAL ASSISTANCE OF THE POOR FROM THE SANITARY AUTHORITY.

22. During the greater portion of the nineteenth century sanitation was confined to improvement of the environment and external circumstances of life. Even now much of the public health legislation in force is concerned with similar problems. But in recent years there has been a remarkable change, both in the objects and means of public health work, which is now becoming more personal in its application. Land drainage, refuse removal, segregation of the infectious sick, housing and building regulations and so on, though still of course necessary and highly important, are giving place to more personal matters. Further, this change has involved an extension of the preventive measures of the public health service into the realms of therapeutics, as disease itself is coming more and more to be looked upon as a "nuisance" to be remedied by the sanitary authority. There can be little doubt that this change, in principle and practice, is, as yet, only in its infancy.

23. I now propose to name some illustrations of free medical assistance received by the poor through the present administration of public health:—

(a) Hospital isolation and treatment under the Public Health Act, 1875. In London this isolation is provided for by the Metropolitan Asylums Board (under Poor Law), (see Public Health (London) Act, 1891, Sec. 80).

(b) The Cleansing of Persons Act, 1897, gives power to the sanitary authority to cleanse persons infected with vermin free of charge.

In St. Pancras and St. Marylebone large numbers of persons have been cleansed. In Finsbury, 1906, only thirty-five persons were so cleansed, free of charge, at a cost to the borough council of £9 18s. 4d.

(c) Under the Public Health (London) Act, 1891, Sec. 77, any sanitary authority in London, may, with the sanction of the Local Government Board, provide a temporary supply of medicine and medical assistance for the poorer inhabitants of their districts. This corresponds to the Public Health Act, 1875, Sec. 133. We have not, up to the present, exercised this power in Finsbury.

(d) In the means used for prevention of the spread of infectious disease there are several illustrations of the medical assistance now under consideration.

(i) Provision of reception houses for "contacts," free accommodation, etc., during disinfection, and in times of small-pox epidemic for a quarantine period. Sec. 60 (4).

(ii) Disinfection itself, which, under the 1875 Act, is cast upon the occupier, is in London done

by the sanitary authority free of all charge. Mr. George Newman, M.D.

(iii) The medical officer of health becomes, in times of epidemic, a district medical officer visiting the cases of sickness for purposes of diagnosis (including free bacteriological examination in cases of typhoid, diphtheria, and tuberculosis), isolation, and indirectly, of medical advice of a somewhat extensive and always extending character. (Sanitary Officers (London) Order, 1891, Secs. 1 to 7.)

(iv) The free distribution of antitoxin in cases of diphtheria, both as a therapeutic and prophylactic agent.

All the above are part of the regular practice in Finsbury.

(e) *Burial.*—The sanitary authority is empowered to bury the dead under special bye-laws (Public Health (London) Act, 1891, Sec. 88, 89).

(f) *Educational Work* by means of leaflets, posters, etc., may be carried out by the sanitary authority, the expenses being placed on the rates. In Finsbury we have issued many thousands of such leaflets on the prevention and early treatment of phthisis, measles, and small-pox, the care of children, etc. Posters on the evil results of excessive drinking of alcohol have also been issued.

(g) *Health Visitation Work.*—There are six district sanitary inspectors in Finsbury and two lady inspectors—all of these officers, and particularly the lady inspectors, are continually advising the poor on points of health and disease, and the medical officer of health does a good deal of similar work as opportunity offers, particularly in relation to the following matters:—

(i) Notifiable infectious diseases, including puerperal fever.

(ii) Phthisis.

(iii) Non-notifiable diseases (measles, mumps, whooping cough, parasitic diseases).

(iv) Births.

(v) Diseases of infancy, and infant deaths. In the Metropolis the London County Council is the education authority, so that school children come under its medical officer.

In 1906 the lady inspectors in Finsbury paid 5,483 visits which included a greater or less degree of personal advice as to care of children and so forth.

(h) *Infant Milk Depot.*—Since March 1906, the Finsbury Borough Council have carried on a milk depot previously established in the district by voluntary agency. Since its commencement 334 infants of the poor who could not be breast-fed have been fed at the depot at a total (capital and current) charge on the rates of about £170 (to end of 1906.) The parents or guardians have in all cases paid something towards this milk provision but not sufficient to meet the cost (see par. 25 (iii.) (E & F)). The depot has involved a large amount of nursing visitation, by the nurse attached to it, in the homes of the children, with the express purpose of giving advice.

24. A note may be added mentioning some of the more important Finsbury charities. There are in the borough of Finsbury a number of charities of varying character, some being wholly connected with churches. Among those not so connected or which have a physical side thereof are:—

(a) The Flower Girls' Mission conducted by Mr. J. A. Groom, is carried on in Sekforde Street, in connection with which there are eight houses where 130 crippled or blind girls are housed and fed. There are in addition about eighty to ninety girls who are employed and who, although they get their dinner and tea on the premises, reside with their parents or friends.

(b) There is a mission carried on in Whitecross Street by Mr. May in premises constructed for use

Mr. George
Newman,
M.D.

25 Feb. 1908

Local chari-
ties in
Finsbury and
illustrations
thereof.

as a warehouse, and consisting of four floors and basement. The Sunday schools are attended by 400-500 persons. In the winter time (six or seven months) there are about 2,000 persons (casuals, vagrants, and wanderers) fed daily, except on Sunday, when the number would be about 1,000 to 1,500. In the summer (about five months) the numbers are considerably reduced, being anything up to about 100 per day. The meals are free and the total cost is £1,000 to £1,200 per year.

(c) The medical mission held at the Friends' Meeting House, Roscoe Street, Bunhill Row. During the year 1903-04, 6,027 patients were seen. This number has been reduced, and would probably be 4,000 at the present time. Patients are charged 1d. for medicine, but those coming from a distance have to pay 1s. for medicine.

(d) The Church Army, Banner Street, have premises which can accommodate 140 men, but the average numbers are 110-120. The men, who are employed at wood-chopping, bundling, etc., are of the homeless class. They are housed and fed whilst there, and in addition earn some money. The amount of their earnings depends on the class of work they are engaged upon, and whether piecework or not.

(e) The Leysian Medical Mission is carried on at the Leysian Buildings in City Road. The patients number about 6,000 yearly. They are charged one penny for registration, which lasts eight weeks, they are also charged one farthing at each visit for advice, and medicine. There are several visiting sisters attached, but they are not trained nurses.

(f) The Finsbury Dispensary is situated in Brewer Street North. During 1906 there were 27,861 attendances of patients at the dispensary, of which number 9,326 were new cases; 2,693 visits were made to patients' homes in cases where they were too ill to attend at the dispensary. This institution has been in existence 126 years.

(g) The Claremont Hall Medical Dispensary treats some thirty cases weekly. These persons are of a very poor class. They pay 2d. per week. At this mission there is also a children's *crèche* (twenty-four children), and various forms of relief (twenty persons weekly). During three months of the year 600 school children are supplied with free meals.

(h) There are five *crèches* in the borough, at which there is an average daily attendance of 124.

(i) In the several ecclesiastical parishes of Clerkenwell (western division of the borough) there are eighteen charities consisting of gifts of bread, coal, clothing and money. The total number of persons who received assistance from these sources during the year ended June, 1905, was 1,328 and the total amount expended for all purposes in connection therewith was about £800.

(j) The charities existing in St. Luke's (eastern division of the borough) appear to be of a different character, comprising, as they do, provisions for giving assistance in apprenticeship, exhibitions, educational, almshouses, pensions, etc. During the year 1906 seventy-six persons were provided with outfits of clothing, value 30s. each, and in addition two persons had clothing value 50s. each; twenty-three persons were appointed to take up their residences in the almshouses; seventeen persons were granted a yearly pension of £25, and twenty-six persons £18 each; nine boys and girls were granted scholarships of the yearly value of £5; eighteen girls scholarships value £7 16s.; and fifteen boys scholarships value £13. The total expenditure in connection with above appears to be £6,472 13s. 3d.

(k) The Claremont Hall Mission Medical Dispensary in Pentonville Road has, I understand, about 100 patients per week, many of whom are visited at home by the "sisters," who also provide relief (food, clothes, coal, money, etc.). They visited also "sweated home workers," and carry on a *crèche* (twenty-four children). The Claremont Mission has also provided free dinners for school children (from Christmas to Easter, 600 weekly).

(l) A note should be added respecting the Social Workers Association established in 1904 by the

Lady Mary Forbes-Trefusis and the Hon. Violet Douglas Pennant (Hon. Secretaries). It was felt that the result of the efforts to relieve the poverty and distress in Finsbury was not in proportion with the great amount of devoted work done on all sides, and that this want of definite result was largely due to a lack of co-operation in such matters as the public health, the promotion of thrift, and in those directions to which we must look for permanent amelioration of the condition of the poorer classes of the community. It is the aim of the association to include:—

A.—Workers belonging to all churches and religious denominations within the borough, irrespective of creed.

B.—Men and women engaged in temperance and rescue work, or in the organisation of sick clubs and benefit societies, and any institutions which have for their object the raising of the tone of their members.

C.—Members of charitable societies and their officials.

D.—Officers and members of the board of guardians and of the borough council.

E.—School teachers and managers of schools.

F.—All others who are able to give time and attention to problems affecting the poor, such as housing, sanitation, health, thrift.

It established an Infant Milk Depôt and School for Mothers in 1904; appointed a whole-time health visitor, who was a fully qualified sanitary inspector, in 1906; arranged health and thrift lectures, home visitation, etc. The duties of the health visitor (Miss Irene Cox) comprised lectures on health and cookery to mothers' meetings, girls' clubs and factory dinner hours (seventy-nine lectures in 1907), home visiting of young mothers (1,345 visits in 1907), and the carrying on of a "School" for Mothers separate from the Depôt "School" in conjunction with the lady sanitary inspectors (300 mothers passed through these classes).

INFANT MORTALITY.

25. I propose to refer to infant mortality only in so far as it bears upon questions of poverty and public health administration, and the matter can most briefly be stated perhaps in a number of short propositions:—

(a) Infant mortality (*i.e.*, the death rate of children under twelve months of age per 1,000 births), is practically stationary in England, although the death rates from all causes and from most of the special causes shows marked decline. During the last year or two there has been a slight improvement in infant mortality.

(b) The mortality is most marked in the first few weeks of life. One-third of all the infant mortality occurs in the first four weeks of life.

(c) The death rate is much higher among illegitimate than among legitimate children, higher in towns than country, and higher in manufacturing districts, where mothers are employed away from home, than in agricultural districts.

(d) Three chief diseases are responsible for 70 per cent. of the total infant mortality, *viz.*: prematurity and immaturity, epidemic diarrhoea, and lung disease. The first named set of conditions appear to be the cause of an increasing amount of infant mortality, particularly of course in the first few weeks of life. Diarrhoea and lung disease claim their victims in the later months of the first year.

(e) Each of these three diseases is directly brought about by physical unfitness of the mother, or by mismanagement of infancy by the mother. Prematurity and immaturity are in great measure due to maternal physical inefficiency; diarrhoea is due to bad feeding, particularly at the weaning period; and lung disease is due to exposure to cold, commencing at birth, when the child's environment drops 30 or 40 degrees of Fahrenheit, and continuing in many ways of exposure subsequently.

(f) It is obvious that this condition of things must be due, in large measure, to the physical condition of the mother.

Local cha-
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Finsbury
illustratio
thereof.

Extent
infant
mortality
England
comparati
causes
thereof.

Pre-natal
and other
causes of
infant mor-
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(i.) We have made an inquiry in Finsbury into the conditions of motherhood of 715 dead infants (1905-06), paying special regard (a) to the physique and health of the mother; (b) to her past history in respect of miscarriage, abortion, and premature birth; (c) to her general social environment, poverty, and feeding; and (d) to hard work during pregnancy. The 715 dead infants were sub-divided into three groups, viz.:—A.—Those dying from all causes within twelve months of birth (715); B.—332 out of those 715 who died within the first three months; and C.—178 out of the 715 which were deaths due to immaturity. The results stated in percentages have been as follows :

	A. 715 infant deaths.	B. 332 infant deaths in first trimester.	C. 178 infant deaths from im- maturity.
Mothers with poor physique or more or less ill-health*	38	45	54
Mothers with his- tory of miscar- riage, etc. -	34	46	76
Mothers underfed and very poor -	7	10	10
Mothers doing hard work dur- ing pregnancy -	11	18	22

(ii) Confining ourselves to Column C., which concerns death from immaturity, as an example, the return means this:—That more than half the mothers of infants dead of immaturity suffered from marked ill health and poor physique; that 76 per cent. of them had previously had misfortune in respect to child-birth; that 10 per cent. of them were underfed; and that 22 per cent. of them were compelled, by circumstances, to do hard work during pregnancy. After a study of these findings it seems impossible to resist the conclusion that in spite of the tendency of nature on behalf of the new-born child, poor physique and ill-nutrition of the mother exerts, in a considerable percentage of cases, an injurious effect upon the infant.†

(iii) Ten per cent. of the mothers of these dead children in Finsbury in 1906 suffered from very bad health; 25-28 per cent. more from indifferent health, and 65 per cent. had good health. It is interesting to compare these returns with similar enquiries made into 1,906 living children. For example, the condition of the home in the case of living children yielded a satisfactory result in 68 per cent. (as against 60 per cent. in the enquiries respecting dead infants) and 71 per cent. of the mothers had no outside employment as compared with 67 per cent. so situated in respect of the dead infants. On the whole, the conditions as to home and mothers' occupation are much the same in both dead and living infants.

Mr. George
Newman,
M.D.
25 Feb. 1908.
Pre-natal
and other
causes of
infant mor-
tality in
Finsbury.

No. of Infants.	Feeding.					Mother's Work.				Condition of Home.			Mother's Health.		
	Breast only.	Breast, etc.	Cows' Milk only.	Condensed or Artificial.	Not Fed.	None.	Away from Home.	Intermittent.	Some home work.	Clean.	Fair.	Dirty.	Good.	Indifferent.	Bad.
397	140	54	125	46	32	265	49	45	38	240	117	40	254	102	
%	35·2	13·6	31·5	11·6	8·1	66·8	12·3	11·3	9·6	60·5	29·4	10·1	64·0	25·7	16·

Disastrous
effect of
artificial
feeding of
infants.

(iv.) But when we come to enquire into feeding there is a very different result. Of the mothers of the living children, 80 per cent. breast-fed their infants. Of the mothers of the dead infants only 35 per cent. breast-fed their children. That is a marked and decisive point of difference. It should not be forgotten, however, that the majority of the investigations into deaths took place, as a rule, at a later period in the twelve months than similar investigations into births. As many as 125 of the dead infants were fed only on cows' milk, and were not suckled at all; forty-six were fed on "condensed" milks and other artificial "foods" only. On the whole, therefore, it may be said that the

broad difference between the treatment which the living infants and the dead infants have received in Finsbury is a difference of feeding. But we must go a step further back than that to explain the deaths from prematurity, marasmus and atrophy. Most of these deaths would appear to depend not wholly upon feeding, for the infants only lived a few days, but upon the physical conditions of the mother. From whichever point of view we judge the matter, whether it be as to bad feeding, leading to diarrhoeal diseases, or as to exposure, leading to lung diseases, or as to mere physical unfitness to live, leading to premature death, the problem of infant mortality is mainly a question of motherhood.

Disastrous
effect of
artificial
feeding of
infants.

* In an enquiry made as to 1,906 living children in 1906 it was found that 16·8 per cent. of the mothers had poor physique or ill-health.
† Though the matter cannot be considered in detail in such a report as the present it should be added that part of the death roll due, directly or indirectly, to immaturity, may possibly be brought about by artificial interference with child-bearing. At an inquest, held in August, on a Clerkenwell woman, aged thirty, who died from blood poisoning as a result of taking pills, medical evidence was given which seemed to indicate that there is a practice, more or less widely prevalent, of such artificial interference. Several death certificates have been received this year which point in the same direction. It has recently been stated, on medical authority, that this custom is spreading in certain districts of England and is assuming serious proportions. If these things are so it may account also for some of the infant deaths attributed to immaturity.

(v) And in these respects the findings of 1906 do but confirm those of 1904 and 1905. Taking the three years together we have the results of inquiry into 1,127 dead infants in Finsbury. What do we find? We find that:—The mothers lived at home in 77 per cent. of the cases, and in 88 per cent. the homes were either well kept or fairly well kept. It is idle, therefore, to urge, as many people do, that death is due in these cases to absence of the mother at work, or to the fact that the home is a dirty hovel in a slum. It cannot be doubted on the whole that 986 of these dead infants lived their short span of life under fairly good external conditions. But—and here is the point of importance—only 30

Mr. George Newman, M.D.
25 Feb. 1908.
Disastrous effect of artificial feeding of infants.

The relation of poverty to infant mortality.

per cent. of the total number *were breast-fed*. Nor must we forget that many of these were premature deaths in which feeding played little or no part as a cause of death. If we take away the immaturity deaths and the exposure deaths, and consider only epidemic diarrhoea, we find that only 14 per cent. were wholly breast-fed.

(vi) The conclusions to which all these facts lead are indisputable. Broadly, there are three main diseases which cause 70 per cent. of the deaths of infants in Finsbury, and they are due to three main evils connected with infancy :—(1) Immaturity due to low standard of physical motherhood ; (2) Epidemic Diarrhoea, due to improper feeding ; (3) Lung Disease, due to mismanagement and exposure.

(g) Infant mortality also bears a direct relation to poverty. This may be measured by poverty of mother, leading to underfeeding, etc. (see paragraph above), by distribution of infant mortality in poor districts as compared with rich districts (the death rate 1901-05 was ninety-five in Hampstead but 173 in Shoreditch), by the condition of the home, and by mother's occupation :—

(i) We have been able in Finsbury in 1906 to gain something of a bird's-eye view by drawing up infant mortality rates for the various "enumeration areas" of the borough. By this means it has been possible, so to speak, to *localize* the infant death rates. As a result we find that out of seventy small districts of which the borough is composed (and of which the average infant mortality is 157 per 1,000 births), nineteen have an infant mortality of upwards of 200 per 1,000 births (eleven between 200-250, four between 250-300, and four above 300). Generally, it must be said that the areas having the highest rates are characterised, (a) by poverty and a low standard of social life, and (b) by block dwellings.

(ii) *Conditions of Home*.—Most of the homes, indeed as many as 71 per cent., consisted of only two rooms or less, but this is not remarkable in a district so largely composed of such tenement dwellings. What is more noticeable is that 60 per cent. of the homes in which the infant deaths occurred were clean and well kept, only 40 per cent. being open to any reasonable criticism at all. The percentage of unclean homes was somewhat higher in the cases of death from epidemic diarrhoea than from all causes.

THE FOLLOWING TABLE SHOWS THE INFANT MORTALITY RATES FROM ALL AND CERTAIN CAUSES IN HOUSES OR TENEMENTS OF SEVERAL SIZES :—

Size of Tenement.	Census Population, 1901.	Infant Mortality per 1,000 Births.					
		All causes.		Diarrhoea, and other Zymotic Diseases.		Prematurity. Immaturity.	
		1905.	1906.	1905.	1906.	1905.	1906.
One-room tenement - - - - -	14,516	219	211	53	67	30	69
Two-room tenement - - - - -	31,482	157	178	42	56	26	48
Three-room tenement - - - - -	21,280	141	188	34	43	44	55
Four-room tenement and upwards of four rooms.	33,185	99	121	19	26	19	52
Institutions and Deaths and Births not traced	1,000	39	19	—	4	—	6
The Borough - - - - -	101,463	148	157	37	45	27	48

(iii) *Occupation of the Mother*.—In 1905-06 we find a comparatively small fraction (12·3 per cent.) of the mothers are absent from homes where infant deaths have occurred. The majority (67 per cent.) of the mothers of these dead infants had no work of any kind except to attend to their family duties, and as many as 88 per cent. of them were able to devote their whole time to the tendance of infancy.

(h) *Administrative Measures against Infant Mortality*.—These should be threefold :—

- (i) Anything and everything which improves the physical efficiency of the mother.
- (ii) Improvement in infant management
- (iii) The organisation of infant feeding.

(i) Under the first heading there are a number of means and agencies which should be organised. For example, the feeding of suckling mothers, as is carried out in Paris, Ghent, etc., the relief of the working

woman from labour immediately before and after childbirth (needed amendment of Sec. 61, Factory and Workshop Act, 1901).

(ii) The improvement of infant management and the care of infancy generally is urgently needed. This is particularly the problem which could be met by suitable health visitation and by reform in the method of granting medical and other relief under the Poor Law. At present we are failing to touch either under the sanitary authority or under the Poor Law the great mass of ignorant mismanagement of infancy. We are not operating sufficiently upon the personal factor or upon the home. Our administrative measures are too diffuse and distributed, which is largely owing to dual and treble control. In connection with the Infant Milk Depot (see below) an attempt has been made in Finsbury since 1904 to teach some of the elementary lessons respecting management both of artificially-fed and naturally-fed infants. At first this work was undertaken by Miss Helen Frith (cert. Central

Suggested reforms as to rearing and nourishing infants.

Suggested reforms as to rearing a nourishing infants

Midwives Board and a qualified hospital nurse) and subsequently by the lady sanitary inspectors (Mrs. Greenwood and Miss Mildred Jones, both certified under the Central Midwives Board and qualified sanitary inspectors) in conjunction with the health visitor (Miss Cox). I cannot speak too highly of all this work. Though it has been done unostentatiously it has not only been great in volume, but of a skilled nature and wholly to the point. In 1907 nearly 300 mothers passed through this "School," many of whom were nursing their first child. The infants have been weighed, advice has been offered, woollen vests have been knitted, and "talks" have been given on all the chief topics of infant management and nursing

(iii.) The same applies to feeding. Mothers' milk is of course by far the best food for infants. About 80 per cent. of women can and do nourish their infants by the breast. *It is the remaining 20 per cent. who supply almost the whole of the infant mortality.* The only way to meet this section of the community is something in the way of milk dispensaries, milk depôts, and infancy consultations, under medical control. We have had such an institution in Finsbury:—

A.—The depot was established in November, 1904, by the Social Workers' Association. It was taken over by the Borough Council in March, 1906. During the whole period to March, 1907, 334 infants have been fed at the depôt. With one or two exceptions these were infants of the poorest classes and all were unable to obtain breast milk.

B.—The principles upon which the depôt has been worked have been:—(1) Absolute control of the milk, which has been supplied by Mr. Carson from his model dairy farm in Essex. The milk has been cooled, modified, and bottled at the farm. Sterilisation of stale milk has been wholly avoided, the fresh milk having only been sterilised during the hot weeks of the summer; (2) Medical supervision of the depôt and of every child fed; (3) A discriminating and careful distribution of the milk only to infants which could not possibly be breast-fed; (4) A systematic study of the effect of the milk on each infant and regular weighing and medical and nursing supervision of each child; (5) The sale of the milk at ordinary market prices.

C.—*Improvement in Condition of Children.*—Eighty-two per cent. of all the infants on the depôt for more than one month have gained on an average 16½ ozs. per month, which is the standard increase for healthy children. The general physical and constitutional improvement of the depôt fed children has been very marked. There has been no evidence of scurvy or rickets as a result of using the milk.

D.—*Mortality Rates.*—There were twenty-seven cases of death out of 334 children, which yields an infant mortality rate of 80·8 per 1,000 children on the depôt. But five of these children were brought in a dying condition and succumbed within a few days of admittance, and, if these be excluded, the infant mortality rate is 65·8 per 1,000. As many as sixteen of the twenty-seven deaths occurred in the first fourteen days after admittance. The average infant mortality rate for the borough of Finsbury in 1906 *for the infants which were not depôt fed*, was 160 per 1,000 births. In eight enumeration areas of the borough it was over 250 and in four it was over 300. In 1907, 253 children used the milk (making a total of 543 since the commencement of the depôt), of whom nine died. This yields an infant mortality rate of 35·5 per 1,000

births. The rate in the borough as a whole in 1907 was 111 per 1,000—the lowest figure ever recorded in the district. *Mr. George Newman, M.D.*

E.—*Expenses.*—The annual expenditure to March 31st, 1907, has amounted to £689 13s. 2d., and the receipts from mothers' fees to £216 2s. 1d., leaving a balance chargeable to the rates of £473 11s. 1d. This sum may be reduced by a small amount owing to some payments which are outstanding. Substantially, however, the charge on the rates for the year's working is £470. It must, however, be remembered that this is the total charge both of capital and current account and includes expense of plant, apparatus, etc.

F.—The comparative expenditure of the four depôts now established in the Metropolis may be stated as follows:—

—	Capital Expenditure.	Annual Charge on Rates.	No. on Depôt.
	£	£	
Battersea	600	509	210
Lambeth	880	200	60-70
Woolwich	656	(Only just opened)	—
Finsbury	—	470*	70-80

G.—*Administration.*—Each child, before being taken on to the depôt, has been medically examined and weighed. Once a fortnight it has been again examined and its modification of milk changed if necessary. Each home has been carefully visited and kept under supervision. The milk has been sold at market price (from 1s. 6d. to 2s. weekly). Most of the children were ill when taken on to the depôt. All the children belonged to Finsbury or lived just on the boundary. I am quite satisfied as to the great value of a properly controlled milk dispensary in the reduction of that portion of the infant mortality which is due to bad artificial feeding. Good feeding also builds up a good constitution, and there is substantial gain in that way also.

H.—*Summary.*—The object of the enterprise was intended to be educational as well as preventive or ameliorative; it sought to meet a pressing local need, and it was expressly stipulated that it should be so managed as not to encourage artificial feeding where natural feeding could be secured. Moreover, it combined for the first time in England an improved and suitable infant milk supply with the teaching of the mother. It is evident that these were not principles to carry out easily, and many difficulties were encountered. On the whole, however, the work of the depôt from its inception in November, 1904, met with marked success, and in March, 1906, it had so far justified itself that it was taken over by the borough council, who recognised their responsibilities in this matter. The same principles were acted upon as formerly, and, indeed, have been adopted by other milk depôts in this country. Particulars as to methods of milking have been fully dealt with in former reports, where also will be found a study of results.

Since its commencement 543 children have used the milk, including those already on the depôt. Number of infants benefited by milk depôts.

* Capital and current expenses are included in this amount.

Mr. George
Newman,
M.D.

25 Feb. 1908.

Number of
infants
benefited by
milk depôts.

the depôt at the beginning of the past year and those on at the end of December. Two hundred and fifty-three children have used the milk in 1907. The reasons for which the mothers and guardians of the 253 children sought the depôt were as follows :—

Mothers who had no breast milk or an insufficiency of milk	-	-	-	74.9
Death or illness of mother	-	-	-	13.1
The breast milk not agreeing with the infant	-	-	-	7.0
Infants unable to suckle, or similarly defective	-	-	-	2.0
The mother at work	-	-	-	3.0
				100.0

It may be said that 32.2 per cent. of the children on the depot were introduced by the lady sanitary inspectors of the borough council, 26.8 per cent. were introduced by medical practitioners in the borough, 13.0 per cent. of the cases were sent to the depot by St. Bartholomew's Hospital, and the remainder from neighbours' recommendations (28.0 per cent.).

The children belonged, with very few exceptions, to the poorer classes. Twenty-two per cent. of the children came from homes of one room only, and another 61 per cent. from two-roomed homes. So that not less than 84 per cent. lived in homes of two rooms or less, and very few indeed lived in homes of four rooms or more. It may be taken, therefore, that the children came, as a rule, from poor homes.

Another point of importance is that 70.5 per cent. of the children admitted were either in poor health or absolutely ill at the time of admission, and some of them were practically dying. The remainder (29.5 per cent.) were in good health. Almost without exception the children were being wholly fed by artificial means before they came on to the depot.

Turning to some of the results of this milk feeding, it may be desirable to deal with two matters, namely, the general improvement, and the increase in weight of the depot-fed infants, and the saving in life which has been achieved.

First, as to increase in weight. The importance of the weight of an infant as a criterion of its health and progress is well-known. Indeed, the weight is often the only criterion as to whether the infant is improving in health or not. At birth the average weight is about 7 lbs.; at three months it may be about 9 to 11 lbs.; at six months about 13 to 15 lbs.; at nine months about 16 to 17 lbs.; and at twelve months 19 to 20 lbs. Dufour's standard has been used in the Finsbury Depot, as in French depôts. It is well-known that the standard rise in weight in the early months of life is greater than subsequently, but roughly it may be said that throughout the twelve months of infancy the average increase ought to be about 1 lb. a month (12 lbs., plus 7 lbs. at birth—19 lbs.). We have taken that as a standard, with the following result (1907):—*Out of the 253 infants 198 (or 78 per cent.) have each an average of 4 oz. per week (i.e., approximately 1 lb. per month).*

Secondly, as to the saving of life. There were nine cases of death out of the 253 infants (four from epidemic diarrhoea). This yields an infant mortality of 35.5 per 1,000 births. The infant mortality rate for the borough during 1907 was 111 per 1,000

births. Comparison is impossible between these figures, as they are affected by very different circumstances. In 1906, the depot infant mortality worked out at 65.5 per 1,000 births (the borough rate being 157.3). Without making any close comparison between these figures, some things may at least be said:—(1) That the death-rate among the depot-fed children in 1907 was extraordinarily low, one-quarter less than among other children in the borough, even though the depot children were more frail and ill than the others. The broad fact is that here were 253 artificially fed infants (70 per cent. of them ill or ailing), of whom only nine died. Yet it is from this identical class of the community that Finsbury has, in past years, experienced an excessive infant mortality.

(2) That much of this substantial saving of life has been due to careful infant management in addition to suitable milk. The two things go together. The true milk depot, properly controlled, is also a school for mothers, as the French workers pointed out years ago. It is idle to credit an improved milk supply alone as being the one and only panacea for preventing infant mortality. Anyone who studies the causes of infant mortality knows that other conditions besides the food factor effect the question. There are, it is true, the alimentary diseases which indicate the influence of the food factor, and these are of the greatest importance. But there are also the deaths of infants due to lung disease (owing to exposure) and to immaturity (owing to poor physical motherhood), and these cannot be met wholly, or only, by dealing with the food factor. They must be met, as they have been in part met in Finsbury, by improved infant management.

(3) That during the two years that the borough has had the advantage of an Infant Milk depot, the total infant mortality in the district has shown a marked and substantial decline.

(4) And that, apart from the actual saving of infant life the children on the depot have, with few exceptions, steadily improved in health and physique, some of them in quite a remarkable degree. Thus there can be little doubt that the depot has served not only as an instrument of preventive science, but that it has exerted also a positive effect in helping to lay the foundations of a good constitution in most of the children who have used the milk.

Not the least difficult part of the working of an Infant Milk Depot is its financial control. This, indeed, has been our chief difficulty in Finsbury. On the one hand, it is important to charge as little as possible for the milk in order to bring it within the reach of those most needing its aid; on the other, the efficiency of such a depot involves an outlay beyond the mere price of the milk, due to the production under exceptional conditions and to the expenses of distribution. In Finsbury, the principle has been adopted of charging the ordinary market price of milk (4d. per quart) to the mothers attending the depot, meeting the expenses of distribution otherwise.

The heaviest item of expenditure is, of course, the milk, but an unduly heavy item is carriage from the farm to the depot, and this transit is also partly responsible for the large amount expended on bottles break-

Environment
of milk-depôt
infants.

Resultant
effects of
milk depôts
on infants
treated.

Mismanage-
ment of
infants a
contribu-
tory factor in
mortality

Advantages
of Infant
Milk Depot

Financial
aspect of
milk depôts

ages being somewhat more than was anticipated. On the whole, however, and compared with other English milk depots, the expenditure has not been excessive nor does it exceed the twelvemonths estimate of £530. Still there falls a charge upon the rates for 1907 of £438 10s. 3d. (compared with £470 in 1903), and that is, of course, a serious item. Nor is it practicable to suggest, *for the same scheme*, a much smaller loss. It might be possible to work some other scheme at a less cost, but even so, there is the difficulty of income, the payments of the mothers being insufficient and too irregular to ensure a settled and satisfactory income. It is much to be regretted that an enterprise of this kind cannot, seemingly, be made self-supporting. Of its medical benefit, and of its far-reaching value, both in the saving of life and in securing and maintaining a better standard of infant management—after all a thing of national importance—there can be no doubt.

ENVIRONMENT AND THE PERSONAL FACTOR IN RELATION TO DISEASE.

26. Under this sub-heading, I propose to add a brief note as to the operating causes in the production of disease by way of furnishing an answer to the two-fold question:—Is the illness of the poor due mainly to environment or mainly to personal factors, and if the latter, how far is it practicable to meet it by means of suitable health visitation? Now I am strongly of opinion that the chief factor in disease production is personal rather than external. No doubt bad housing conditions and injurious circumstances in relation to employment are exerting an influence, but it is in my view mainly through the effect upon the habits, customs, and excesses of the individual than direct. I have had occasion to make a particular study of the effect of insanitary housing upon health in the thirteen insanitary areas which have been dealt with in Finsbury since 1901, and from which some thousands of persons have been displaced. It is of course true that the houses on these areas have been insanitary and unfit for habitation and some of the disease and death taking place has been directly due to external conditions, dampness, bad drains, defective roofs, and so on. But a careful examination of the causes of death will reveal the fact that much more has been due to such things as exposure at work, poverty, alcoholic and other excesses, absence of ventilation, "domestic insanitation," and uncleanness and ignorance generally. A degree of external sanitary defect so great as directly to cause fatal disease is rare. And it must be remembered that though housing and external conditions have enormously improved in recent years the preventable deaths remain. Take measles, for example, which killed 115 persons in Finsbury in 1906 (or 5 per cent. of the total mortality). The vast majority of mortality from this disease is directly due to personal mismanagement and ignorance. It is not due to environment directly, though overcrowding facilitates its spread. Or take pneumonia and bronchitis, which killed 392 persons (19 per cent. of total mortality). Nearly the whole of this mortality was also due to personal factors. Much the same applies to epidemic diarrhoea, which carried off 144 persons. Then there is alcoholism, syphilis, overlying in bed, accidents and suicide which are responsible for 158 deaths; and nearly all the deaths of infants (numbering 474) are also due to the personal factor in large measure. I do not say wholly, but in large measure. It is a difficult thing to find many deaths or diseases directly due to housing, unhealthy trades, insanitary workplaces, excessive hours, etc., though no doubt almost all disease and mortality has "an ancestry of causes" in which evil external conditions play some part.

27. That being my opinion, it follows that I look to a betterment of the personal factor as likely at the present time (now that environment has reached a high standard of excellence) to be most effectual in the betterment of physical life. I would, if I could, bring to bear upon the

homes of the people of Finsbury more suitable health visitation, by which we should gain:—

- (a) Information as to the occurrence of illness.
- (b) Information as to insanitary conditions.
- (c) Advice on domestic hygiene, dietaries, cleanliness, etc.
- (d) Direction and advice on the whole question of care of infancy and children.
- (e) Counsel in the carrying out of medical treatment.
- (f) Special health work in the direction of phthisis prevention, physically defective children, invalid children, and so on.

28. Such Health Visitation would act as a deterrent to Functions of malingering and unsupportable complaints of which we health now receive a large number. They might also assist in visitors. providingsome check on school non-attendance, employers' certificates in relation to infectious disease, etc. I am satisfied that much illness is prolonged quite unnecessarily and that there is a lamentable and disastrous amount of failure to deal with the *beginnings of disease*. Neglect of such things leads to mortality more than many other factors. At present public health and Poor Law administration only operates in cases of destitution and grave infectious disease. This is not sufficient and is brought to bear too late to be effectual.

29. The qualification and suitability of the health Need of visitor is a matter of great importance and upon it would qualified and depend the success or failure of any extension of this paid health kind of work. I do not think a system of voluntary visitors. health visitation would be found to work well for long periods. Voluntary work of this kind tends to be irregular and unqualified. But I have been favourably impressed with the remarkable success of the Bradford City Guild of Help and I think something of this kind, carefully organised and paid for, would be of immense value to the State. Such a system, co-ordinated with a more effectual hospital service and worked under the Public Health authority, would, I am convinced, materially alter the whole aspect of disease and mortality among the poor. At present, however, such work does not come within the regulation of the sanitary officer's Orders, and the provision of hospital accommodation is wholly inadequate. The result of the former disability is thatsanitaryinspectors are still required to devote themselves wholly to environment and the result of the latter is that such diseases as measles and phthisis are wholly unprovided for. I must add also that under present circumstances private medical practice among the poor is often extremely ineffectual and unsatisfactory—the rapid cure of the patient and the prevention of disease being results not often achieved. There is a lamentable lack of science about the whole thing.

30. I have no doubt at all that one of the necessary Transference reforms in relation to the whole problem is *unification of the of medical public medical services*. All infectious and infective disease aid to should be looked upon as a "nuisance" to be prevented or sanitary removed, quite irrespective of poverty and destitution. authority. What we need is an organisation of the existing authorities and powers under one authority. It cannot, it is evident, be under the Poor Law, for that is not sufficiently inclusive of the community. It would appear, therefore, that it should be under the public health authority, which should be the direct teacher and aider of the poor, long before destitution, in all matters of physical concern rather than as at present being confined in its operations so largely to external conditions. I should therefore view with satisfaction any provision for placing the outdoor Poor Law medical officers under the public health department of the local authority. But that is only one of the readjustments which would be necessary.

CONCLUSIONS

31. The main conclusions stated briefly, which it is Incidence of suggested may be drawn from the foregoing Statement, poverty on disease. are four, viz.:—

- (1) *That Poverty bears an intimate relation to disease, a relation which presents, on the whole, the most serious*

Mr. George
Newman,
M.D.

25 Feb. 1908.

Mr. George Newman, M.D. difficulty in the path of preventive medicine and physical improvement.

25 Feb. 1908. The evidence shows that disease and poverty act and react upon each other. Disease produces poverty—the patient, say an adult man, loses work and consequently wages, and therefore has less accommodation (bad housing) less nutriment, less clothing. In the result he is admitted to an institution where he dies or recovers, or he is deterred and remaining at home infects the home, ultimately dying there, the ill conditions of his environments accentuating his disease and hastening the end. Even if he recovers temporarily or is only partially disabled the tendency is for him to fall into the ranks of the casual labourer or unemployed, and then sooner or later to come on the State as a physical wreck. Thus we get (a) High percentage of institutional deaths; (b) high death rates in poorest homes; (c) the localisation of high mortality in particular areas; and (d) consequent poverty, unfitness, and disease of widow and children, due to premature or preventable death of bread winner.

All this is common knowledge. But these facts, simple and common though they are, furnish the chief daily problems of preventive medicine, which are in a considerable though varying degree not being met at the present time owing to ineffectual administration.

Need of co-ordination of medical assistance. (2) *That the Medical Assistance of the Poor in Finsbury though various, is not so co-ordinated as to yield the results desired.*

The evidence shows that under the Poor Law, the public health service, and voluntary charities much is attempted. Yet the fact remains in my belief that in Finsbury the ameliorative net work is such that a large amount of sickness is absolutely without medical assistance either wholly or at the critical juncture when it is most needed and likely to be most serviceable. This is due, in my opinion, partly to the mesh of the net not being sufficiently fine and partly to lack of co-ordination in administration. As a result, the cases needing medical aid slip through our fingers. It has been my duty from 1900–1907 to consider this failure, and we have been able in the public health department to improve our methods in various ways (much more thorough investigation of disease, notification of phthisis, lady sanitary inspectors, an infant milk depot, and school for mothers, visiting of births, an active administration of the Factory Act; rapid isolation and improved disinfection of infectious diseases; reform of the food supply and of housing accommodation, etc.) Much remains to be done, but I hope good has been accomplished. Certainly death rates have fallen and life has been prolonged.

Disadvantages of outdoor poor law medical service. But I must admit that I have been unable to secure an intimate co-operation with the Poor Law medical service. Without complaining of any persons in particular, for the simple reason that I have no such complaint to make, my experience of the system has impressed me, from the public health point of view, with the fact that the outdoor Poor Law medical service in Finsbury has the following disadvantages:—

- (a) It does not investigate or follow up disease.
- (b) It does not systematically provide proficient medical treatment and practically no preventive treatment.
- (c) The pivot of the medical service is a non-medical relieving officer.
- (d) It is not sufficiently inclusive of the poor who really need medical advice (probably because of deterrents).
- (e) It provides no statistics which would guide it and us to disease incidence, which is an absolutely necessary matter. In other words, it does not use its material for preventive ends.
- (f) It fails to touch the medical needs of children, only glaring cases of disease are submitted and then only after delay. I have repeatedly found children in poor tenements in Finsbury suffering from incipient disease wholly untouched by the Poor Law medical service though the family are under observation. I am satisfied that we have in the past made the fatal error of neglecting far too much, to treat incipient disease in childhood.

The voluntary agencies though excellent in many ways, and though in some measure dealing with physical needs appear to have in a greater or less degree ulterior motives and objects. They also lack co-ordination, and thus not only waste money and energy but prove ineffectual to meet the needs. They also suffer from lack of continuity, from lack of funds, and from a failure on the whole to adopt preventive principles.

(3) *That the question of infant mortality well illustrates the personal character of present public health problems as contrasted with the former problems of unsatisfactory external environment.* Need of co-operation between law and sanitary authority.

The evidence shows the age incidence and chief diseases of infant mortality and suggests the main causes—which concern motherhood. The conditions which give rise to a high infant mortality: (a) Bring about a dead loss to the State of about 120,000 lives per annum; (b) Maim the survivors; and (c) indicate a social problem of a personal nature, namely, unfit or inefficient motherhood. The means of prevention to be effectual call for co-operation between the Poor Law and public health medical services, to bring to bear sufficiently strong measures both upon the environment and upon the individual. The advance of the science of preventive medicine has shifted the centre of gravity from the influence of the environment, particularly in infant mortality, to that of the personal factor.

(4) *That owing to the issues arising out of this evidence it is necessary, in the opinion of the Witness, to secure: (a) Better co-ordination between, and if possible unification of, the public medical services; and (b) appropriate health visitation, medical and other.* Need of direct contact of medical officer of health with poor.

To take the second point first, the evidence of Paragraphs 26, 27 and 29 goes to show my view as to the importance of a development of the principle and practice of health visitation, medical and other. In the first place, this is personal service directed to meet the personal factor in the production of disease. Administration must be so reorganised as to bring the medical officer of health and his assistant and any other agent in the public medical service into direct contact with the poor. For this purpose, there will be necessary, amongst other things: (a) A revised Sanitary Officers' Order enlarging the duties of sanitary inspectors, as the orders now in existence discourage personal work; or (b) it will be necessary to make health visitors statutory officers of the sanitary authority in the same sense as sanitary inspectors are at present; or (c) the work of the Poor Law medical officer must be co-ordinated with the public health service or in some other way brought to bear on the foci of disease and in a personal way.

I am not prepared to be dogmatic as to the best method, I can only speak from experience in regard to (a) and (b). At the same time it cannot be doubted that immense gains would be obtained by securing medical visitation, and because the required medical visitation has not been forthcoming from the Poor Law service it has been necessary in many districts either to appoint an assistant medical officer to the medical officer of health for this purpose, or for the medical officer of health himself to undertake such work. Since 1900, I have had abundant opportunities of observing the work of sanitary inspectors and health visitors, both in London and the country, and I am satisfied that, with suitable training and equipment (now obtainable at the Royal Sanitary Institute, Bedford College, King's College, the National Health Society, and other bodies, whose work is in part standardised by the Sanitary Inspectors Examination Board) extremely valuable and necessary work could be accomplished by this kind of officer. Such work would amongst other things tend to co-ordinate and link up domiciliary and institutional treatment. Its general character is set out in the evidence above dealing with health visitation (Paragraphs 26–28) and so-called "schools for mothers." Experience has certainly proved the great value of this sort of work not only on its more directly ameliorative side, but also (a) its service educationally, and (b) as increasing rather than decreasing a sense of obligation and responsibility in the persons visited. Need of training a equipment of health visitors.

reference
of law
sanitary
nity.

On the subject of the exact form or system of co-ordination of the public medical services which would be most useful, I do not feel that it is my province to deal, or at all events to express any final opinion. My experience, however, convinces me that from a medical point of view further co-ordination is imperatively necessary, not only between Poor Law unions but between public medical services, and if practicable a unification under one authority. Preferably this authority should be a local authority and not a central one, though central control should be provided for. Personally, I am disposed to think that the medical part of the Poor Law service might suitably be organised, partly or wholly, in conjunction with the health authorities and the relief part as a separate organisation under the local authorities, who now deal with public health and education. There are, of course, difficulties and disadvantages, but they cannot well be greater than the present evils, and by some such unification the medical service would be more economical as well as more efficient and effectual. On the whole, also, such a development appears to be in line with the general evolution of local government.

population
and
topography
of Finsbury.

94288. (Chairman.) How long were you Health Officer of Finsbury?—From 1900 to 1907.

94289. We have a map which shows the boundaries of Finsbury. What are the Parliamentary divisions that are included in Finsbury?—Central Finsbury and East Finsbury. Approximately, from a line down the middle, East Finsbury is one side and Central Finsbury the other, Holborn lies to the west, and St. Pancras to the north.

94290. What is about the population?—Approximately, 100,000; at the last Census it was 101,463.

94291. I suppose this is one of the poorest districts in the Metropolis?—It is a very poor district.

94292. It is surrounded by well-to-do districts on most sides?—Yes; on the west and south you have a very much better class district than you have in Finsbury, but Finsbury itself is not wholly to be described as a poor district on account of the invasion of the City northwards; all the southern part is very similar indeed to the City of London, and the population has been driven out. All the lower part of the borough is composed of offices and warehouses, and so on, in an exactly similar way to the City of London.

94293. The Law Courts, the Temple and Lincoln's Inn lie to the west?—Yes.

94294. The encroachment of the City and the well-to-do parts on Finsbury for offices, and so on, has packed the population up rather closer?—Exactly; it has also very greatly reduced the population. Two or three census periods ago the population of Finsbury was about 120,000; it is steadily declining on account of the invasion of commercial premises.

social status
of Finsbury
elements.

94295. Would you say your evidence would relate to what may be called an abnormally poor district as regards London?—I reply with a little hesitancy, because Finsbury is now passing through a transitional period. It is not easy to define it exactly in one term like one would speak of Bethnal Green or of Shoreditch. The invasion in Bethnal Green and Shoreditch has been a different kind of invasion to that which is taking place in Finsbury; so that in Finsbury you have part which is very similar to the City, and part which is an old residential neighbourhood, and then the mass of the poor.

94296. I suppose that the dwellings of the poor are mostly old houses?—Yes; old houses which were formerly built as self-contained houses for private families, and have now been let out in a very large degree indeed as tenement property.

94297. What conclusion do you draw from the increased number of deaths in institutions? It would not be that the treatment in institutions was worse?—No, on the contrary, the treatment on the whole would be better in institutions; but it means, I think, that the people of Finsbury have fallen in social status in some degree. The old Finsbury of twenty or thirty

years ago would not have provided the same class of people for institutional treatment that the present Finsbury does.

Mr. George
Newman,
M.D.

25 Feb. 1908

94298. Should you say there was an increased tendency now on the part of the very poor, when they are seriously ill, to go to the infirmary, or to be sent to the infirmary by their friends, in order that they may die there, or is there rather a reluctance to die in the workhouse?—There is a definite reluctance; I am unable to compare it with past years for the simple reason that I have not the data with which to do that. All I can say is that during the seven years I was in Finsbury, although there was a great reluctance on the part of the poor to go to Poor Law institutions, still the fact remains that a very large proportion of the deaths in Finsbury, larger than in most London boroughs, took place in institutions.

Reluctance
of sick poor
to enter
poor law
institutions.

94299. As might be expected, I think you show that the mortality per 1,000 is a good deal higher in the one-room tenement than it is in the two-room or three-room tenements?—That is so.

94300. That necessarily would be so, one assumes, because not only the condition of lodging would be worse, but the other vital conditions would be worse in the one-room tenement?—That is so; and the people have arrived at that condition in their outward circumstances which does not allow them to provide more than a one-room tenement. I think, if I may say so, that a table of this kind has to be taken with a certain amount of reserve, for the reason which I have stated in Paragraph 5.

94301. I quite understand that one must not apply these figures, because they relate to one-room tenements, as cause and effect necessarily?—That is the position.

94302. Coming to phthisis, you give in Paragraph 11 Relation of figures showing that phthisis as regards casual labourers is on the increase. The conclusion there is that the casual labourers, though they furnish less than 10 per cent. of the occupied males, contributed in 1906 46 per cent. of the total mortality of the same ages?—That is so.

94303. Would the mortality include diseases other than lung and phthisical diseases?—Those three diseases only: respiratory, tubercular, and circulatory; mainly the diseases of exposure.

94304. What would those casual labourers include; would they include carmen?—Carmen, out-door porters, and such persons, of whom there is a considerable number in Finsbury owing to the fact that the large carrying firms stable their horses and vans in Finsbury.

94305. I assume the occupation itself rather tends towards contracting these chest and respiratory diseases?—That is so.

94306. That, of course, would be to a certain extent aggravated by the casual nature of the employment; the man's weekly earnings and his proper sustenance would not be probably on a level?—That is so. That would affect the matter very materially. There is exposure, not only to the germs of tuberculosis, for example, but there is also exposure to climatic influences; and thirdly, there is the influence of a certain amount of under-nourishment.

94307. Amongst the wage-earning classes, between, say, the ages of sixteen and fifty, phthisis and respiratory diseases constitute a very considerable proportion of the mortality?—A very considerable proportion.

Effect of
preventive
measures on
mortality
from phthisis.

94308. Do you know at all what it is? It is a large percentage, is it not?—Yes, a large percentage. I am afraid I could not tax myself with the exact figures.

94309. I suppose it is a much larger percentage than is the case in the classes above them?—Yes; it comprises the majority of the cases of death of that class of persons.

94310. Should you say that this class of disease is on the increase in Finsbury?—No, I should not say that tuberculosis is on the increase, nor do I think there is any substantial evidence that lung diseases are.

94311. If there is not an increase, to what do you attribute that; to better medical attendance or to more

Mr. George Newman, M.D. precautions?—More precautions in the case of tuberculosis.

25 Feb. 1908. 94312. It is not from improvement in the conditions of employment?—Partly so, but not so much I think as other circumstances.

Medical assistance by sanitary authority. 94313. We come now to the practical part of your Statement. You point out that the medical assistance of the poor is under three groups: the Poor Law, the sanitary authority, and voluntary agencies?—Yes.

94314. The health authority has of recent years considerably expanded the area of its operations?—Yes.

94315. Has that been attended by much increased expenditure in Finsbury, say?—Substantially, I think not. Of course, there has been of necessity an increase in the payment of salaries and establishment charges for a staff of twenty in comparison with a staff of five persons ten years ago; but apart from that, and that expense has not been proportionately great, there has not been much additional expense; but there has, I think, been a considerable improvement in the condition of things resulting.

94316. London is rather peculiar, because the health authority, the borough, has not to bear specially the cost of removal of persons suffering from infectious diseases?—That is so.

94317. So that your expense really would be limited largely to the increase of your administrative staff?—Probably.

94318. And to certain removals of unhealthy buildings?—That is so.

Clearance of areas.

94319. In those cases where buildings are condemned and pulled down, who bears the expense of pulling them down?—As far as possible in Finsbury, where we have had some very extensive housing schemes and displacements, we have endeavoured to throw the responsibility and onus upon the owners, and I may say that that has been rather exceptionally successful. We started on the plan of casting the responsibility upon the owners and getting them to remove insanitary and dilapidated property rather than leave it for the local authority to do. The consequence is that probably, considering the displacements which have taken place in Finsbury under the Housing Act, the local authority has escaped many of the expenses which it would have been involved in if it had proceeded upon other lines.

94320. Has the fact of putting the charge on the owners, or trying to recover from them, at all retarded the work?—To a certain extent, but not so markedly as in other districts of London.

94321. I suppose it has had the effect upon the local authority that they would be more disposed to sanction things if they knew the cost would not fall on them, but would be recovered from the owners?—Decidedly.

94322. I suppose one rather balances the other?—To a certain extent that is so.

94323. You have done a certain amount of preventive work and you have appointed a certain number of sanitary inspectors?—Yes.

94324. Are all your inspectors paid?—Yes.

94325. Have you any voluntary health visitors?—No, we have not had any voluntary health visitors except for occasional short periods.

94326. What are the relations between your sanitary inspectors and those they visit; are they satisfactory?—Yes, very happy and satisfactory on the whole. A sanitary inspector is never exactly welcome, but I think at Finsbury we have been on the whole rather exceptionally fortunate. I should say so, judging from my experience elsewhere.

94327. Is the advice they give at all appreciated by the poorer classes of the community?—I think so, but you are probably aware that they are not entitled under the Sanitary Officers (London) Order of 1901 to give very much advice, and it is on that account that we have

found it necessary in Finsbury to pay our two lady inspectors an additional sum. I think I can make myself clear if I refer to a correspondence between the London County Council and the Finsbury Borough Council dated December 11th, 1906, where the County Council write explaining to the Finsbury Borough Council that the work of their two lady inspectors has been of a character which appears to be such as is usually assigned to health visitors, and on that account they considered that it did not fall to their duty to pay half the salary as formerly. In reply to that the borough council wrote on January 18th, stating that it was so; that the lady sanitary inspectors had performed duties which were not within the Sanitary Officers (London) Order, and, therefore, they suggested that they, the borough council of Finsbury, should allocate the sum of £10 per annum of the salary paid to each of their two lady sanitary inspectors as remuneration for carrying out such of their duties as would be regarded as being outside the duties of the Order mentioned. That arrangement was agreed to by the London County Council in a subsequent letter and now obtains. The lady sanitary inspectors get £150 a-piece, the borough council only receive back £70; the salary will be considered to be £140, half of which will be repayable out of county funds and the other £10 is given to the lady sanitary inspectors under the responsibility of the borough council only, and comes out of the borough council exchequer only. In that way I have had some liberty in using my lady sanitary inspectors in what I felt to be a more serviceable direction.

94328. Adhering rather to the medical side of the charity work, there is a medical mission at the Friends' Meeting House, Roscoe Street. I suppose this institution is not self-supporting, because I see the patients pay 1d., and those coming from a distance have to pay a shilling?—It is supported by subscriptions given by friends of the mission.

Need of domiciliary visiting medical charities.

94329. Do they make domiciliary visits there?—A few domiciliary visits. Most of their work is as an outdoor dispensary.

94330. The Leysian Medical Mission is carried on on very much the same plan?—Very much the same applies to that mission, and also to Claremont Hall.

94331. I suppose you attach great importance, do you not, to domiciliary visits?—I do.

94332. Out-patient treatment, merely prescribing for individuals without inspection of the premises, or seeing that the prescriptions or conditions are complied with, is not, in many cases, of much use?—It is not at all as adequate as it might well be.

94333. Coming to infantile mortality, you give the reasons why the mortality is so high. I suppose a good deal of this is due to ignorance and carelessness on the part of the mothers; they do not take care of the children?—That is so.

Causes of infant mortality.

94334. Is there much female employment among these women?—Comparatively little in Finsbury. That is dealt with in the table at the end of Paragraph 25 (f) (iii).

94335. At the milk dépôt is the milk given gratuitously?—No, they pay the market price for it.

Administration of milk depot in Finsbury.

94336. You say there was a certain charge on the rates of about £470?—That is so, in 1906.

94337. Is that still going on?—Yes.

94338. Were those children of persons in receipt of out-relief or poor relief?—No, with half a dozen exceptions.

94339. How did they get their milk free; was there any examination, or orders given?—They did not get it free; they paid the market price for it with the exception of those that were on out-relief, and with the exception of those half-dozen or dozen for which the Holborn Union paid.

94340. The cost of the milk was paid for, but the establishment expenses and the nursing connected with it cost £470?—That is so.

94341. Was there much objection by the milk vendors in the neighbourhood to this milk dépôt?—Yes, there

Attitude of poor to sanitary inspectors.

Functions and payment of health visitors.

was a good deal of paper warfare, but I think that they found out as a matter of fact this depôt being worked as a school for mothers, as well as a depôt, rather taught the poor to see the value of milk, and I am quite satisfied myself the depôt has improved the milk trade of Finsbury rather than otherwise; it has increased it.

94342. That seeing the advantage of a milk diet, there is a greater demand for milk?—I feel sure that is so, although I must admit that probably the trade, if they were present, would not admit that.

94343. The result I gather in comparing children who were fed on this milk with those who were not, was very satisfactory?—Very satisfactory indeed.

94344. Coming to infant mortality, the main cause seems to be the immaturity and poor physique of the mother?—That is one of the three main causes. It is a very difficult thing exactly to allocate to the poor physique of the mother the number of deaths of infants which are really due to that cause; it is a most difficult thing to do because the poor physique of a mother will act indirectly very frequently, and you get illnesses of the children which on the death certificates you could not very directly attribute to the poor physique of the mother. The grouping in Sub-paragraph (d) of Paragraph 25 I think is substantially correct. I am quite convinced of that. It is those three conditions which are mainly the cause of infant mortality, not only in Finsbury, but all over the country.

94345. In Finsbury are there a large number of persons who are children of Londoners, London bred?—Yes.

94346. Have you, as Health Officer, been able to note any difference in the physique of those whose families have been long in London and those who have come in more recently?—Yes, I have often noticed that. I should say that the physique of those who had come in more recently was better than those who had been in for some generations.

94347. I suppose there is a deterioration of physical strength generation by generation of the town bred?—I am afraid so.

94348. They get smaller and less muscular?—I should not like to commit myself exactly to an anthropometrical datum of that kind, but that the physique on the whole is poorer I have no doubt at all.

94349. The country mother would be, as a rule, a stronger and healthier mother than a London mother?—As a rule.

94350. Should you say the tendency to breast-feed the children is on the decrease, or the inability of the mother to feed the child is on the increase?—It is a very difficult thing to say, because we had so few data a few years ago. I should think 80 per cent. of the infants under three months of age in Finsbury are breast-fed, and there is a good deal of public misapprehension with regard to that circumstance. There is much more breast-feeding than one would be led to suppose from what one hears publicly.

94351. (*Bishop of Ross.*) Do you mean that 80 per cent. of all the children are breast-fed: of the total number of infants born?—80 per cent. of the total number of infants born under three months. Directly one passes over the three months period then the figures fall.

94352. It struck me that would not quite fit in with Paragraph 25, Sub-section (iv), 80 per cent. of the living children were breast-fed, whereas only 35 per cent. of the dead children were?—My previous answer was as to infants generally, not to infants who contribute towards the infant mortality. Of the dead infants it is much nearer 30 and 40 per cent. breast-fed than of the living.

94353. 70 per cent. of the dead children have been bottle-fed?—Yes.

94354. (*Chairman.*) You find, speaking broadly, that poverty bears an intimate relation to disease, and you therefore come to the conclusion that any combination of medical assistance should be made as effective as possible inasmuch as by combating disease it directly tends to reduce poverty?—That is my view.

94355. That being so, you are not satisfied at present with the system, as administered, of the medical poor relief, the work of the health authority and private medical practitioners, and you would like as regards the two public services to link them up, or secure better co-ordination between the two?—I should, from a medical point of view.

94356. One difficulty which no doubt has occurred to you in combining medical curative treatment of individuals with the health authority is that all the work of the health authority is gratuitous?—I recognise that difficulty.

94357. It has come before the Commission that the cost of making all curative treatment gratuitous would be enormous, and practically it would raise such obstacles that in the opinion of many, putting all other considerations on one side, it is almost impossible to attempt it; but admitting that, I suppose you would still say that a great deal could be done to link up the two branches?—Yes; I feel strongly that much might be done in the direction of co-ordination. The arrangements both in the country and in London which were provided for (I am speaking now purely from memory, in the country, if I remember aright, under some Order or Circular of the Local Government Board of about 1879 or 1880), encouraging Poor Law authorities to co-ordinate with the sanitary authorities, and the same principle applies in London under the Public Health (London) Act (Sec. 3) have not I think, been used anything like as much as they might have been used; and short of any radical reform, such as unification, which I think is the ideal from the medical point of view, although I fully recognise the financial and administrative difficulties, I should like to see some sort of increased co-ordination between the medical services as such.

94358. What is your opinion; we have had a great Deterrence of deal of evidence, and the witnesses are not unanimous, poor law but I think there is rather a general impression of medical relief. men outside the Poor Law that the fact that the Poor Law medical treatment is associated with Poor Law is to certain classes of the respectable poor deterrent?—Undoubtedly.

94359. In your own mind you have no doubt of that?—I am quite certain of it.

94360. It would be advisable, assuming that you Co-operation could bring the health service and Poor Law medical of medical relief in closer co-operation, if you could at the same agencies. time do something to secure the co-operation of private practitioners and of hospitals?—Yes.

94361. Have you any large hospital in your district of Finsbury?—No large general hospital. We have a lying-in institution.

94362. Do you think the poor attach very much im- Deterrence of portance to being able to select their own medical attend- poor law ant?—Not a great deal. medical relief.

94363. It is sometimes suggested that the fact that there is only one Poor Law medical officer deters people?—I think in Finsbury I should be fairly secure in saying that my experience of the Poor Law would not lead me to that conclusion. It is the Poor Law medical officer qua Poor Law medical officer that acts as a deterrent. I do not think they greatly consider the personality of the gentleman in question.

94364. One of the alleged defects of the present system is that application for assistance in many cases has to be made to the relieving officer?—Exactly.

94365. And that his business is rather to look at the material financial position of the applicants than the state of their health?—That is what I feel from the medical point of view, as I have stated in my note.

94366. You would like some system whereby, assuming payment was to be enforced, you would treat first and enforce payment afterwards?—I would, from a medical point of view.

94367. Is there co-operation now between the medical Poor Law officers and the health authority in Finsbury?—Nothing that one can speak of. There is a perfectly authority.

Mr. George Newman, M.D.

25 Feb. 1908.

Need of co-ordination of poor law and sanitary authority.

Deterrence of poor law medical relief.

Need and advantages of co-operation between poor law and sanitary authority.

Mr. George Newman, M.D. friendly feeling, but there is not what I should call businesslike or even scientific co-operation.

25 Feb. 1908.

Need and advantages of co-operation between poor law and sanitary authority.

94368. If you could link the two together, each could statistically afford the other great assistance?—Very great advantages would accrue. A large number of vital statistics are lost which would be of practical value; I am not thinking now of archives, and the academical value of such statistics, but I am thinking of the actual practical good which would arise with regard to the incidence of disease, thus pointing us to the particular spots where good could be done. If, for example, a map of the character which I have here could be drawn up as to the conditions of disease among the poor *qua* poor under the Poor Law authority in Finsbury instead of mortal statistics under the public health authority, we should obtain an extremely interesting and useful survey of disease. One of the great difficulties is that we are not brought into actual intimate personal touch with the real centres of disease.

94369. I assume they could give you valuable information at times so that you could deal with an epidemic?—Undoubtedly, because epidemics are spread, not by the known cases, but the unknown cases, and particularly by the unknown cases in the vagrant and poor classes. I have seen that over and over again, not only in Finsbury, but in various parts of the country, particularly in Bedfordshire, where the small-pox outbreaks of 1901, 1902, 1903 and 1904 demonstrated beyond all possible doubt that small-pox was conveyed over this country, to the great dislocation of trade in many districts, by the vagrant classes, of whom it is so difficult to get any actual statistics of disease into the hands of the local authority that is empowered to deal with that disease.

94370. If the services were put in co-operation there is no doubt it ought not to be difficult to organise a much more effective system of domiciliary visits than is now the practice?—I think it would be possible to organise a much better system.

94371. I suppose from experience of your health visits you attach very great importance to those domiciliary visits?—I do.

94372. Not merely in curing individual cases, but in giving advice and effecting a sort of general improvement in hygienic conditions?—Undoubtedly, if properly done. The difficulty is to get the right persons. If it is properly done they have the greatest educational value quite apart from the actual curing of disease.

94373. You make some practical suggestions as to the course of action that would be necessary. You want a revised Sanitary Officers' Order enlarging the duties of sanitary inspectors?—I think that would be a substantial gain.

94374. Because the Order now in existence discourages social work?—Exactly, it has to be specially paid for. Although it is a very small sum when one thinks of the £10 I quoted before, it is a sum which irritates a local authority, and they argue and debate about the whole question whereas really there is not very much need for debate. They are not against the principle; they are against the idea of having to pay for it out of their own local rates.

94375. Your next suggestion is to make health visitors statutory officers of the sanitary authority? Are they not now statutory officers?—No; health visitors must be paid for entirely by the local authority. Supposing we in Finsbury employed a lady health visitor at £150, that sum would have to come out of the borough exchequer only.

94376. Has your sanitary inspector an authority which the health visitor has not?—Yes, he is a statutory officer, and he has the right of entry, and various other rights of that character.

94377. Would it require an amendment of the Act of Parliament to put health visitors on that footing, or could it be done by a local order?—I almost think it would require an Act of Parliament, but I do not think it is absolutely necessary with regard to the actual work of health visitors, because I think a health visitor who

has to force her way into a house under an Act of Parliament is not likely to prove a very satisfactory health visitor.

94378. In (c.) you say the work of the Poor Law Medical officer must be co-ordinated with the public health service, or in some other way brought to bear on the foci of disease, and in a personal way. How would you co-ordinate the two?—What I should like to see would be (although I understand I am about to suggest something which you think may be impracticable from other reasons) from a medical point of view the out-door medical officers in Finsbury brought into intimate conjunction with the medical officer of health, whoever he be, of the borough council in order that—I do not say they should be exactly in the position of assistants, but as colleagues—they may assist each other in not only following up disease, but also in bringing the treatment which is now brought under the Poor Law to bear upon the actual points where the disease is most critical from a public health and preventive point of view. For example, a woman has called in the Poor Law medical officer for herself, but in point of fact, very often one or two of her children are in a condition showing some signs of incipient disease, which information would be of value to the public health department of the borough; and the children themselves are in need of some special treatment, and the mother of some special advice with regard to those very children. Over and over again I have found that actually to be so, and thus by the exigencies of the Poor Law one member of the family is being treated, the difficulties of deterrence have been got over for that one member, but the rest of the family, although in need of medical advice and assistance, are being largely ignored, not from any personal wish of the medical officer of the Poor Law, but because of the circumstances of the case.

94379. Do you think the want of co-ordination or co-operation now existing is at all due to the fact that the health officer is under one authority and the medical officer of the Poor Law is under another authority?—I do think so.

94380. Assuming both were under the same authority possibly that mere fact would secure much greater co-ordination?—I think so, if that authority were not the Poor Law authority.

94381. There are certain medical missions which, I suppose, are kinds of dispensaries?—Yes. Extent of usefulness of medical missions

94382. Do the medical officers there at all co-operate with you?—Yes, they co-operate with us more than the Poor Law medical officers do.

94383. You get information from them?—Yes; they are there to be useful, and perhaps they have some sort of religious motive which moves them to be more sacrificing and useful. Whatever it may be, they unquestionably do take a more, what I should call, scientific interest in their cases than I was able to observe in the Poor Law medical officers.

94384. I will put this suppositious case: Assuming all the functions now discharged by the guardians were transferred to the borough council?—All the medical functions? Transfer of poor law relief to borough council.

94385. All the functions now discharged by the Poor Law guardians?—Relief?

94386. Everything, was transferred to the borough council; assuming that you would only have one authority, that would prepare the ground, I suppose, for these two branches of the medical service coming much closer together?—Yes, I think it would.

94387. Assuming such a thing were possible, it would be desirable, I assume, in your opinion, to try and bring in all dispensaries and hospitals in some way to work with this public medical service?—Undoubtedly, all public medical work.

94388. I think you rather contemplated, looking at it from a medical point of view, you would like to make everything free?—That is a difficult question to answer at all briefly. I think that free medical service is the Question of having a free medical service.

Status of health visitors.

ideal from a medical point of view, and from the point of view of the poor.

94389. It is a very difficult subject; there is the expense, and also the difficulty of confining the free medical service to the poor?—I recognise those difficulties; they are unquestionable.

94390. Your object is to a certain extent to be attained if both the medical Poor Law work and the work of the health authority were put under the same local authority, and if a serious effort were made to try and get the voluntary medical service in some way connected, or working in co-operation, with this public medical service?—Yes; I should be prepared to go slowly, a step at a time.

94391. At the end of your Statement you say you would be ready to give us some information as regards an Order that has just been issued by the Education Department. It is just on the line of our reference?—I am in your hands entirely. I am not instructed by the Board of Education, but I am prepared to give evidence if desired.

94392. The local authority I understand, are to make provisions for the medical inspection of all school children?—The local education authority.

94393. Is any machinery given them for that purpose? What machinery are they to utilise?—It will be necessary for them to provide some medical machinery of their own in connection with the medical machinery of the local authority of which they are a Committee.

94394. A serious feature of the Order seems to be this, that if you insist on medical inspection, and this is paid for by the State, the results of the inspection, that is to say the treatment, or the apparatus in the case of cripple children, or sick children will have to be provided by the State if the parent cannot provide it?—There are three different ways in which treatment may be provided under this Education Administrative Provisions Act of 1907. In the first place, there is the parent upon whom it may be thrown in the first instance, as far as practicable, and as far as circumstances will allow, such, for example, as cleansing. In the second place, there are voluntary agencies of various kinds upon which also a good deal can be thrown, and with a little reasonable co-operation; because at the present time there are societies all over the country, many of them not co-operating and co-ordinated together, but a very little would bring many of them into co-operation and co-ordination in order that they might provide certain other things, for example, spectacles. There are voluntary societies for the provision of spectacles for needy children at present. Then, in the third place, there is the local education authority itself, and the form of treatment which would arise under that local education authority is three-fold. In the first place, a great deal can be done, a great deal will be done, and has been done since 1890 and 1893, when medical inspection was first introduced in London and Bradford, by the mere fact of medical inspection. If I may say so, without being misunderstood, I think there is a fallacy underlying the statement that "mere medical inspection is of no value apart from treatment." Medical inspection itself is of the highest educational value to the mother, to the teacher, and to the local education authority. That, I think, is proved up to the hilt by the experience of school medical officers during the ten, twelve or fifteen years in England. It works out in various ways, but it does produce very marked results, and results which it would not be wise for us to ignore. For example, a mother receives a notification that her child is to be inspected at school on such-and-such a day in March, we will say—I met with this difficulty in discussing the point with a county council in the north of England the other day—and she sends her child to school in a better condition than formerly. That is not anything which should disappoint us. It is a direct and immediate effect of medical inspection. It may be said, quite fairly, that she will not maintain that degree of cleanliness and health in which you find the child on the first occasion. That may be so; I do not deny that, but we have something gained: we have the responsibility of the child's cleanliness and health thrown upon the mother. The mother recognises

it, and it results in her sending the child to school in a better state than formerly. I admit that it is only the thin edge of the wedge, and it is a small point, but it is there and I am satisfied it is substantial. Secondly, if we go a step further and the child is found when she comes to school to be myopic, to be suffering from some degree of short-sight, the work of amelioration of the condition of such a child is not necessarily to obtain spectacles; indeed, before that is contemplated, it should be considered whether it is not possible to place the child in a more favourable position in the school, of nearness to the blackboard, of better light and a better position generally which shall not create the strain that the former position which the child occupied did. Over and over again it has been proved that these conditions of eyesight in children have been produced not by heredity and not by any vicious conditions at home, but they have been produced by an over-strain of the children at school. Where, in infant departments all sorts of near-distance work has been required in past years, there has unquestionably been sown the seeds of the bad eyesight of the child as it has grown up. Those are two points both of which mean treatment in a sense—I rather prefer the word amelioration—and amelioration of a perfectly substantial kind which will cost nothing to the State. Then in the third place, I admit that there will come a financial burden on the local education authority for the carrying out of certain forms of treatment for which there is no accommodation, or no circumstances favourable to at home, for which there is no dispensary, for which there is no hospital, for which there is no voluntary charity. I admit that in the last instance some of such expense will come upon the local education authority, but they will be expenses of the very highest economical order, because they will fit the children in such a way, or they ought to fit the children in such a way, as to prepare the children not only for a more productive and educated life, but also to keep the children off the State in future years more than has been the case in the past.

94395. I do not dispute the indirect advantages at all, but I was rather looking at it from a practical point of view. The State or the local authority probably would be compelled in a good many cases to meet the recommendations or suggestions of the officer inspecting the children, out of their funds, I take it?—Yes, if those recommendations cannot be otherwise met, but I am satisfied that with more care and circumspection many of these conditions can be met, as they have been met in the past. You will remember that we are building upon a basis of experience of many years on the Continent of Europe, and of fifteen years in England as to the advantages which will arise from medical inspection; and the clause in the new Act is rather a further evolution of what has been proved before than actually a new departure.

94396. I want to look at it rather practically, because one must not go too fast. Have you any idea what the cost of this will be when in full operation?—The question of cost of medical inspection was considered by a Departmental Committee in 1905 (Lord Londonderry's Committee), and it was considered it would work out at one-tenth of a penny on the rates.

94397. That is on the rates of England?—The rates of the education authorities who were then carrying out the work.

94398. I should have thought that was rather a sanguine estimate. You do not think the Order that has been recently issued has gone beyond what that Committee contemplated?—No. By the Order I understand you to mean the Memorandum of the Board following the Act?

94399. Yes. Have you been in personal communication with the authorities who have had to carry this out?—Yes.

94400. How have they received the Order?—At the present moment there are twenty-four counties in England and Wales who have completed their arrangements for medical inspection in all their schools; there are forty-one towns, county boroughs and municipal boroughs

Mr. George Newman,
M.D.

25 Feb. 1908.

Cost and practicality of medical inspection of school children.

Mr. George
Newman,
M.D.

25 Feb. 1908.

which are autonomous areas for education purposes which have also completed their arrangements. There are, in addition to that, thirty-two towns who are considering their arrangements which are nearing completion, and there are eleven further counties which are nearing completion of their arrangements, that is to say there are thirty-five counties in England and Wales who have nearly or wholly completed their arrangements for medical inspection under the new Act.

94401. So that a considerable portion of the local authorities have shown their readiness to accept this?—That is so; more than readiness, they have all but completed their arrangements; some have appointed officers.

94402. This matter is on the border line of our reference, but I thought I should put these questions to you?—I quite recognise that that is so.

Deterrence of
poor law
relief.

94403. (*Bishop of Ross.*) You told the Chairman that you had no doubt that the poor objected to receiving medical relief under the Poor Law?—Yes.

94404. There is a sort of taint of pauperism about it, I presume, that deters them?—Yes.

94405. If the medical relief were given through the public health authority, do you think it would be free from that objection?—Not wholly.

94406. Do you think that in the course of time there would be any danger that the same frame of mind would grow up against the medical relief under the public health authority as there is now against the Poor Law?—I think, on the whole, not.

94407. Is not the objection under the Poor Law the fact that a person receives what he is unable to pay for, and there is always a certain taint if a man is unable to pay for what he requires?—That is partly so.

94408. At first I quite see you would not have that, but gradually as time goes on, is there not the likelihood that the same feeling would grow up; it would always be in human nature that a man who has to receive something he cannot pay for is not so independent, respectable, upright and honourable as the other?—There is a possibility of that, but I cannot help feeling that a good deal of the difficulty (it is a very difficult thing to analyse what this deterrent is) has arisen from the *practice* of the Poor Law in the past, a practice from which we should escape in a large measure if it were under the public health authority.

94409. So that there has been an old bad tradition, and you think if you break the tradition you would escape to a large extent?—Yes, I think there is something in that.

Lack of data
as to infec-
tion from
advanced
phthisis.

94410. I think you point out in the course of your Statement that a number of people in Finsbury who went into the hospital suffering from phthisis came out in order to die?—Yes.

94411. Is it not a very bad thing that they should do that?—A very bad thing.

94412. Is there not much more danger of spreading infection at that stage of the disease than at any other stage?—That is a very difficult question to answer. I know the ordinary medical answer would be "Yes," but I am not sure that we have all the data. It is an extraordinary thing how in a very advanced condition of tuberculosis, both in man and in animals, you do not find bacteriologically the agent of disease at all as frequently; and it is found the germs are not so virulent as when the disease is what I should call at its height, so that, although the first answer that occurs to one's mind is "Yes, certainly," as a matter of fact I should want to answer with some reserve.

94413. The other answer is commonly made. Does not the coughing and the expectoration increase in the latter stage of the disease?—The coughing will increase, but I submit that it is not proved that the expectoration will always be equally virulent.

94414. Therefore, you do not think there is any more danger at that latter stage than there is in the earlier stages?—In the very acute stage there is most danger, both from the expectoration and the cough spray.

94415. At a stage before the final stage is arrived at?—Yes, the stage before the final exhaustion is arrived at.

94416. Do you think the visiting and the information given by the health visitors, explaining to the patients themselves and to their families the advantages of remaining in hospital up to death, would be sufficient to correct this action on the part of the patients?—I think not.

94417. Could you suggest any way in which it could be done? Would you go so far as to detain them compulsorily?—No, I am not sure that I should; it is a very difficult matter, because it involves all sorts of motives in the mind of the patient and his friends why he should wish to die at home which one would wish to respect, and one would have to think very carefully about committing oneself to compulsory measures.

94418. I presume there is no doubt the infection passes from the infected patient?—No doubt at all, by means of the channels that I have referred to. Tuberculosis is not a purely infectious disease, as it is so often called; it is a sub-infectious disease, which is a very different thing. It is not infectious in the same sense that measles or scarlet fever are infectious.

94419. You explain that poverty and overcrowding and dirt have a great deal to do with it?—Yes.

94420. In dealing with the mortality of children, I think you attach a great deal of importance to wrong feeding?—I do.

94421. Am I right in thinking that you regard wrong feeding as the most-important cause of the mortality?—No, I should not be prepared to say that, but it is one of the three most important ones.

94422. You say that epidemic diarrhoea comes entirely from wrong feeding?—I think so.

94423. That is a very large cause of death amongst children, is it not?—Yes.

94424. The wider spread of information, I presume, will help to correct this matter?—Yes, it will tend in the right direction.

94425. Will you entrust that point to your health visitors also?—Yes, as far as possible.

94426. Do they do anything in that way at present?—Yes, I have no doubt at all that some of the very marked reduction in infant mortality which has taken place in Finsbury is due to that work.

94427. To the instruction given by the health visitors?—Yes, and the school for mothers, as it is called.

94428. Does the health visitor, when she hears that a baby is born into a family, go and give instruction as a matter of course?—Not as a matter of course; from the birth lists are selected those that are most likely to require instruction.

94429. Do you find the effect has already been very good?—The effect, I am quite satisfied, has been excellent.

94430. (*Mr. Bentham.*) You say the advance of science of preventive medicine has shifted the centre of gravity paid off from the influence of the environment, particularly in infant mortality, to that of the personal factor. With regard to this personal factor, if the end which you have in mind is to be achieved, it would mean a very large influence being brought to bear upon people to realise the very serious nature of having illness of any kind in the house without it being reported in some way or other to the authorities?—That is so.

94431. In order to influence the personal element, it would mean that either there would have to be a house-to-house visitation to ascertain where disease exists, or there would have to be an exceptionally good feeling between the people and the medical staff which had this duty in hand, would there not?—Yes.

94432. What was running in my mind was this, that the one may possibly kill the other, that is, an over-zeal

var ge of to find out where disease exists might, on the other hand, prevent people who have sickness in the house letting it be known to anyone?—Yes.

94433. So that disease might exist unknown, and the excessive zeal might prevent the very thing which you desire?—Yes, excessive zeal always brings many disadvantages and difficulties.

94434. If you had a paid staff for this purpose, of course, excessive zeal is a merit in a paid officer, is it not; at least zealous prosecution of their duty is a merit in all public officers?—Yes, some zeal is a merit.

94435. Does not this point to the advantage of voluntary workers rather than paid officers for this work?—The difficulty about voluntary workers is, in the first place, that they are not as a rule so proficient; I am afraid it must be said, though it sounds rather an ungenerous thing to say; and, in the second place, they are not continuous at their labours. Circumstances are such and human nature is such that it is difficult to get these things, although I have had rather an exceptionally wide experience of voluntary workers in my own corner of the world. I am quite satisfied that you do not get from voluntary health visitors the same sort of work and the same sort of continuance in it that you get from the paid officials.

94436. In Finsbury, I notice there is a Social Workers Union, and they have, if I read this aright, a whole-time health visitor?—A fully qualified, whole-time, paid visitor.

94437. And this officer is evidently doing very good work?—Yes, excellent work.

94438. What you feel is that there could be a very wide extension of such work to cover the whole field. Officers of this kind are all right, are they not?—Yes, in my opinion.

94439. Do you feel that it is impossible to get a sufficient number of them everywhere to cover the whole field, as you would like to see it covered?—Not at all impossible: they are forthcoming and will be forthcoming.

94440. This is a voluntary association, is it not?—It is a voluntary association, but it is not what is generally considered to be a voluntary work; the work of this particular lady is paid, professional work.

94441. The Borough of Finsbury does not pay this officer?—No, it does not come out of public funds.

94442. That is my meaning of the word "voluntary." I do not know whether I made myself quite clear?—I quite follow you.

94443. Do you think that it is possible to get an extension of that kind of work on voluntary lines?—That is to say, on lines not paid by the State?

94444. Yes; would that be equally acceptable to you; it is not so much a question that you want the State to provide these things as that you want them provided?—Yes, mainly I want them to be provided.

94445. You make a suggestion on that point in your statement with regard to domiciliary visitation, in Paragraph 29. It starts; "The qualification and suitability of the health visitor is a matter of great importance." Then you go on to say, "I think something of this kind carefully organised and paid for would be of immense value to the State." What did you mean by "paid for"?—I should like to see public health authorities using public funds, having power to adopt much more of the principle which is represented in the City Guild of Help, and of much more of the principle which is represented in this lady's work, to which you have just been referring.

94446. That is to give these organisations a recognised status?—Yes.

94447. Supported financially to ensure their success that is about as far as you go?—In Finsbury I would have liked the borough council to be able to take that particular officer over and use her through the ordinary channels of the borough council work; but either way is better than not at all, so long as the actual result is obtained.

94448. Have you no paid health visitors in the borough of Finsbury?—No.

94449. Although you have power to employ them, I suppose?—We have power to employ them, but we have to pay their whole salary, and they have no statutory position, which are two grave disadvantages.

94450. That applies to every town, does it not?—Yes.

94451. Yet some of the towns have health visitors?—Yes, Birmingham, Nottingham, Warwick County, and Council, so on.

94452. Was it only a matter of cost that influenced the borough of Finsbury not to appoint them?—I think it is both matters, that they have to pay their whole salary and they have no statutory position.

94453. You mean the officer has no statutory position?—Yes.

94454. That would not affect the borough of Finsbury, that is a personal concern of the officer?—The officer has not the same advantage in doing his work.

94455. He does not go with that authority or warrant?—It is not only a question of carrying a warrant, it is a question of authority.

94456. (Mr. Nunn.) If a health visitor is paid entirely by the locality, and is also invested with sanitary powers, does he not have statutory authority?—Yes.

94457. Why is not that done in Finsbury?—It is not done probably because they do not want to pay the whole of the cost.

94458. Then that was the point?—Yes, I think it was the financial point mainly. The need would be met, if I might add this word, if the sanitary inspectors had an enlarged sphere of duty.

94459. (Sir Samuel Provis.) Was there not some legal difficulty that there is no express provision authorising the appointment of a health visitor?—There is no express provision, it is authorised only by the auditor of the accounts.

94460. The only question was whether exception would be taken to the matter at the audit?—That is the position exactly.

94461. (Mr. Bentham.) Arising out of this comes the further question: Supposing the powers were given which you suggest for all this work to be done, that the local authorities would not put them in operation; here they have power to appoint health visitors, and they do not appoint them?—If I may interrupt, they have not an express instruction to appoint them; they have power in the limited sense that they may appoint them if the auditor of the Local Government Board will pass their accounts. They have not an express statutory instruction like they have for the appointment of medical officers and sanitary inspectors.

94462. Sanitary authorities have power to appoint health visitors who have also certificates as sanitary inspectors?—They have power, with the qualification that has been made.

94463. We find that in a good many sanitary areas a sufficient number of inspectors are not appointed?—A sufficient number of sanitary inspectors?

94464. Yes. If that be so, it would mean to carry out your ideas to a larger extent than they are carried out now, that the central authority, some higher authority, should insist on this work being done, and not the local sanitary authority, is that not so?—Yes, that would be an incentive to the local authority providing such officials.

94465. But as the sanitary authority are supposed to know best exactly the requirements of their district, they would ask in some cases for officers to be appointed and in other cases they would not, for financial reasons, so that that would not be a desirable state of things?—No, so that the central authority, in addition to having

Mr. George Newman, M.D.

25 Feb. 1908.

Need of health visitors to be statutory officers of Borough Council.

Powers of Sanitary Authorities re appointing health visitors.

Need of Central Authority with compulsory powers regarding health visitors

Mr. George Newman, M.D. an incentive action, would also have to have a controlling action.

25 Feb. 1908. 94466. And also compulsory powers, would it not require that?—Until it was compulsory there would be many local authorities who would not do the work.

Need of Central Authority with compulsory powers regarding health visitors.

94467. That means that many of your suggestions for the further extension of personal visitation to discover seats of disease would mean compulsory action on the part of the central body, because local authorities could not be relied upon to do it?—No, except that they are doing it at this present time in many instances, so that the proposition cannot be made a universal one, because they are at present doing it. I fully follow the point that if there were a central authority there would be both incentive and control, and if it were made compulsory it would be carried out.

94468. They are doing it to a limited extent in the borough of Finsbury, but you would say that one inspector doing the work of health visitor is not sufficient?—Quite.

94469. Yet the borough of Finsbury has not even one on its own account?—No, with the qualification that both its lady inspectors are doing health work which does not come under the Sanitary Officers (London) Order, and for which a special sum is being paid. The two ladies are at work partly in that direction; in addition to that there is a lady health visitor efficiently and properly qualified, and adequately paid, who is at work in the same area for a voluntary society.

94470. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Are the two ladies you first mentioned paid by the borough council out of the rates?—Yes, with the reservation which I made formerly, that £10 of their salary is now paid out of the borough purse only for the health work they are doing.

94471. But they are still the servants of the borough council?—Undoubtedly, wholly so.

94472. (*Mr. Bentham.*) It would still mean that the incentive would have to have some life in it; that would mean there would have to be some central grant in order to ensure that these officers would really be appointed?—Sanitary inspectors at present are appointed without a central grant; there is no grant for sanitary inspectors.

94473. I think you were acknowledging just now that there is not a sufficient number, and that an increased number would be a cost on the local authorities, and that would be putting a limitation on their appointment. To induce local authorities to appoint these would mean that a large amount would have to be granted by the Exchequer?—I am afraid that is a question I must not answer.

Danger of zeal outrunning discretion in sanitary inspectors.

94474. I thought you might express an opinion on the likelihood of the local authorities appointing the necessary number of officers in your opinion without any such grant. I am not taking London only, but a wider view for the whole of the country. It is a national question. There is another aspect of searching out disease which might cause a great amount of opposition on the part of the medical men themselves. For instance, I noticed in a newspaper a little while ago that a deputation was sent to the sanitary committee of the Manchester Corporation to complain of the action of the inspectors under the health committee, and Dr. Taylor, who was one of the members of the deputation, said: "That the deputation felt that they were engaged in a somewhat odious task in having to make complaints, but the inquisitorial methods adopted by the officials were alienating both the people and medical men. In Manchester to-day every imaginable method was adopted by the people, owing to their dread of the visits of the inspectors, to conceal especially two forms of infectious disease—puerperal fever and scarlatina—so much so that little reliance could be placed on the statistics of the medical officer of health. There were far more cases of these two diseases than the health authorities dreamt of. We want to help you in your good work; we think we can help you; we even think that you cannot well do without us. But I tell you quite plainly that the action of your officials is only calculated to arouse resentment, and, with human

nature as it is, resentment will not tend to helping. We ask you, then, to give strict orders to your inspectors on no account to enter the bedrooms of patients under medical care. The medical attendant will be quite willing to convey any necessary information from the sick room. Secondly, no inspector should be allowed to pass any opinion on either diagnosis or treatment; that is entirely the business of the doctor, who will not submit to any interference from unqualified persons. Lastly, no inspector should be allowed to examine any person in an infected house, or to express his opinion that they are suffering or not suffering from infectious disease, as long as a medical man is attending at the house. That is the business of a qualified man, not of an unqualified inspector." He concluded by saying, "It might be, after all, that the sanitary inspectors had only erred in allowing their zeal to outrun their discretion, but the fact still remained that if the co-operation of the people and the medical profession were desired at all, their personal feelings would have to be more consulted in the future than in the past." It seems to me that the action of the officers, unless they are very very carefully trained in their duties and possess a large amount of discretion and human feeling, will create this resentment everywhere, and would drive disease out of sight. I wondered whether that aspect of the question was a serious one?—Of course, that is an aspect of the question which I have very often considered, and no doubt the difficulty in Manchester, with which I am familiar, has arisen very largely through the excessive zeal and also through a lack of common-sense and tactfulness on the part of certain sanitary inspectors. That kind of thing of course exists, and has to be guarded against. I quite agree with what has been said about the characteristics which are eminently desirable in a sanitary officer. I think, if I may say so, the case you have described is exceptional; I do not think it is very common. Of course there are little difficulties arising in various localities. But I think it is the exception, not the rule.

94475. Would you not think that an inspector of this kind—I will not call him an inspector, but at any health rate a health visitor under a voluntary society which was recognised, would go about the work with less officiousness than a wholly paid officer of the community itself?—Yes.

94476. And that possibly an acknowledgment of those kinds of society for this purpose might gain all that you require, at least it would go a long way to gain what you require?—Yes, but it would lack permanence, and it would, unless very carefully controlled from a central authority, lack efficiency.

94477. Supposing it was recognised in this way: That providing a scheme was drawn up and submitted to the Local Government Board which was considered suitable and accepted by them, the whole of the management expenses of such a society should be paid out of public funds?—I am afraid that is a question I cannot answer.

94478. I thought you probably meant something of that sort when you said "Carefully organised and paid for." That is the City Guild of Help work?—I was there talking of work under the public authority.

94479. That is public funds?—Yes.

94480. That is what I mean?—I thought you were speaking of *grants* from the Government.

94481. Out of public rates, if necessary?—Yes.

94482. I do not distinguish which?—I thought you meant grants from the Government.

94483. No, I meant out of the public purse. At any rate that might go a long way towards the ideal?—It would go some way.

94884. With regard to the notification of phthisis, I am not quite sure that you believe in compulsory notification?—Not at present. We have had a system of voluntary notification in Finsbury since 1901, which has given us, according to the percentage of the entire population, as good results as they have secured in Sheffield by a compulsory system, without all its disadvantages.

ties of phthisis. I think at present the country is not ready for a compulsory system of notification of phthisis, and indeed it is a very difficult disease to put into the compulsory category for medical reasons as well as social and economic reasons, and also from administrative reasons. We have no places for isolation; we have no institutional treatment for cases which would require institutional treatment; there would be dislocation of the social life of families, which would be a very serious item to meet, and there is the medical difficulty of not knowing when to notify. Phthisis is not a disease which is manifested in the same way that the rotifiable diseases are manifested. It is a disease of many degrees. Probably the majority of people suffer from some degree of tuberculosis during their lives. Post-mortem examinations have shown that persons who die of quite different diseases have in their bodies the remains of tuberculous infection, so that the whole question of compulsory notification of phthisis is a very wide one, and would want the most careful consideration, and the most careful control. In the meantime we are obtaining a good deal of valuable information from voluntary notification.

94485. Would you say there is nothing to be learned from the operation of the compulsory powers in Sheffield. Has it had any effect which you know of detrimental to the treatment of the disease?—They have not the means for the treatment of the disease in proportion to their notifications. Their proportion of notifications is not much greater than it is in Brighton and Finsbury, and other places where voluntary notification was first introduced, and where we have had the longest experience. I am not familiar enough with the exact difficulties in Sheffield to give detailed evidence.

94486. I thought probably you had heard there were serious disadvantages?—I have heard that, but cannot speak from personal experience of them.

94487. There is one question with regard to the suggestion made to the Commission by the Witnesses on behalf of the British Medical Association I wish to ask you: There is a scheme in a special supplement to the British Medical Journal of February 23rd, 1907, for a public medical service. Have you considered that at all?—I read it at the time, but I am afraid I am not now very familiar with it.

94488. Briefly, they suggest, as one of their schemes, the establishment of provident dispensaries, and it has been suggested that the Poor Law out-door medical work at any rate might be linked up with provident dispensaries in some way. Have you considered that question at all?—I have only considered it in Finsbury from a local point of view. I have not considered it from a general point of view.

94489. (Mr. Lansbury.) In the answer you gave just now, I understood you to say that even supposing the proposal was carried out to unify medical relief or medical attendance, it might become deterrent, because the persons would be getting something they were not able to pay for. Does not the fact that you have public free elementary education, and everybody sends their children to school without any kind of feeling about being pauperised, rather get rid of the idea that that feeling will grow up, because it is universal?—I should not like to commit myself to the view that disease and education were at all analagous things. Every child coming into the State, of every social status, would be in need of some education, but disease is more personal and peculiar to individuals. I think they are not parallel cases. I think you might have willingness on the part of the community to be educated free without deterrence, but you would have deterrence when it came to a question of such close intimacy and personality as disease is.

94490. There are so many other public services that come right home to the individual; you protect him from the influence of bad drains by publicly providing for good drains to be put in and sewers and all the rest of it.—The drains of a man's house are not so personal to him as is disease.

94491. The drains are to protect him from disease surely?—Yes, they may be.

94492. I am only putting it to you because, as I understand it, you are asking for a public medical service to be organised in some sort of way either locally or centrally—locally as I understand you and controlled centrally. I suggest to you that is a similar kind of public service rendered to the community as many other public services are rendered?—Yes. I am not sure that I feel the force of the parallel between the other public services and the public medical service.

94493. So that you think even if it were given to the public health and taken away from the Poor Law, it is just possible people might be deterred from coming?—They might, but it would not be at all in the same degree as under the Poor Law.

94494. I suppose you are aware there are some people who think that the great improvements in even Poor Law infirmaries has rather broken that down already?—Yes.

94495. And that people are more willing to-day to go into a Poor Law infirmary than they previously were?—Undoubtedly, and Poor Law institutions generally, such as the Metropolitan Asylums Board Hospitals for infectious diseases.

94496. Exactly, so that after all is it not rather the question of how we do it, and the spirit in which we do it, which will determine it?—I quite accept that.

94497. The thing is that it should carry no public stigma, such as depriving a man of his vote or any of the rights which other people get?—That is so.

94498. Surely that point is at the bottom of it. I also understood you to say in answer to Mr. Bentham, though I am not sure that it was as clear, that you do not think that voluntary agencies could carry out the work of public health visiting so well as a big service organised by the public or by municipalities?—No. On the whole, I do not think it would be as efficient as the public service.

94499. If we are to give a grant to voluntary agencies and control the voluntary agencies, there is not very much difference between putting our own service in action without the voluntary organisation. As I understand the Guild of Health which Mr Bentham was talking of, he said that you might give them a grant towards the expense of doing their work?—Yes.

94500. I suggest if we do that we might as well do the work ourselves?—I did not quite understand, as I said at the time, what Mr. Bentham's proposed grants were, and, therefore, I had to reserve myself and decline to answer. I do not think grants from Government are the same thing as public funds.

94501. I mean grants from the local authorities, for instance. For instance, if in Finsbury it had been legal to give that organisation that is set up, the social service organisation, a grant equivalent to the salary of, say two or three public health visitors, what I want to ask you is whether that would be, in your judgment, as efficient a mode of doing it as if the borough council organised the work itself?—No, I think it would not be so efficient.

94502. Would you kindly explain the map you have produced?—It is a map of the registration areas, and it is a method of reducing the general death rate of Finsbury to the actual localities where mortality is taking place. When I say the death rate of Finsbury is twenty per 1,000 it does not really touch the point from an administrative point of view so well as when I can say as medical officer that the twenty is thirty in one area and ten in another area; then I know on what areas I have to concentrate my work. That is roughly what it means.

94503. So that one part of your district might be extremely healthy and the other very unhealthy?—That is so, and dragging the whole district down. The dark pins are where the death rate of that locality is above

Mr. George Newman,
M.D.

25 Feb. 1908.

Extent of deterrence of free medical relief.

Inefficiency of voluntary as against paid health visitors.

Need of all-locating high mortality in boroughs.

Mr. George
Newman,
M.D.

25 Feb. 1908.

the average of the whole borough, and the yellow pins are where the death rate is below the average of the whole borough, so that one can see at a glance that where the dark pins are there are the places where one is failing to bring to bear the benefits of public health administration, whatever they are.

94504. You could not tell us, I suppose, whether the districts where you have the highest death rates are the pauper districts as well?—Yes, they are on the whole. May I refer you to Paragraph 10, where you have the text dealing with the map. There is the list of one registration sub-district with the actual figures.

94505. It does not give the pauperism there?—No, but in Paragraph 10, Sub-section 2, there are in the text some comments as to the pauperism.

Need of
further
development
of Cleansing
of Persons
Act, 1897.

94506. (Mr. Nunn.) Looking at Paragraphs 22 and 23 of your Statement, and the illustration of free medical assistance received by the poor through the present administration of Public Health, have you any further suggested developments in the same direction that you have in your mind besides the treatment of school children in the schools?—No, not in that direction, I think, beyond the development of these points; for example, I should like to see sub-clause (b) enormously developed.

94507. In what direction?—In facilitating cleansing.

94508. At present you cannot compel a person, it has to be on their own voluntary motion?—Usually. The Act is an Adoptive Act. I should like to see it compulsory throughout England.

94509. Compulsory to be adopted by the locality with compulsory power to enforce it?—Not to enforce it; compulsory on the authority, not compulsory on the person.

94510. You do not want more compulsory powers to enforce the Act on the person?—I might wish for them but I think it would be undesirable.

94511. What powers do you ask for in dealing with verminous persons, or persons who are a nuisance to their neighbours?—I think if it could be shewn by a medical certificate that the person was a nuisance or injurious to his neighbours, that then there should be compulsion under that Act.

94512. Compulsion to do what?—Cleanse.

94513. Cleanse the person or the habitation?—Cleanse the person and the clothes; we can cleanse the habitation now.

94514. By the certificate of two medical men?—Yes; we cannot cleanse the person. As a matter of fact that certificate is very rarely used in practice; but if that same sort of legal position could also be given with regard to persons as well as to houses, I think good would be done.

94515. A good many of such cases are old people who are so helpless that they cannot practically look after themselves; in that respect something further than that would be required in their case, would it not?—I think those cases are somewhat exceptional; of course we all know that with people in that class of life, when nearing death, verminous conditions frequently supervene, unhappily.

94516. They would take up a great deal of the time of the officers concerned?—That is so; but it is difficult to legislate for them.

94517. They would take up a disproportionate time of the officer who has to deal with them from the relief point of view?—Quite so.

Non-deterrence of
infectious
hospitals.

94518. Are you in favour of compulsory powers to enforce admission into institutions under those circumstances, and detention there?—Like an infectious disease?

94519. Would you call a verminous condition that?—Any condition, I would say broadly, which was injurious to the health of persons surrounding them, apart from the individual; but as a matter of fact in infectious disease it is working out fairly well in practice. I have only

had difficulty in removing to hospital perhaps, half-a-dozen cases in Finsbury in seven years over many hundreds and thousands of cases. There have been difficulties, also, in Bedfordshire, I think there are greater difficulties in the country than in London, which are partly due to local prejudice, partly due to the fact that the hospitals are nothing like so well-managed as the hospitals of the Metropolitan Asylums Board in London. We have very little difficulty in removing our cases in Finsbury; we remove probably 80 or 90 per cent. of them without any exertion or exercise of the powers of compulsion which, of course, means a Justices' order.

94520. Glancing over the work of the health visitors, a good deal of the work of a health visitor, I suppose, would lie in attacking the moral sources of disease?—The social sources.

Extent to
which he
visitors co
deal with
immorality.

94521. Supposing there were moral sources?—Yes, I think they ought to deal with those too, if possible.

94522. Do you think that would be a proper function for the paid health visitor of the borough council?—Yes, if I understand rightly what "moral" means.

94523. For instance, supposing a man was sacrificing his wife's health who was about to bear a baby to his own desire for drink, would the health visitor deal with the husband or only with the wife?—She would have no compulsory powers I am afraid.

94524. I was not speaking of compulsory powers, she would have to exercise whatever powers lay in her, I suppose?—She would offer advice within her duty but it would come to very little in such a situation.

94525. She would not be able to deal with the whole of the case, would she?—No, she would not.

94526. How would you propose to deal with the whole of the case supposing the unhealthy conditions are the direct result of moral failure, do you propose to call in any other body or attempt any kind of co-operation at all, or are you going to leave it entirely in the hands of the Borough Council Health Department?—I think I can only consider it from the point of view of sanitary laws and as a matter of administration.

94527. There is another point of view, you must look at it from the point of view of the community?—Yes.

94528. A man may be saved from drunken habits and that may save his next child being cursed for life?—Unquestionably.

94529. In what way would you draw in the co-operation of these people who are desirous of looking at the case from its moral point of view. Have you any suggestions in that direction?—I am afraid not.

94530. It might lead to the multiplication of visitors and not only to the multiplication of visitors, but the adoption of different kinds of policy in the same case, which might be equally injurious to both visitors; the visitor approaching the case from the moral point of view, and the visitor looking at it merely from the health point of view?—Yes.

94531. For instance, our sanitary inspector in Hampstead complains of the district visitor as making all sorts of suggestions with regard to patent medicines, on the other hand, you might have a sanitary inspector or a health visitor who would be making all sort of suggestions which undermine the moral power of dealing with disease?—We do not want to over-inspect; we do not want to turn various kinds of inspectors on to a case.

94532. One wants to unify the work as far as possible, Co-operation does not one?—I am afraid I do not see any light on the of Charity, idea of the sanitary officials acting under an Act of Parlia- and Sanita- ment exercising any moral consideration in their duties, Authority. except quite indirectly.

94533. That is what I wanted to understand. That leads to this question, for instance, in London you have wealthy charities with an enormous amount of pecuniary power, running to some £6,000,000 or £7,000,000 a year, and they have a force of thousands of voluntary agents; those people may help or very largely undermine the

Co-operation of Charity, Sanitary Authority.

influence of the health authority, and from both those points of view my question is, is it not desirable to draw them into some kind of co-operation by which their good influence shall be improved and their bad influence as far as possible prevented?—Yes, it is eminently desirable.

94534. Have you any suggestion as to the possible method of co-operation?—I am afraid I have no very practical suggestions.

94535. You think it cannot be left alone altogether?—I entirely appreciate the position you put; I see the difficulty; I see it every day. I do not know, under the sanitary law and sanitary administration, which is what I have to consider, that I see very much daylight. Whatever co-operation there could be between district nursing visitors of the Charity Organisation Society and other agencies of that kind in a district no doubt is extremely beneficial; whatever co-operation there could be between the central authority as represented by its medical officer of health and its sanitary officers and those other voluntary officers, I think should be encouraged in every possible way by all kinds of meetings and opportunities for discussing their experience and comparing notes and so on, but it does not seem to me to enter into sanitary administration.

Co-option of Sanitary Authority.

94536. Take the case of a public health committee, it does not enter into the consideration of those at present, does it?—No, very little.

94537. It hardly ever deals with a case unless it is a very exceptional one?—That is so.

94538. But supposing you were co-operating with, as I think you have suggested in your statement, and possibly co-ordinating the work of the district medical officer under the Poor Law authority, whatever it may be the question of consideration of cases would come prominently forward?—I think it would, and I think that is an advantage.

94539. If you were considering cases, would it not be equally desirable to draw on to such a committee as considered the case the persons who dealt with the case from the different points of view, from the moral point of view, for instance?—I am afraid that is the point where I do not see very much light; you mean co-opt moral and social workers on to the public health committee.

94540. Supposing for instance co-ordination was attempted between the Public Health Department and the Medical Department of the local authority, would it not be desirable to have representatives of those other bodies who were already acting in the same direction and dealing with the same cases of that body, and give to the whole body statutory power to deal with the cases, otherwise you might have a great deal of relief given which was injurious, or a great deal of moral suasion given in the wrong direction and so operate against the efforts which the public health authority is making. That is happening every day with reference to persons in London, as you know?—I am quite sure if the various duties of the local authorities under these new Acts and these new powers are given to various committees under each local authority, the committee for education, the committee for public health, the committee for finance, the committee for relief, and so on, I think entire co-operation between those committees would be essential to thoroughly satisfactory work. I see more light there than I do in co-opting moral workers to public health committees. I am merely suggesting that; I know you do not suggest it, but I am suggesting that to illustrate the argument that merely co-opting outside persons on to public health committees at the present time, in order that all sides of the case may be considered, does not seem to me to be practical from the point of view of administration. Immense difficulties would arise. The difficulties of a sanitary committee that is alive and active at the present time are very great, and I am quite sure those difficulties would be increased by any such method as that.

94541. Under the present conditions take the case of phthisis, supposing you had a committee which was made up of the following members, the medical officer of health himself, or his health visitor, the district medical officer

and representatives of the various charities that were attempting to deal with phthisis cases partly by means of provision for disinfection or advice as to the disposal of sputum, or by the actual provision through charitable funds of sanatorium treatment, supposing a committee of that kind had statutory authority, would it not be in a position to deal satisfactorily with that class of case?—Yes, I am not quite clear what statutory authority such a committee could have, but I am satisfied if it could be worked, that would be extremely desirable. It would fill up many of the lacunae at present existing in our administration with regard to phthisis.

94542. It would prevent wrong advice being given and promote proper treatment of the patients and it would prevent any possible clashing of the authorities already dealing with the subject?—Yes. I may add as a point of practical experience, that I proposed to my own authority to do something of that kind with regard to phthisis, but after consideration it was very definitely opposed.

94543. We have that actually in force at Hampstead: we have all those elements sitting together on one committee?—But it is not a statutory committee.

94544. But it works perfectly well, and the result has been that phthisis has gone down very considerably in Hampstead at quite a different ratio to what phthisis has gone down in the contiguous boroughs where the same system is not adopted. ?—I am sure it would operate in that way if it were properly done.

94545. If the same thing could be satisfactorily devised and made uniform throughout the country, you would have a very great diminution in the death rate from phthisis all over the country?—Yes, you might.

94546. Supposing that you had your authority, whatever it is to be in the future, and supposing that it included the health authority and the medical relieving authority, would there be any difficulty in the appointment of a sub-committee to deal with special circumstances of that kind?—None whatever, if it were a statutory instruction that it should be done: there would not be the smallest difficulty. I think there would be considerable difficulty along the line you hinted at with regard to the personnel owing to the social conditions of certain boroughs. You in Hampstead are very fortunately placed, whereas we in Finsbury are unfortunately placed, all our better class people who are interested in this sort of question have left Finsbury practically.

94547. Is that not the great problem of London really to draw whatever power there is in the West End of London to the relief of the East End of London?—Yes, I agree with that.

94548. So that if it were simply a matter of drawing the people from one part of London to another, by the mere fact that one had a reasonable scheme by which people could organically assist the poorer classes, you would probably draw from the West End a sufficient number to carry out reform like that?—Yes.

94549. If you had a sufficiently attractive system so that they knew they would be doing good instead of harm?—Yes.

94550. I will pursue one point further, that is with regard to the provident dispensaries and the friendly societies. Of course they are doing at present, you will admit, a very large amount of good in the prevention of disease and in the cure of disease?—Yes.

94551. That ought not to be neglected in any scheme that we may have in hand for the prevention and cure of disease in the future?—No.

94552. The provident dispensaries take up the question of providing medical assistance only?—Yes.

94553. You would draw them under the influence of the public medical officer of health?—I would if I could.

94554. They would have the same relation to him as the district medical officer, that is to say they would have to report cases of sanitary defects, and whenever a case of infectious disease came under their notice, they would

Mr. George Newman, M.D.

25 Feb. 1908.

Treatment of phthisis by committee of various agencies with statutory authority.

Co-operation of Providence and Sanitary Authority.

Mr. George
Newman,
M.D.

25 Feb. 1908.

Co-operation
of providence
and
Sanitary
Authority.

act under his order?—Yes, I think that would involve appointing the medical officers of such institutions under the authority, whatever it was. It would be impossible, at least I think it would be impracticable at the present time, to, so to speak, hitch on the dispensaries to the public health service of the district, because they would find it would be necessary to give to the authority who had the control of these various committees the same absolute power that they have with regard to the appointment of their own officers, because you have rather a different class of men at work there.

94555. Precisely, but you recognise that the outpatient department of the hospitals and the dispensaries which are free, are already doing a great amount of harm, firstly, in preventing the advance of medical science and, secondly, by pauperising a large proportion of the population?—Yes.

94556. So that in any reform which takes place it would be desirable that the authority, whatever it is to be, should have a controlling power with regard to free dispensaries and some controlling power with regard to the work done by outside departments of hospitals?—Yes, I think so.

94557. It would be essential working through medical officers of health?—Yes, I think so.

94558. In that case they would have a certain control of the appointments of the officers; that is what you would desire?—Yes.

94559. That would approximate, of course, to a public service in each locality?—Yes.

94560. That also you would desire?—Yes.

94561. Supposing the provident dispensaries and the great friendly societies, some of the later of which already have their medical officers doing the work of the dispensaries, were to combine and the dispensaries were to become the rallying point, as it were, for working-class medical assistance, your future local authority having the control over the dispensaries and drawing its voluntary assistants from the members of the dispensary and the officers of the friendly societies, would practically have the medical assistance of the poorer classes under its control?—Yes, I think it would, at all events of those who desired free medical advice.

Practical
difficulties of
effectual
co-operation
of various
agencies.

94562. Are you assuming that the provident dispensaries are giving free medical advice?—I am assuming that under your scheme they would.

94563. I am not assuming that myself.—They would be part of the public service.

94564. I was not assuming that, I was assuming that the authority of the future, the local authority of the future, whatever it is, taking into account the work that might be done by free dispensaries, and the good that might be done in provident dispensaries and friendly societies, would take some sort of control, at any rate, of their personnel into its hands, and effect co-operation between them and the public department?—I am bound to say I see that many practical difficulties in Statecraft, or whatever you like to call it, would be involved in that scheme. It seems to me that there must be Government control, because, it must involve financial control of the public funds.

94565. Government control of the schools does not prevent managers exercising very much influence over the teachers, the scholars, and the parents?—Is that a parallel case, do you think?

94566. I think it is just a parallel case. You have the buildings in the absolute control of the local authority, which is the county council, and all the really important matters; the tone of the school, the development of the children, the encouragement of the teachers, and the visitation of the homes, is placed in the hands of the managers; they are a small body, but if they were increased in numbers they would become a very important body in the education of the children, would they not?—Yes.

94567. Is it not true to a small extent with regard to the health visitors and the medical officer of health that

they have rendered valuable help in the past, though it may not have been with the efficiency of paid officers?—Yes.

Difficulty of
co-operation
of voluntary
workers and
paid officials.

94568. They have introduced fresh methods, and inspired things?—Quite so.

94569. That is of immense value in a department?—Immense value.

94570. On the whole I gather you think it is worth while to provide for some kind of co-operation between the voluntary worker and the official?—I am quite clear about that; but what I am not clear about, and I hesitate in some degree about it, is that I do not see clearly how you propose to bring all these various agencies, especially the moral ones, under the statutory control of the local authority; it is the statutory position that seems to me to be the difficult one. Co-operation such as you suggest for a phthisis committee seems to me most desirable and practicable, it could be done to-morrow.

94571. It has been done?—It has been done, and is being done. I was simply unfortunate in my district that it was not done there; but further the proposal seems to me to be of a different nature.

94572. You are so willing to look at the matter from a point of view which is outside the medical profession that I should like to put this suggestion to you: Supposing that every charitable body that undertook work in the homes of the poor was obliged to be registered, and all registered societies had a voice in the appointment of a local council of charities; and if the local council of charities had a considerable number upon the local statutory authority of the future?—A considerable number, do you say?

94573. Yes.—So that the sanitary authority would not be an elected body?

94574. I am not talking of the sanitary authority, but our future local authority, which I gather will to a very large extent combine the sanitary with the Poor Law functions?—You would have that an elected body?

94575. Not necessarily.—An elected body with some co-opted members.

94576. Perhaps this is getting rather into a purely constitutional difficulty, so I will leave the matter there?—Very well.

94576a. Can you describe any legislative and administrative steps by which borough and county borough medical officers of health may assume, or have assumed, duties in regard to personal hygiene, as differentiated from sanitary environment?—Yes. Perhaps you will allow me to send you a short Memorandum on the subject. *(The Witness subsequently sent the following Memorandum.)*

Duties
Sanitary
Author
regardi
persona
hygiene

"The recent tendency of sanitary legislation and administration has been towards personal hygiene both in letter and spirit, and in several general Acts there are clauses indirectly affecting personal hygiene (Isolation Hospital Act, and Public Health Act, and Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, Poisoning). This general tendency is also illustrated in the following.

I.—Legislation giving powers and duties in respect to personal hygiene:—

(a) Certain Education Acts:—

Elementary Education (Blind and Deaf Children) Act, 1893. Compulsory obligation on parents, and duty on Local Education Authority to provide.

Elementary Education (Defective and Epileptic Children) Act, 1899. Adoptive, Local Education authority may inspect and may provide.

Education (Provision of Meals) Act, 1906. Local Education Authority may take steps for providing meals for children in public elementary schools.

Education (Administrative Provisions) Act, 1907, Sec. 13 (Recreation and Medical Inspection and Treatment).

(b) Other Acts dealing with hygiene of children:—
Infant Life Protection Act, 1897.

Employment of Children Act, 1903.

Prevention of Cruelty to Children Act, 1904.

Notification of Births Act, 1907 (Adoptive).

(c) Acts affecting adults and children :—

Cleansing of Persons Act, 1897 (Adoptive).

Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, Sec. 61.

Midwives Act, 1902.

II.—Many sanitary authorities have assumed additional duties in the way of *health visitation* :—

(a) By instructing sanitary inspector to do personal work (as at Finsbury).

(b) By employing health visitors (as in Birmingham, Nottingham, Warwick, Tottenham).

(c) By employing municipal nurses (Brighton) and school nurses (Liverpool).

(d) By employing lady doctors (Huddersfield and Croydon).

III.—*Infant Milk Depots*.—Liverpool, Battersea, Finsbury, Woolwich, Lambeth, Leicester, St. Helens.

IV.—*Literature and Lectures*.—Literature, most advanced sanitary authorities (examples for Finsbury). Lectures on health subjects (Edinburgh).

V.—*City Guilds of Help* (on Elberfeld Model).—Bradford, Sheffield, Halifax, etc.

VI.—*Tendency of Medical Officer of Health* to make their work more personal, and to press home the element of personal hygiene on their councils, and in the communities they serve."

94577. (*Mr. Phelps*.) I want to take you through your proposals with regard to the arrangements under your system. Have you been long in Finsbury?—Seven years.

94578. Previous to that were you in Bedfordshire?—I have been in Bedfordshire at the same time as consulting medical officer, which was not a statutory appointment.

94579. Are you familiar with county arrangements in medical matters?—Yes.

94580. Supposing that we had, as you suggest, an authority which controlled both the preventive and the curative side of medicine, and they were both departments under the same authority, I want to take you through the procedure and see what would happen. Supposing, for instance, under ordinary circumstances a person now falls ill, he or she sends for the relieving officer, gets an order, and the medical officer calls. Would you modify that procedure?—Yes; I should prefer to see the medical work originated through a medical man rather than through a non-medical man.

94581. That is to say they should call in the medical man directly?—Yes.

94582. Would the medical man have any discretion as to whether he would attend or not?—If he is part of a service I should wish him to have no discretion.

94583. That is to say you would allow the rich and the poor indiscriminately to call in the public officer as they would a practitioner at the present time?—Yes.

94584. What would be his next step? Would he report the case to his committee?—He would have to report the case eventually.

94585. The case then is reported to the Board, what action would they take?—The case probably may have been met by the advice and counsel which he has given; if the case was one of infectious disease obviously there would be further steps to take. You quite understand my proposition with regard to the matter? I should like to make it quite clear; I am from a medical point of view absolutely convinced that by more co-ordination and co-operation between the two medical services we should obtain better medical results. It is not my province, I think, to enter upon the large question of whether or not the whole business of free medical service should

be undertaken by this local authority. That is not a matter upon which I can form an opinion useful to the commission.

94586. Therefore you would rather not go into that question?—I think, in my position, I must not.

94587. From the point of view of medicine, you think there is no doubt such a provision as you recommend would raise the level of health generally?—I think without that co-ordination our mesh is too wide, and by our lack of co-ordination we are failing to do a great deal of the work which really falls to a preventive medicine section of the State.

94588. Have you studied the large general question at all of the comparative effects of physical benefits and moral deterioration?—It is an enormous question. I have thought about it many times in my life.

94589. I will put it in another way. Do you think your proposal would increase the sense of responsibility, or weaken it, on the part of parents, for instance?—I am quite clear that satisfactory health visitation is going to increase responsibility, and not decrease it. I am quite clear about that. I do not at all believe that a properly worked Infant Milk Depot, for instance, decreases the responsibility of the mothers. My experience has been the contrary; that if the milk depot is properly worked—I admit that some milk depots are not properly worked—but if properly worked, the mothers' sense of responsibility and duty is increased rather than diminished. That has certainly been my experience.

94590. Do you think that depends at all on requiring payment for the milk?—No; that may be a factor, but it depends much more on the opportunities which are opened to her as to the control of her child's life.

94591. Is that the principle of the medical missions in Finsbury that you are familiar with?—I cannot say; I am only familiar with those in the same sense that I am familiar with the other charitable associations.

94592. You do not know the lines on which they work?—Not intimately.

94593. Have you in Finsbury much of the sixpenny doctor, as he is vulgarly called?—A good deal.

94594. Do you think that is a danger to public health?—I do not know that it has impressed me so much as a danger as an extremely inadequate system; it does not attempt preventive medicine, it does not even attempt curative medicine, it is merely a temporary palliation.

94595. It is a bad effect of the competitive system?—Yes, I think so.

94596. (*Mr. Gardiner*.) It has been suggested to us by one of the witnesses that in the interests of infantile mortality lying-in institutions for mothers in such districts as you have to deal with ought to be encouraged. Have you any recommendation on that point? You have a small lying-in institution?—Yes, St. Luke's.

94597. Would you like to see it used more for married mothers to be confined in such places?—Yes, I would; but the difficulties again are enormous. The lying-in mother who is in most need of the institution is in the most social difficulty with regard to accepting the advantages which the institution would offer. She has to work up to the last minute that she can work, and she has to return to her work directly she can. No Factory Act controls her at all. Section 61 of the Factory and Workshops Act, 1901, does not affect the situation of thousands of these women; they are merely doing casual labour of some kind to keep the home going. If you say to her: You must comply with the rules of the institution, and come in on such and such a date before your expected confinement, and you must remain away from work for so long; I think you would find those conditions, simple and beneficial though they are, would be deterrent.

94598. You would make it as easy as you could, would you?—I would.

Mr. George Newman, M.D. 94599. On the ground of public health?—Undoubtedly; both for the child and the mother.

25 Feb. 1908. 94600. Would you like to see the public sources of help developed rather in taking the child off her hands in the case of a widow such as you described, or the wife of a man permanently disabled?—I do not want to see them taken off her hands very much.

94601. For the time, say for five or six weeks?—Yes.

94602. That would be right, would it not?—For a few weeks.

94603. And the practice which has hitherto obtained in many unions for mothers to get a lying-in order you would rather like to alter, would you not?—Yes, I have thought about it for years; I think I should, on the whole; but there is an enormous difficulty about it.

94604. After a close study on the spot of the difficulties which everyone knows who has lived in a poor district you would say on the whole you would rather make it easier than more difficult?—Quite so.

94605. You know how many influences there are restraining mothers from taking advantage of such a provision?—Yes.

94606. (*Miss Hill.*) With regard to your milk depôt, is it open to anyone to purchase there, or are they only recommended cases that are allowed to purchase?—They are only recommended cases, and only cases of mothers who cannot naturally feed their children; and they are only Finsbury mothers.

94607. There is no idea of extending it generally to the supply of milk in the borough?—No.

94608. Would not sufficient powers of inspection secure the same end? If the milk could be well inspected that was sold in the borough would not that meet the need as well as the special depôt?—No, because the market milk is not prepared by prescription; the milk of the depôt is not crude milk but modified milk.

94609. This does not bear particularly on the general supply of milk in the borough?—It only affects the milk supply from an educational point of view.

94610. What chance is there of it becoming self-supporting, any do you think?—I am afraid none. Expenses are very considerable and quite beyond the 4d. a quart market price.

Clearance of areas in Finsbury. 94611. I want to know with regard to the housing in Finsbury, how were the houses reconstructed?—In many cases the houses were reconstructed by the owners. I have gone to an owner and said: "Now I do not want to bring your area before the Council; I do not want to go all through the courts with you unless you press me to; it is insanitary, it has such-and-such a death rate, the responsibility is yours; are you prepared to meet it in any way?" I have been to a dozen or twenty, perhaps forty or fifty owners in that way; here a house and there an area during the last seven years, and we have had very considerable clearances of dilapidated property made in that way without taking them to the courts.

94612. Has the borough council built any houses for the poor at all?—No, the borough council has not, the county council has.

94613. Have you found in Finsbury a diminution of demand. The population you said was diminishing. I suppose a good many of the working people are going to the suburbs, are they not?—That is so; that is largely owing to the improved communications.

94614. Has there been a diminution of rent, do you know, in consequence of the demand decreasing?—No, I should say not.

94615. That would naturally follow I should think; it has in other boroughs?—Yes, but here you are being

met with the difficulty that the price of property is going up because of the invasion of the commercial element.

94616. I see from several of your answers you are quite aware there are many other sides to these questions than the medical one, and you have guarded yourself in many questions by saying you speak only from the medical point of view?—That is so. Need of any reform on medical assistance to be gradual.

94617. Some of us realise that we have on the one side the Poor Law which has been deterrent, which has tried to throw back the responsibility on to the parents, which has therefore limited its supply of medical comforts, that is to say limited them as far as it can to the people whose circumstances justify the supply by the public of such medical comforts, and which has a staff for making enquiries as to circumstances, a staff and an organisation; if, as some people have suggested, the medical treatment of the people was thrown on the public health authority that has no such staff and no such organisation; and it has, so far as it has dealt with cases dealt with them without any charge or enquiry?—Yes, I follow.

94618. Some of us feel that we would rather see the parents responsibility and general education relied on, and use the provident dispensaries and the charities as much as possible, and that it would be a very dangerous thing to throw open the flood gates of free medical relief and what must follow, medical comforts, to the whole body of the population?—Yes,

94619. As between those two sides I do not quite realise which you would lean to; the improvement of the medical side of the Poor Law, of course, we should all be agreed about?—I feel the force of that difficulty, and have felt it for years past. That is why in answer to the Chairman I ventured to say that I should be anxious in these matters of administration to go very slowly and go step by step. Any sudden change of course is quite outside the question, in my humble judgment.

94620. Setting aside the financial question?—Setting aside the financial question. Need of unification of medical services.

94621. Which is a very important one?—Quite so, but that is not my province. Speaking purely as a medical officer, I should say it was extremely important to have a very gradual change, if change there is to be, and that change should go in the direction of uniting the two medical services, as such, and their staffs.

94622. You would look for good results from education of the people and co-operation of the authorities?—Quite so, in addition to co-ordination.

94623. And from throwing more spirit into the Poor Law and getting more sense of responsibility, especially with regard to the out-paupers, on the part of the guardians?—Yes.

94624. Those in receipt of out-relief are not very adequately thought over or dealt with by the guardians at present?—I am afraid not.

94625. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) There is a provision, as you are aware, in the Public Health (London) Act, which contemplates that a relieving officer shall give notice to the sanitary authority of insanitary houses. Is that practically acted upon?—Almost never. You mean Section 3? Extent to which Public Health Act is used.

94626. Yes?—It is almost never acted upon because of the saving clause "In accordance with the Regulations of the authority having control over him."

94627. They do not make regulations?—They do not. We do receive, of course, from them a certain number of complaints, perhaps two or three score a year out of thousands from other sources.

94628. Do you find reluctance on the part of the relieving officers to do work of that kind on the ground that they would be looked on with suspicion by the poor when they visited there if they did that?—No, simply on the ground of the burden of work.

ONE HUNDRED AND FIFTIETH DAY.

Tuesday, 3rd March, 1908.

AT SCOTLAND HOUSE, WESTMINSTER, S.W.

PRESENT.

The Right Hon. Lord GEORGE HAMILTON, G.C.S.I.,
etc., etc., etc. (*Chairman*).
Sir SAMUEL B. PROVIS, K.C.B.
Mr. F. H. BENTHAM.
The Rev. T. GAGE GARDINER.
Mr. GEORGE LANSBURY.
Mr. C. S. LOCH.
Mr. J. PATTEN-MacDOUGALL, C.B.

The Rev. L. R. PHELPS.
Professor WILLIAM SMART.
Mrs. BERNARD BOSANQUET.
Mrs. SIDNEY WEBB.
Miss OCTAVIA HILL.
The Right Rev. The LORD BISHOP of ROSS.
Mr. R. H. A. DUFF (*Secretary*).
Mr. J. JEFFREY (*Assistant Secretary*).

Mr. JOHN CLARKE and Mr. F. BARNES, called; and Examined.

95324. (*Chairman*.) You have sent us answers to some written questions, which we will take as your Evidence-in-chief, and supplement by a few questions. Will you kindly hand them in?—(*Mr. Clarke*.) Certainly. (*The Witness handed in the following Statement*).

Question 1.—The class of men assisted and their physical condition on arrival?

Answer 1.—At the opening of the branch workhouse the inmates comprised the best able-bodied men from Poplar Workhouse. Then followed men from Poplar Workhouse of various mental and physical abilities. Later, the bulk of these men were supplanted by the unemployed. Finally for the last twenty months the places of the unemployed have been filled by the inmates from the workhouse. The physical condition of the unemployed on arrival was fairly good.

Question 2.—The kind of work on which the men are employed, and the quality of the work performed by them?

Answer 2.—A reservoir was first made and buildings and land was drained. Then attention was taken to the repairing of the buildings. Since then the bulk of the men have been employed in cultivating the land, which I would point out was in a very derelict state when taken over. The quality of the work performed by the better class of men was good. Other work carried on is mat-making, sack-making and the general domestic work of the workhouse. A few of the men have been employed at their own particular trades such as shoe-making, carpentering, etc.

Question 3.—Particulars or any industrial training or technical instruction which may be given to the men?

Answer 3.—Gangers are employed to instruct the men in digging and other branches of land cultivation and technical instruction is given by a practical man in mat-making.

Question 4.—Particulars of the rules as to discipline, recreation and leave of absence?

Answer 4.—Discipline is carried out according to the consolidated orders of the Local Government Board. The men have been provided voluntarily with a piano, football and cricket outfits and indoor games of various kinds. The men are allowed to leave the workhouse after work hours, but must return by 9 p.m. in the winter months and 10 p.m. in the summer months. The unemployed, whilst relieved here were allowed two days leave each month.

Question 5.—The mental, moral and physical effect of the colony upon the men?

Answer 5.—The mental and moral effect of the men appears to remain normal. The physical effect is wonderfully improved.

Question 6.—The respective merits of the colony and the workhouse as a means of assisting the class of men dealt with?

Answer 6.—We are strongly of opinion that the colony is an improvement on the workhouse, because better discipline can be maintained, the men more regularly kept at work, and at work which is more remunerative and less detrimental to the men themselves.

We may add that from our experience that this can be much improved upon by a system of classification combined with strict and ample supervision. We find that the men who have spent some time in the workhouse previous to coming here generally have a strong feeling to return there.

Question 7.—Method of dealing with the wives and families of married colonists?

Answer 7.—This matter does not come under my jurisdiction, but the unemployed are dealt with under the modified test order.

Question 8.—Method of disposing of the produce of the colony?

Answer 8.—The produce is chiefly consumed at the institutions under the guardians, the remainder being sold by tender or sent to the public markets.

Question 9.—A copy of the dietary table might be enclosed.

Answer 9.—Copy of the dietary table enclosed (*see Appendix No. XII*).

95325. (*Chairman*.) Mr. Clarke, you are the master of the Laindon workhouse?—(*Mr. Clarke*.) I am.

95326. How long have you been there?—Four years.

95327. And previous to that?—About twelve years at Poplar, and eighteen months at Stoke-on-Trent workhouse.

95328. What is your position, Mr. Barnes?—(*Mr. Barnes*.) I am overseer.

95329. You have been associated with this branch workhouse from the outset, I understand?—(*Mr. Clarke*.) Yes.

95330. How many men have you got there now?—One hundred.

95331. Has the number varied much during the last four years?—It has varied from about 130, or 140, to eighty. Taking the last twelve months it has averaged about 130.

95332. Does the expense per head vary much according to the numbers? Would the expenses be less if you had 130 than if you had 100?—The expense is absolutely the same except for the dietary. The administration expenses are absolutely the same.

95333. And the charge per head is the same?—Just so.

95334. The men who were sent in the first instance came from the workhouse, and then subsequently they were supplemented, I understand, by those who had registered themselves as unemployed?—Yes.

*Mr. John
Clarke
and
Mr. F.
Barnes.*

3 Mar. 1908.

*Wives and
families of
colonists.*

*Disposition
of produce.*

*Dietary
table.*

*Experience
of witnesses.*

*Number of
men at
colony.*

Expense.

Origin of

Mr. John
Clarke
and
Mr. F.
Barnes.

3 Mar. 1908.

Difference
between
paupers and
unemployed.

Remunera-
tion.

Conduct.

95335. Do you see much difference between the two ?
—Yes, there is a big difference between the two. The habitual pauper has got one pace, and nothing in the world will move him from that pace ; as to the unemployed, (I am speaking of the majority, there are exceptions to the rule), they have got better pace for work.

95336. By better pace you mean they do more ?—
Yes.

95337. The men in the workhouse I suppose do their job and no more ?—They do what they are forced to and no more.

95338. Is there any remuneration attached to their work ?—None whatever.

95339. And the unemployed ?—The wives and families under the Consolidated Orders have got so much a week for the wife, and so much for each child.

95340. Do they get paid according to task work ?—
We have no task.

95341. Are you fairly well satisfied with those who came from the unemployed ?—Not taking them altogether, as there are exceptions.

95342. How would you qualify that ?—At that time we averaged about eighty unemployed, we will take about ten out of those—the majority are decent men—but we will take about ten out of those, which put me in mind of a lot of sheep. If you get some of them that get the scab, they simply contaminate the whole lot, and that is where our difficulty comes in.

95343. You cannot hold the spread of the scab ?—
Yes ; we can see it before they start to work and check it.

95344. What do you do ; do you get rid of the men ?
—We put on officers and gangers to watch, because we must have a thoroughly good complaint before we can send them off. You cannot send them away for an idea, you must have facts.

95345. The others are very much inclined to follow these people, are they ?—Yes.

95346. That shows they are not persons of much will or character ?—I can hardly say that of the majority of them. For instance, you get three or four, what you may call bullies, strong able-bodied and muscular men ; the other men seem to be afraid of them unless there is an officer there. They seem to dominate the majority of them unless there is an officer there to supervise them. If he is away the men practically seem afraid of them, that is our experience.

95347. What sort of games do they play ? Do they shirk their work or what do they do ? Do they set an example of insubordination ?—Without supervision, when you get a body of men together, they (the bullies) will try to shirk work and induce the others to do so. For instance, they will say they have a button off, or they want their braces mended, or they want to go to the w.c. ; we endeavoured to stop that by having the w.c. in the field.

95348. Have you had difficulty generally in maintaining discipline and the regulations ?—I have not.

95349. These men who were leaders I gather, were, as a rule, men of good physique ?—That is generally so.

95350. They owe their influence a good deal to that ?
Yes !—Usually they are very lazy men, and the physique is practically of the best.

95351. Taking the rest, what should you say of them, are they well behaved ? I think you said about 10 per cent. were different ?—Are we speaking now of the unemployed, or the genuine pauper ?

95352. The unemployed ?—The rest of the men are fairly good men, and some of them very good men, exceptionally good men, but they must be under proper supervision, otherwise when they are under the Poor Law, their idea is this : Look what we are doing ; we are doing so much here ; the guardians are getting so much out of us, we should not do this. Of course, they get the union idea in their heads and think they should be paid the union rate of wages.

95353. The difference is quite marked between the two sets of men, those who have been in the workhouse, and those who came from the unemployed ?—Quite, the pauper in the workhouse intends to be there ; he is

either going to be there or in some other institution all the days of his life. My experience is that the average have been in from ten to twelve years, and some of them nineteen years, and they are young men now. When we were sending some of them to Canada last year, there was one who was forty-one, and he had been in the workhouse for nineteen years—in the Poplar Workhouse alone.

95354. Was he a strong man ?—Yes, absolutely.

95355. Some of these men that you are speaking of as leaders, who did harm by their example, did they come from the workhouses ?—Yes, the man I mentioned not long ago has done a month at Chelmsford, and two months at Poplar, and he is one of the finest men that I ever saw stripped. That man does not intend to work.

95356. (Mr. Lansbury.) Is he there now ?—He is at Forest Gate School.

95357. (Chairman.) For a man of that stamp you want a stricter disciplinary régime than you have in force at Laindon ?—You want to classify them, and take him away from the other men altogether, so that he does not contaminate the other men ; you should take him away altogether.

95358. Is a man of that kind, putting his physique on one side, because you say he was exceptionally strong a rare case to deal with, or is there a considerable number ?
—They are an exception to the rule.

95359. You had not many of those cases from the unemployed ?—No, we had not those cases from the unemployed. This is a pauper I am speaking of now.

95360. From that I gather that the workhouse people at the colony give you more trouble than the unemployed ?
—With the unemployed we were not troubled with the work ; principally, it was the drink ; in some few cases, they got drunk when they got money from their wives.

95361. Coming back to the man you spoke of with the great physique, it is clear that a workhouse is no deterrent to him ?—The workhouse is no deterrent to any man. The workhouse simply harbours them, and as long as the workhouses exist, these men will exist.

95362. That is your experience, not only from Poplar, but from elsewhere ?—That is my experience of fourteen years, not only in Poplar, but in the provinces, in large provincial towns.

95363. Do you think the lot of these able-bodied men at Laindon was less comfortable than in the workhouse ?
—I do in a sense, from the point of view of the pauper. For instance, they detest being on the land. The greatest difficulty we had was to keep them on the land, they took their discharge and endeavoured to get back to the workhouse.

95364. I assume your experience is that a form of labour colony with strict regulations would be a real deterrent to this class ?—It would, there is no doubt of it.

95365. Would you say from your experience that that is one of the defects of the present system of Poor Law administration that the workhouse is not a deterrent ?—It is not. I say my experience is that it does not matter whether trade is good or bad, it is immaterial. When trade was good and there was the Boer War and the Coronation, we had the same class of men in the Poplar Workhouse ; it makes no difference whether trade was good or bad, they were still there. It is simply a kind of thing that grows and gets into the bones, and it will take years to get it out ; it wants a moral and mental instructor. It is like taking a child by the hand and teaching it to walk, to get those men to work properly and be independent.

95366. Would a strong man like you mention use physical violence on the other men if they did not do what he wanted ?—He has done so. As a matter of fact, my old watchman would not go near him ; I had to go and deal with him directly myself.

95367. I gather that this branch workhouse has not done much good to the majority of the persons who came from the workhouses ?—Yes, we have sent something like fifty habitual paupers to Canada ; we have sent 100 practically to Canada ; we sent the one who was in the workhouse nineteen years over to Canada.

Difference
between
paupers and
unemployed.

95368. It was only the exceptional cases you were mentioning which this colony did not favourably affect?—It has affected all the habitual paupers in this sense, that of those that were originally in the workhouse, there are very few in the colony now, most have gone to Canada, others have gone and simply joined the ranks of the casuals, because when they took their discharge, they would not take them into the workhouses. I have seen them up and down the road as tramps. We have had 1,000 men there in four years, a thousand different men.

95369. Have you traced at all what has happened to those 1,000 different men?—It is impossible.

95370. You cannot tell what portion of them, in consequence of this training they went through, got work?—I can only trace three that I got work for myself. They have been at work for eighteen months. I know where those three are at the present moment. They are all three round Laindon.

95371. That is independent of the men you emigrated?—Yes. I have got others work, but they have returned again.

95372. How many men did you emigrate?—About 100.

95373. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) I suggest we should have the actual figure; you can get the real figure?—Yes.

*The witness subsequently added the following note:—*The total number of men emigrated from the opening of this branch workhouse to the present time is 99.

95374. (*Chairman.*) Taking the unemployed, how long were they at this branch workhouse, was it sixteen weeks?—Some of them were there six months.

95375. I suppose the improvement in their physical condition was great?—Wonderful.

95376. Do you find that an improvement of physical condition is generally accompanied by an improvement in their moral condition?—(*Mr. Barnes.*) The improvement in the physical condition is rather conspicuous. We found as to these men who came as unemployed that probably many of them became unemployed because they fell into a very weak state of health, owing to their impoverished condition, and they came down to the colony and were much improved. I think many of these men go back to work and stick to work in consequence of the improvement. It has practically been a convalescent home to them.

95377. They were so down in physique generally that they were hardly capable and had great reluctance to work?—That is so.

95378. Do you find as they physically get better their behaviour is better? Do they morally improve, should you say, as they physically improve?—It is quite possible that is so.

95379. Whilst you think that the colony is an improvement on the workhouse, you think there could be a considerable improvement in the organisation of the colony if you had classification?—That is so. Undoubtedly the colony is a great improvement on the workhouse, because the men are better occupied and occupied under better conditions.

95380. If that is so, a large scheme or a combined scheme of labour colonies would be a still greater improvement, because you would be able to classify. (*Mr. Clarke.*) I would say so, on consideration that you took land where you could put the men to work on gravel pits or sand pits or quarries in the winter time. With the clay and in a place like Essex, which is all clay, it is absolutely impossible to find work for them to do in the winter time.

95381. It is heavy clay land?—Yes.

95382. Have you any figures to show what the cost at Laindon is, as compared with the maintenance of the men in the workhouse?—I have not got the figures with me, but I believe the cost of the Laindon branch workhouse is about 1s. a head less than it is at the Poplar Workhouse.

95383. That is the cost of maintenance?

95384. (*Mr. Gardiner.*) Might we have put in the exact cost as compared with the cost of maintenance in the Poplar Workhouse?—I do not think I could give you that exactly.

95385. (*Chairman.*) Do you have anything to do with the arrangements made for dealing with the wives and families?—I do not.

95386. It is all done in London?—That is done in the chief office.

95387. Were you able to judge to a certain extent what was the effect of this; what do you think of the method, do you think it is a good method?—That is rather a hard question.

95388. It is asking you to criticise your superiors?—It is criticising my own board practically speaking.

95389. I will put it in another way: Do you think you could improve the present method of dealing with the wives and families?—I certainly do.

95390. In what way?—In the first place, I should see the wives and families were thoroughly well fed and clothed, and I should certainly not give them the coin to do it.

95391. You would do it in kind?—Yes.

95392. Why would you give it in kind?—At the present time I have got 100 unemployed sent to me; last year the same thing occurred, and unfortunately it has come to my notice, because I have had to open the letters, I suppose that it is natural to do it, it is humane and you cannot wonder at it, but the wives will send the men money; if a man gets money and there is a public house about, if he is not a teetotaler, he will get beer. That is the difficulty.

95393. That is to say, the wife, when she gets the money, instead of spending it all on her children and herself, sends some of it down to the man?—Certainly.

95394. You think that is a tolerably common practice?—I do; I am sorry to say it. I am only speaking the fact. We have only opened a few letters, and we find the postal orders there.

95395. Do you confirm that, Mr. Barnes?—(*Mr. Barnes.*) Yes.

95396. Would that be general?—(*Mr. Clarke.*) General.

95397. What sort of sum would it be, 6d. or 1s.?—One shilling generally, or 6d. That is what we have seen. They send it down for a bit of tobacco; they are not allowed tobacco or anything like that, it is simply humane, I daresay my wife would do the same for me.

95398. Do you think it is money that was given them by the Poor Law, or do you think it is money they got by earning it?—I could not say that: some of the females go out to work, and some work at home doing tailoring at home and that sort of thing. I should not like to say it was the guardians money or that it was their own.

95399. If they worked and got payment in that way, your suggestion of maintaining them by goods and in kind would not prevent them sending the money?—No, that is so. The man who has got a wife and family, if he is down there, I think ought not to take the money of his wife and family.

95400. That is another matter. I do not know how you could quite stop it?—It is very difficult; we cannot.

95401. I understand one of your difficulties was in finding employment in winter. Have you much difficulty in disposing of the produce?—No, the great part of it goes to the institutions.

95402. That is paid for, I suppose, at a certain fixed price?—That is paid for at the contract price; I take as the figure whatever the contract price is and charge the institution the same.

95403. Coming to the question of dietary, it has been suggested by various witnesses that the dietary at Laindon was very good, I gather from your evidence that the persons who came from workhouses would, notwithstanding the dietary, prefer to be back in the workhouse?—The dietary when we first went there was not exactly the same as it is now. The scale they have now was started on 6th October.

95404. Is that a more liberal or less liberal dietary?—Less.

95405. Has there been any grumbling?—Yes, there is continued grumbling.

95406. I gather really the purport of the evidence of both you gentlemen is that you think an institution such as this affords a better method of dealing with the

Mr. John Clarke and Mr. F. Barnes.

3 Mar. 1908

Effect of colony.

Money sent to unemployed by wives.

Disposition of produce

Dietary.

Classification of inmates.

Mr. John
Clarke,
and
Mr. F.
Barnes.

able-bodied, but if there was some combined system with a larger classification it would be a considerable improvement?—Yes, because even if men only turn a rod over they are getting something. Our profit on the farm account this year is £454 13s. 6d. If the men had been in the workhouse breaking stones you would not have got that much profit.

95407. They get no money, do they?—They do not get a farthing, absolutely.

95408. In certain of the Labour Colonies abroad a certain sum is put by, according as the man works, so that he shall have something when he comes out. What do you think of that?—I think it is a splendid idea. That is in a sense classification. Then that helps the man that wants to help himself, and under the present system it does not matter how good you get the men. You get half a dozen men together, you know some of that are very good men, you would do anything for them yourself, but there is another man there who will not turn over six spits unless he is absolutely forced, while the other man will turn over a rod, yet they are both served the same.

95409. It would give the man who comes out breathing time to find employment?—That is so. Of course, when a man goes out someone wants to take him by the arm and lead him. As soon as he gets outside he loses himself. He has not confidence; he wants leading along first of all. With some of these men there could be some good done if you could take them individually, but not collectively. As soon as they get out if they get work they get drunk and lose the work, and then come back again; that is so with some of the best of them.

95410. Should you say one of the defects of the workhouse system is that there is no inducement to a man to exert himself?—There is none whatever.

95411. We have had that in evidence from other centres, the people do not hurry themselves?—No, if a man goes into a workhouse, it is very seldom you ever see the gates close upon him to go out for good. As soon as I see a man come inside the workhouse with his furniture, I say that man's life is done for: you never see him go out again. I have studied this matter for fourteen years, and I can say that conscientiously. I have sold the furniture at Poplar: they are still there in Poplar, the furniture is sold, but they are still there chargeable with the wife and family: they have not gone out again.

95412. Do you think it would be a difficult system to work, putting by a certain sum for the men as they work and giving it to them as they went out?—That will not cover everything. You want more confidence between master and men. It must be done outside the institutions. The confidence between the master and men is lost, that is part of the cause of the present state of pauperism; a man seems to want to get all he can and does not seem to want to give anything in return.

95413. You say these periods of very short engagements tend to casual work?—That is shown to be so; as long as a man can go and work two days at the dock and come direct into the workhouse, he is simply taking the bread from a man's mouth who has a family and is trying to keep them. If you allow a man to go out of the workhouse and work two or three days at the dock and come direct back again, how can a man outside compete with a man like that whose home is in the workhouse.

95414. Do you think there is any considerable number of men like that?—It has been done by a considerable number of men. (Mr. Barnes.) It is a very large number from the very fact that the Poplar Union is in the dock district. (Mr. Clarke.) You must stop them before they get inside the workhouse.

95415. (Mr. Lansbury.) The guardians have dealt pretty severely with the men that you have reported, have they not? The men you have reported as men who are really worthless the guardians have dealt with pretty severely?—Sometimes, but sometimes the officer has got a good jacketing for it. We must speak fair sometimes. The officer gets a good jacketing whether he has come out right or wrong; you very often take a man's word against the officer's.

95416. There are a number of men whom you have reported who have been stopped admission to any of the guardians' institutions?—That is so.

95417. Have you any idea how many there are?—About twenty, I should say.

95418. That was quite illegal on the part of the guardians, was it not?—Yes, quite illegal.

95419. And they took that step on your advice?—That is so.

95420. Do your remarks about the worthlessness of Conduct these men, taking the workhouse men, apply to the majority of the men?—If you recollect my statement, I said not the majority.

95421. I want to make that clear?—I said at the first not the majority. I said an exceptional case, I did not say the majority.

95422. These strong able-bodied well built vigorous men are only a tiny fraction of the men you deal with, are they not?—Those are the class of men we find the worst to deal with; they intimidate the other men.

95423. I want to know how many there are?—I have said one in this class.

95424. You have given us one that is at present at Forest Gate. I understand you had a thousand men through, individual men?—That is so.

95425. The minority of those would be from the workhouse, would they not? You are taking all, that covers the unemployed that you had through?—The majority of them are from the workhouse.

95426. You think they are?—(Mr. Barnes.) Yes, that is so.

95427. Would the majority of these men be well set up physically strong men?—(Mr. Clarke.) No, no. Properly physically able-bodied.

95428. What I want to get at is, what percentage of them are really able-bodied?—It would not be above really 20 per cent.

95429. Of the men who come from the workhouse?—Yes, of the men who come from the workhouse, it would not be 20 per cent.

95430. They would not be able-bodied in the ordinary sense?—That is so.

95431. Out of that 20 per cent. how many would be the worthless character of man you instance as now being at Forest Gate?—Of the 20 per cent., I cite this one individual as being in that condition, that was absolutely worthless, lazy, strong and able-bodied.

95432. And the man who would tyrannise over other people?—Yes.

95433. How many of these, during the four years you have been running Laidon, have you ever run up against, or have run up against you?—Of those I have run up against of the same class as that man, I have run up against three.

95434. (Mrs. Webb.) Three out of the 1,000?—Yes.

95435. (Mr. Lansbury.) One of those men is now chargeable; are the other two chargeable?—No, only one is chargeable.

95436. W. is one of the men you have in your mind?—He is one.

95437. The guardians took very drastic measures with him, whenever you definitely reported?—I locked him up. Treatment of lazy able-bodied.

95438. No one interfered with your discretion?—No.

95439. The guardians have never interfered with your discretion in taking a man to prison for not doing his work or misbehaving himself?—No.

95440. You have had a free hand with regard to that?—Yes.

95441. So far as the law permitted, all the law that was on your side you have been able to invoke in aid of discipline?—Yes.

95442. Whatever disagreement there may have been with you and the guardians on certain matters, have you ever been censured for taking a man up?—No, so far as the law is concerned a man can walk on that red line on the foolscap paper as long as he likes, but he is not going to step on one side, you can only lock him up under certain conditions.

Remuneration.

After care of inmates.

No inducement to work in workhouse system.

Short engagements lead to casual work.

Effect of leave of absence.

95443. So far as the present law allows, you were at liberty to set that law into operation without consulting anyone?—That is so.

95444. When you did do it, you have not been censured by the guardians for doing so?—No; I do not think I have stated that I have.

95445. You have had a good deal of experience; you do not think it is reasonable to expect that men will work and do their best when there is nothing at the end of their best?—I do not, but then that cannot interfere with my duty.

95446. I am not querying your duty at all. You are up here to give evidence; we all take it for granted you have done your duty, that you have got to do your duty is a thing that nobody questions, but what we want to know is your opinion of the best method for dealing with this class of men?—As I said, by classification.

95447. What I want to get at is, do you think it is reasonable to expect that you can get the best out of any man, or any woman either for that matter, if at the end of their best there is not a reward of some kind?—Certainly not, I think I have impressed that before, time upon time.

95448. I want you to impress it here. About that point of view, the first year you were getting the men ready for emigration, and there was a hope that a certain number were to be emigrated; did you find that when there was even that hope held out to them it made the men do better than they otherwise would have done?—Certainly it did.

95449. Do you remember too that at that time we gave 6d. a week from a voluntary fund?—I do.

95450. Do you consider that that was good or bad?—I consider it was very good.

95451. The fact that you had that 6d. which you could withhold, it was at your discretion whether they received it or not, although it was such a small sum, did have a good effect upon the men?—It did, I got a lot more rods dug than I should otherwise have got.

95452. That is only what happens to all of us in life, is it not?

95453. Do you think it is wise to expect more virtue from people who are right down than you expect from the ordinary workman when he goes to work? It seems that the poorer the person, the more virtue we want to get out of them. I suggest it is the other way on, and that it ought not to be so. Is it reasonable to expect that these people whom you have been dealing with, who are admittedly right at the bottom of the social ladder, should have the virtue of doing something for nothing, when you do not expect it from an ordinary worker?—I do not look at it like that with the unemployed, because I consider the unemployed are paid.

95454. I am thinking of the ordinary pauper.—To begin with, in some cases, I do not think the ordinary pauper ought to be in the workhouse.

95455. But he is there?—That is so; when he is there I think he should endeavour, as far as he can, not to forget that he is a man, and try to do as well as he can under the circumstances.

95456. You do say that there is no inducement for him to do his best?—I certainly say that, I have repeated it here.

95457. Therefore we must devise some scheme which will offer an inducement to him to do his best?—That is so; that is why I say classification.

95458. Classification by wages you think, or putting money on one side for him?—Putting aside money for the man, so that he can look after himself; I say, as soon as he gets work, he should not be allowed to come back again.

95459. Now, about the men you have got there now. They have been sent there and their wives and children are being relieved under the Modified Workhouse Test Order?—That is so.

95460. You have only had them ten days?—That is so.

95461. How many letters have you opened which have had money in?—I have opened two. I do not know how many Mr. Barnes has opened. (*Mr. Barnes.*) There have been five opened altogether.

95462. How many men have you there now?—(*Mr. Clarke.*) Eighty-nine.

95463. Have you seen the other letters that the men have had?—No, I should not have seen those except that they were addressed to me.

95464. Have you any evidence actually of how many have had money sent?—(*Mr. Barnes.*) That is the only five I can vouch for. I might say the reason these letters were opened was that by accident two men of the same name had their letters addressed as "Mr." only. I opened the letters before the men, because there was no Christian names put on. That was how we found out; the letters would not have been opened otherwise, although we have the power to do so. They were different men of the same name, and only "Mr." was put on, there was no Christian name, therefore we were compelled to open them to get the proper owners for them. In every instance, that was five instances, there was stamps or postal orders.

95465. To the value of 1s.?—There were three 1s. and two 6d.

95466. The men are getting no tobacco now, are they?—Nothing whatever.

95467. You cannot say how many men have had money?—No.

95468. I suppose everyone has had a letter?—Practically everyone.

95469. Do you know whether there is a rule that men receiving money from their wives are to be dismissed?—(*Mr. Clarke.*) No. (*Mr. Barnes.*) I might say in connection with this that the moment the letters were opened and the men knew the officials knew there was money in the letters they certainly said it did not come from their wives, it came from some friends other than their wives.

95470. Still, I daresay we can get evidence about that otherwise. You are going to put in the number of men that have been emigrated, are you not?—(*Mr. Clarke.*) Yes, we can soon get the figures for that. (*See answer to Q. 95373.*)

95471. With regard to other work there you have been rather handicapped, have you not, the last twelve months owing to the fact that it was doubtful whether the colony was going on?—Yes, we have been under that difficulty for two years. At the present time what with the weather we do not know which way to turn with them.

95472. (*Mrs. Webb.*) How do the men spend their Sunday Sundays?—Some of them go for a walk, and some simply sit in the building. The unemployed generally all go out. The pauper is a different class; he does not seem to have the energy to go out, he simply sits there and plays at dominoes and reads. Most of the unemployed go for a good walk.

95473. Do any of them go to any kind of religious service?—We have a chaplain who comes.

95474. How many attend?—Sometimes six, sometimes five or four. We have got it up to a dozen. When we give them a little tobacco (as now and again the chaplain and myself do) we get the place full. The other institutions round about, the mission halls and all those, give them tobacco; and as soon as they give them tobacco they all go there.

95475. Do not you think it would be possible to exercise a little discipline over the leisure of the men on Sundays, not necessarily to expect them to go to a religious service, but could not you give them an alternative to a religious service by some kind of Sunday school?—That is what I maintain would be best; instead of the service there should be a kind of Sunday school. That is why I say a mental and moral instructor is as much essential as a taskmaster, because these men have got to be taught. They are only like children. You have got to teach them. I say again a mental and moral instructor is essential as much as the taskmaster.

95476. You might get in your element both of improvement and of deterrence?—Yes, making the men better; it would take time, but I believe it would do good.

Mr. John Clarke, and Mr. F. Barnes.

3 Mar. 1908.

Money sent to unemployed by wives.

Emigration.

Religious services.

Mr. John
Clarke
and
Mr. F.
Barnes.

5477. Sunday is a great difficulty, because you have that long day of complete leisure?—We have got the long day. We have got the chaplain coming on Sunday afternoon, though he has not been lately. They do not attempt to come to church.

3 Mar. 1908.

95478. You cannot compel a man to attend church because of religious prejudice?—That is so.

95479. But you could compel him to go to a Sunday school or some secular education?—Yes, but as soon as you brought compulsion into force the man objects because it is against his creed.

95480. It would be a possible way out of the religious difficulty to have a secular school which was an alternative to the religious service?—Yes; lectures, or something of that kind, something interesting. I am sure our chaplain has endeavoured to do everything that human man can do. I must say that he has improved the place, and he comes a wonderful lot. With the unemployed I dare say he would have a better time.

Behaviour of
unemployed
and paupers.

95481. I was told at Hadleigh that the unemployed were far worse behaved than the workhouse man?—The unemployed has got a different spirit, it is the spirit of a man. The workhouse man does not seem to have any spirit, the spirit is down in his boots, except he is a very bad man. The unemployed man is not used to these places, and it is the way he has; but, personally, I prefer the unemployed to the pauper.

95482. Their language is worse, is it not?—If you allow it, but you must use your moral influence over them. The language is very bad, I admit, but we endeavour as far as we can to stop it. We use our moral influence, we never use bad language ourselves. If they know that you are of a moral character they will not let you hear them.

95483. Do you hear of any kind of desire on the part of the workhouse men not to associate with the unemployed, and a desire on the part of the unemployed not to associate with the workhouse men?—We find that the workhouse men do not care to associate with the unemployed.

95484. That is exactly what I was told at Hadleigh?—That is what we find.

95485. The unemployed are rather a rougher lot?—I can hardly say that; he has a different spirit; he has more spirit than the pauper. (Mr. Barnes.) The unemployed man thinks himself much better than the pauper, and the pauper seems to feel some inferiority with the unemployed that he will not associate with them.

95486. I was told that the workhouse man thought he was better behaved than the unemployed and had a superior sanctity?—(Mr. Clarke.) The workhouse men are more used to discipline than the unemployed.

95487. (Chairman.) I understand you to say that the unemployed consider themselves superior to the workhouse men?—(Mr. Barnes.) That is so.

95488. And that caused a little feeling?—Yes.

95489. Is that generally the case?—It has been in my experience.

Class of men
at Laindon.

95490. Socially the condition and the class of work in which they have been engaged, if they have been at work, is very much the same?—The unemployed we have had at Laindon have been employed really more than the workhouse men; they have not been in the workhouse and have been more generally employed. The great majority of the unemployed we have had have never been in the workhouse.

Unemploy-
able.

95491. I suppose they are almost exclusively unskilled labourers?—(Mr. Clarke) Yes, practically that is so. There are a few in the lot that I have at the present time (though I congratulate myself on the lot that I have as a whole) that I consider unemployable.

95492. Are they as a rule the skilled or unskilled men who have fallen down to be unemployable?—There are three of them that I have picked out of these; I do not know that they have ever done anything practically, so far as I can gather from their career.

95493. (Mr. Bentham.) What is the proportion of men you have of the two classes, those you call unemployed and those who are regular workhouse cases?—We have only unemployed at the present time. We have not any paupers at all except six.

95494. How many unemployed?—Eighty odd unemployed. Number colony.

95495. Since what date was that?—About a week to-day the unemployed came.

95496. Were the regular paupers sent back to the workhouse in order to make room for these?—They were sent to the branch workhouse at Forest Gate.

95497. Is there employment for them there too on the land?—Ordinary workhouse employment.

95498. (Mr. Lansbury.) And some work on the land?—Yes, there is about two or three acres of land.

95499. (Mr. Bentham.) Do you say that none of these eighty unemployed who are now at Laindon have had relief before from the guardians?—They have had out-relief before.

95500. They are really outdoor relief cases, are they not?—That is so. Out-relief cases under Modified Workhouse Test Order.

95501. That is relief under the Modified Workhouse Test Order?—That is so.

95502. Have any of them to your knowledge worked under the Central Body?—I believe some have been to Hollesley Bay (I do not know whether that is under the Central Body or not) and other different institutions.

95503. Those who have been at Hollesley Bay would be better experienced men on the land, would they not, so it would be very easy to tell?—I have not tested them on the land yet; I cannot get on to it, it is too wet.

95504. What do you find them to do in weather like this?—I have got them bag-making at the present time in bad and twenty or thirty men are wheeling some loose mould weather out of a place where I am going to put another reservoir. Occupied in bad weather.

95505. How are they employed at bag-making; are they put to a task of work, so many bags a day?—No task.

95506. How do they compare on their output with ordinary bag-makers?—I could not say; I have had no experience in bag-making.

95507. What do you do with the bags?—We supply the Forest Gate School and ourselves for potatoes. We produce grow something like 100 tons of potatoes, and it takes a lot of bags for those. Disposed of.

95508. You will soon overtake that demand, will you not?—Yes, it is only done when it is wet.

95509. What do you do with the mats which are made; are any sold?—We have only supplied the institution with them up to the present.

95510. You have not made more than you required?—We could make a lot more than the institution requires if we had a market for them, but then you would come into competition with outdoor labour.

95511. Then you really limit your output to the demand that there is in your institution for it?—We only put the cripples to mat-making that cannot do anything else.

95512. Have you any other kind of indoor employment?—We have this winter been breaking stones; not task, but simply breaking them to put on the roads.

95513. With regard to the money payment, you rather advocate that something ought to be given to these men by way of encouragement. I suppose that does not apply to the men you have now?—That is so; their families are getting paid.

95514. Do you think it would be any hardship to those men to say that no money should be allowed them whatever; that all letters should be opened that have money in them?—I think if a man smokes he should have a little bit of tobacco, and his wife may supply it; it is the drink I object to. Money not to unemployed wives.

95515. You could supply that on the premises, could you not?—Yes.

95516. Do you think it advisable to let them out with money in their pockets?—Not when they are in institutions; I do when they are at home.

95517. You would say it would be better that leave of absence should have been prohibited altogether?—No, I think it is a very good thing; I have had no trouble with that. Last Saturday or Sunday night you would not have found a man out at nine o'clock. Why I object to leave of absence is if they have money to go to the public-house. For a man to go out and walk I think is healthy and does him good; he is more a man for it. Leave absent.

95518. Is not the colony sufficiently large for them to have a good stretch of a walk?—There is only one field and they cannot walk all over the cultivated land.

Effect on discipline of remittance of money to inmates. 95519. If these men are in the habit of getting drunk, and they have money sent to them, if you give leave of absence there are no means of preventing their getting drunk, are there?—There is nothing to prevent them; you could prevent them by opening the letters and taking the money away.

95520. Would you say it would be better for the discipline of the place if money were not allowed to be sent to them at all?—Certainly.

95521. Or that it was taken from them till they took their discharge, and then given to them?—Certainly, that is so.

Discharges from colony. 95522. When the men were returned for insubordination, that is ordinary workhouse inmates, were they discharged from the workhouse?—I have never returned one for insubordination, I have only turned them out on the road; I have broken the law, I admit. I have simply taken their clothes and put them on the road.

95523. You have their ordinary clothes at Laindon, then?—Yes.

95524. So that you can put them in their ordinary clothes, and give them their discharge?—Yes.

95525. (*Mr. Phelps.*) Did any of them apply to the relieving officer of the union they were in?—Yes. After I turned them out they did not get an order, because I sent to the relieving officer that I had turned them out, and the guardians gave orders that the relieving officer should not give them an order.

95526. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Mr. Phelps means to the officer of the Billericay Union?—No one has applied there.

95527. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) What do they do then?—They have simply joined the casual class of tramps; some have been out for the last three years. I saw one the other week amongst the casuals. I got seven of them work; they went to Evesham in Worcestershire. We turned those seven out when they came back.

95528. (*Mr. Bentham.*) Do any of the men get back to the workhouse and return again to you?—Yes, scores; but then there was a deliberate order made that they were not to have an Order. Those are the men that went with the intention of getting into the workhouse, in fact they all took their discharge to go to the workhouse.

Suitability of present site. 95529. Do you consider the land there a suitable place for a colony?—No, I do not.

95530. You would get much better results from better land?—The land is good for the results; you would not get better crops anywhere in England, but it is in the winter-time the trouble is. Even when you drain, there is a certain amount of moisture in the clay, and that moisture has to evaporate out of it. It is not like where there is a ballast bottom, so that it can percolate through.

95531. In all places in winter-time there would be less work under certain conditions of weather than in the summer-time?—Yes.

Winter work. 95532. Have you any suggestion to offer for employing them better than you do at Laindon?—Yes, I say if you get where there is either chalk or gravel or sand or rock, you can utilise them in the winter-time for getting that out.

95533. In the winter-time?—Yes, that is the time they work on that. Take where you have some rock, stone or quarry, or gravel or sand, you could always be sifting that and getting it ready for the spring to put upon the roads, and in the following autumn.

Teaching of handicrafts. 95534. Is there any hope in teaching these men a handicraft?—No, I am sorry to say we have tried that. You cannot make a man learn if he will not. You cannot teach him if he will not learn. They do it for the sake of doing it, but they will not take any interest in it. We were handicapped by the youths of from seventeen or eighteen to twenty-one. Those are the youths we are trying to lift out of the mire altogether, and we find we cannot do any thing. We put them to milking the cows, and we put them to mat-making, but they will not learn.

Youths.

95535. What could you do with a man like that?—I do not know what to do; put him in the Army. *Mr. John Clarke and Mr. F. Barnes.*

95536. (*Chairman.*) Are those boys you are speaking of?—He is not a boy, nor a man; they are eighteen, nineteen and twenty. Those are the most difficult class we have to deal with, you cannot deal with them like a man or like a boy. *3 Mar. 1908.*

95537. (*Mr. Gardiner.*) How many of those have you had?—A good percentage of late.

95538. (*Chairman.*) They came from the workhouse?—Those we had.

95539. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Out of the thousand men do you say you had 20 per cent. between seventeen and twenty?—I did not say what percentage.

95540. What would they be?—(*Mr. Barnes.*) I should think about 10 per cent. (*Mr. Clarke.*) We sent some of them out to Canada, and it is within my knowledge that they have come back again. I thought that was a good start in life for them, but they have got back somehow or other. I have seen them back again.

95541. (*Mr. Bentham.*) If they cannot be trained under the discipline which you give them, in what sort of institution could they possibly be compelled to learn?—The best thing I can say for those is to send them either to the Midlands, or the North, or to Wales, to a farm, and hire them for twelve months, get them away from their associates. That is the best way I can see out of the problem. *Agricultural labour.*

95542. Would a training colony do them any good?—I do not think there is any farm colony in the world would do them any good, except you had them isolated and were to pay a farmer to teach them.

95543. Has that been tried at all?—We sent one or two from Forest Gate, and it has proved a great success. We sent one lad three or four years ago to Wales, he was hired for twelve months, and he proved a smart man. I have seen several letters from him since, and he is doing well. If they do that, they are away from all their associates, and there are hopes for them.

95544. Was he one you considered incapable of training at the colony?—No, he was a very smart lad, I have seen boys not so intelligent as these boys I am speaking of, hired out, and made fairly smart agricultural labourers. As I say, it takes a good man to make an agricultural labourer. People seem to think that an agricultural labourer is not much of a man, but I consider he is an artist if he is a good one.

95545. In answer to Question V you say the mental and moral effect of the men appears to remain normal, the colony. physical effect is wonderfully improved. Has that not been some concern to you, that morally they have not improved on the colony?—It has, more than anyone knows.

95546. Have you taken any steps besides what has been done by the chaplain?—I have tried everything I influence, possibly could, as far as I could myself.

95547. In the way of moral influence?—Yes. We are speaking there of the majority. There are some that are very decent men, very good men indeed.

95548. Do you think a chaplain could do any good with that class of person, or what would you suggest in the way of improvement?—What I suggest is an instructor teaching a kind of Sunday school. I believe a man learns more at a Sunday school than he learns at all the services.

95549. Would a resident chaplain, who would undertake this teaching in addition, be any good?—I do not think he should be resident. When he gets resident there is too much of the officialism about him.

95550. You think really that this moral influence can be done voluntarily as it were by non-officials, better than it can be done by officials?—That is so, by talks to them individually.

95551. Would not a colony that was managed entirely by a voluntary association, which has the whole atmosphere of moral influence round it, produce better results than you can by a colony of this sort?—Certainly; the man is not contaminated with the strain of any discipline at all; you could do more under those conditions because you are free.

- Mr. John Clarke and Mr. F. Barnes. 95552. (*Mrs. Webb.*) Do you know Hadleigh? Have you been to Hadleigh?—Yes, I have been there several times.
95553. May we ask your opinion of Hadleigh?—I have not a large enough experience of Hadleigh to say. At Hadleigh they have far better advantages than we have. If a man cannot do anything there they take them on to the four lanes and say: "You can go which way you like." We cannot do that, so they really get the best of the men, and get the best out of them. There is classification about the diet there, too, there is Class A and Class B; and the man has to earn that diet before he gets it. I think that is a very good system; a man ought to earn his food before he eats it.
95554. (*Mr. Bentham.*) You mean when you say you cannot do that, you are not authorised?—We cannot do it under the Poor Law.
95555. Why not?—Because you must go by the Orders and by the law. It is not an Act of Parliament. To commence with, you have only the one class of diet for able-bodied men.
95556. (*Mr. Phelps.*) When persons are admitted to Laindon to your farm, do you have any records sent with them?—No.
95557. You merely have their names?—Yes.
95558. What do you do, when a man is first admitted, with the new arrival?—We simply take him, change him, bath him, and put him to work.
95559. Do you put him through any examination as to his antecedents?—No, that is not my business.
95560. You do not really know what their past has been?—No, that is not my business. I have to deal with him while he is there; and he is sent to me to deal with.
95561. Do you know if any of the people who come to you have been countrymen originally?—I have only found one. They may have been in the country when they were very young, but I do not get any country men.
95562. You do not find it out by the way they handle their tools?—No, I have found two altogether; that is all I have found.
95563. Do you think, as a general question, that for the townspeople putting them down in the country is a good thing?—Well, he has got to learn something before he can be put down in the country.
95564. I will put it in another way. Do you think that the situation of a colony like yours in the country is the best that could be devised? Do you think it better to put them in the country in a colony than it would be to treat them in the towns?—If their intention is going into the country I think the best thing is to put them into the country to train them.
95565. Do you not think the monotony of country life after the town sends a good many of these people to the public-houses?—I have had no experience of that; I do not say they do spend money in the public-house, because they have got it to spend.
95566. You complain a good deal of the misuse of their walks abroad. Do you think if you could have more continuous occupation for them it would be better for them?—Yes.
95567. Do you think the fact that they are associated in their work is bad for them?—Yes, I think they ought to be separated out.
95568. You think to make the labour effective it should be continuous, and not associated?—That is so.
95569. Are there any improvements in your own colony which you could see that would bring that about?—Yes; having about eight or twelve men to one ganger.
95570. How many have you at present?—Really, only two gangers for the eighty men.
95571. You think the number assigned to each ganger is too large for him to have any real control, in the best sense, over them?—Yes.
95572. Are your gangers familiar with country life and farming?—They are local labourers.
95573. Do you find they do their work to your satisfaction?—Yes.
95574. Do you find they have a good influence on the men?—One has more influence than the other. One man specially has a wonderful lot of influence and the men work wonderfully well with him; he never talks, he only works.
95575. If you got the right type of men over them, you think these men would work better?—They do, but you must pay for the right type and give the men a better wage, so as to get a better type altogether.
95576. Do you think you could get a sufficient supply of that type of men?—Yes, at just a few shillings over the agricultural labourer.
95577. What sort of wages were you thinking of?—Wages of £1 a week. Those men have something to put up with gangers, when working with these men, and we only give them 17s. a week.
95578. (*Chairman.*) Nothing else?—No.
95579. (*Mr. Phelps.*) Do they live on the premises?—No, they are local labourers and live in the country.
95580. They have their cottages at a distance?—Yes.
95581. Do any of the people take to agriculture who come to you to Laindon in that way?—I know of one, that is one of the gangers. He was a ganger first, and then I put him on as the night watchman; he was one of the unemployed.
95582. That is one of the gangers?—One that I took from the unemployed; he has been with me for two years.
95583. He took to the country life. Do you know whether he had any experience of country life before?—None whatever.
95584. That being so, do you, in your evenings, have any system of education?—No.
95585. Do you think it would be a good thing if you had a mental instructor?—I do.
95586. What kind of work would you give to him if you had one?—He would have to feel his way and find out the kind of work for himself. First of all he would have to talk to the men; that is a kind of work you are born in more than anything else. He would have to be a man of wonderful patience, temper, and a kindly disposition, and a man who could talk.
95587. He would talk about the opportunities of industries in England?—Yes, and about the men's moral conduct and behaviour, and talk to them individually like a Sunday School class.
95588. I was thinking rather of mental instruction. Do you think they could be taught reading, writing, and arithmetic, which a good many of them have probably forgotten?—There are not many who cannot read and write.
95589. Could you build on that, do you think, and have lectures on the British Empire and the opportunities for emigration and that sort of thing?—That would not do any good at all; they must talk to them simply about the man himself and the work and the social conditions and everything.
95590. You do not think that mental instruction really would be very much use?—No, moral I think instruction mostly.
95591. You can quite see that out of agriculture and a variety of things, you might talk to people about the crops and that sort of thing?—Yes; when a man has made up his mind and determined to go into the country, then you can instruct him mentally as far as that is concerned. We get very few of those that seem inclined to go into the country.
95592. Have you proposed to any of the people to go back to a different part of England and settle down as agricultural labourers?—I have proposed to them to go to Canada, not to England, because I have nowhere to send them to.
95593. Do they think enough of a country life to think of settling in the country?—They all seem to have an ambition to get to Canada for farming.
95594. When they get there a good many return, did you say?—I was referring to two young boys, of about eighteen or nineteen; they returned. I have letters from several of the men in Canada, I should say twenty, who are doing very well out there, working on the railways and one thing and another. I keep in correspondence with them.

Mr. John
Clarke
and
Mr. F.
Barnes.

3 Mar. 1908

95595. Are they working on farms?—Yes.

95596. When they have gone abroad in that way, do you keep up a correspondence with them?—Yes, I have corresponded with several.

95597. A good proportion of them?—Yes, and not only that; I should like to state that several of them have sent money back to their old friends who they have left behind on the colony. I turned a man away the other day who had had 5s. sent to him from Canada. I discharged him as soon as I knew.

95598. Do not you think it would be useful if you had a record of these men before they came to you, so as to make it continuous during their stay at the colony and afterwards?—I would not like to have a record of them. I do not think it would do good. I have that record in my own mind; one I have specially in mind; it would not be any good, it would set the people against the men as soon as they saw it. You must treat them as they are: if you are going to pick a man up you must not have a record.

95599. (Mr. Gardiner.) Would you not like to have a regular school after work is over, as a kind of discipline?—Yes.

95600. Your idea is that not a single moment of the man's day should be unoccupied?—That is so.

95601. From the time he gets up to the time he goes to bed?—That is so.

95602. There should be a sufficient variation of occupation?—Yes, not tie them down to one thing.

95603. The guardians have no opportunity of putting that into force?—No. I might say that Mr. Lansbury has, on several occasions, mentioned about this instruction.

95604. They have been deterred on the ground of expense?—They would have to be paid for.

95605. It is because of the expense that that system has never been put into force?—That is so.

95606. The same thing applies to the fact that you have such a small number of gangers?—That is so. We have cut down the expenses as low as we possibly can, because the object has been to make a profit as much as anything else.

95607. Why in order to make a profit?—You have to cut your expenses down.

95608. You do not think this idea has been worked as well as it might be worked?—That is so.

95609. Your experience has shown that this method of treating them is not extremely expensive?—Our buildings are rather a deterrent to any man; you want different buildings altogether. It is like an ordinary shed, the day-room is at one end, there is nothing elevating to the men, nothing whatever. We want education in the matter, we want a building that will enlighten the men; I do not mean an elaborate building, but something comfortable.

95610. And constant application?—Yes.

95611. You have no regular reports from Canada?—Only letters.

95612. You told us you had heard from twenty; you sent out 100 I think you said?—Yes.

95613. You only got letters from about twenty?—I think twenty casual labourers, not more, I am sure.

95614. What experience had you before you undertook this work at Laindon?—(Mr. Barnes.) Workhouse experience under the same board, the Poplar Board.

95615. Were you assistant labour master?—Labour master at Poplar previous to going to the colony.

95616. Have you at any time inquired into the systems which are adopted say at Lingfield or in other places of treating the same class of people?—Yes, I have been to Lingfield, and I have been to Hadleigh, but the circumstances under which these other colonies are established is entirely different to ours. They have opportunities of doing things which we have not. One thing was mentioned by Mr. Clarke just now about some classification in dieting these men in order to classify them. That would not be permissible under the Poor Law, but it would be permissible to the authorities at Lingfield or Hadleigh.

95617. Have you visited any prisons where the Borstal system is in operation?—I have not.

95618. You have never come across any of the officers of those prisons?—No.

95619. You have never thought of going there in order to pick up fresh ideas?—I have thought of doing so, but I may say this, that the Colony at Laindon has not been started very long, and we were not sure that it was going to continue; it is only recently that it has been decided. If this were going to be extended to any extent, I had certainly thought to gain experience by visiting other places to see what was done.

95620. After work the men practically do nothing Leisure time but sit about and play dominoes?—Sit about or go off occupation for a walk.

95621. They knock off about five?—Half past four.

95622. They have tea at five?—Yes.

95623. And that is over at half past five?—Yes.

95624. They go to bed at nine?—They go to bed when they like, but they must be in bed by nine. Some of them go to bed immediately after tea.

95625. There is no rule against that?—No, when a man has done his work he is quite at liberty.

95626. Are they dormitories or cubicles?—They have dormitories divided off into eight or ten beds.

95627. Have you any system of petty officership in the dormitories?—Yes. Discipline in dormitories.

95628. Do you overlook them?—Yes, we go through them.

95629. Does your bedroom, or any other official's bedroom overlook them?—No. Some of the officials live close to the building, but in the case of myself I do not live on the place at all. We have a night watchman and some of the day officers can always pay a visit if they choose.

95630. There is no regular system?—(Mr. Clarke.) Yes, there is a regular system of going through the dormitory every night.

95631. At certain intervals?—At nine o'clock at night.

95632. And they get up at six in the morning?—Yes.

95633. (Mrs. Bosanquet.) Why do you not prohibit the men drinking altogether?—That is a difficult task.

95634. Would the guardians back you up, if you did?—A man does not drink on the premises, if he did, I should deal with that myself independent of the guardians. It does not follow because a man drinks that he gets drunk, but you cannot prevent a man going inside a public-house if he has money. If he goes and gets a glass or two of beer he would not necessarily get drunk. Drinking when on leave of absence.

95635. You can make it an offence?—Not if you allow them to go out.

95636. Would not the guardians back you up if you did?—The guardians cannot make it an offence. They have no control over him when he is off their premises.

95637. At Hadleigh it is an offence?—Yes, but they sign an agreement there, and as soon as they drink they send them away; but we cannot, because we are under the Poor Law.

95638. Cannot you impose any penalty?—Not if he is outside. If he did it on the premises we could. When a man is outside we have no control over him there. You give a man leave on the Wednesday say, and they go out with the old people and they bring it in, but you have no control over them when they are outside.

95639. The only way really would be to stop their leave?—Stop the money.

95640. Could you not stop their leave?—The only way would be to stop the money. We have not had a drunken man for a long time; it is only when the unemployed come that they have the money.

95641. Do you make any attempt to separate the young lads from the older men?—We cannot; they all sleep in one dormitory. That is one thing I have pointed out to the guardians; if we had different day-rooms we could have a classification and separate them out. Separation of lads from men.

95642. Do they work in the same gangs?—Yes.

95643. The influence cannot be good?—No; you really want classification for that.

Mr. John
Clarke
and
Mr. F.
Barnes.

95644. (Mr. Lansbury.) With regard to there being only one dormitory, and on the question of building, it is only within the last three months that it has been decided that the guardians should own Laindon?—That is so.

3 Mar. 1908.

95645. That has been the reason why the guardians have not put up a building?—Yes, I am only saying that with our building it has been impossible.

95646. (Mr. Loch.) Would it have been very costly to have put up sufficient partitions to get a little classification in the different parts of those great barns so as to have divided the young men off?—That is what we are going to endeavour to do.

95647. Would it have been costly to the guardians to have done it before?—No, it would not when they first put the building up, but after they had once got the building there it was. They did not seem inclined to alter it after they had once got it up under the system of three years.

Experience
of witness.

95648. What was your position in Poplar Workhouse; were you in the labour yard?—No, first of all I was assistant labour master in Poplar, then lunatic attendant, then receiving ward attendant, then master. I went through them all—not at Poplar, at Well Street, a branch workhouse of Poplar.

95649. You have been master of a workhouse?—Yes.

Discipline.

95650. On the question of the offences and how to control them better. You referred to the Order that gives punishment for misdemeanour on the part of paupers. There is no such misdemeanour as being idle in itself; they have not to use profane language?—They must refuse to work.

95651. They may idle over their work as much as possible?—Yes, as I say they can walk right along the line. If you give the man a task, if he does not perform it, then he comes under it.

95652. Unless you give the man a task you cannot control his idleness?—You can only control it by your own moral influence, nothing else.

No task
work.

95653. Do you do your work at all now by task?—No.

95654. Did you at the branch workhouse?—We have had no task in Poplar for the last ten years.

95655. It follows that the strongest power you have over a man fails you if you have no task?—It did not fail the first year I was there, when they had some kind of recompense with them. For instance, I used to go and dig with them myself; I tested them personally; those men worked splendidly, I must say.

95656. Supposing there was no recompense, then would what I say hold good, that you did not have your strongest power of control if there was no task?—No. You really want a task for a few of them.

Remunera-
tion.

95657. You cannot act on any remunerative plan in employing these men now, can you?—No.

95658. When you had your remuneration, did you not have to link it to some sort of measurement or task?—I simply used to step it out myself. Of course with that you have to use a certain amount of commonsense. You might have twenty men together, one man would be able to dig two rods, but another man would not be able to dig one. You have to go according to your own judgment and knowledge.

95659. You were measuring while you were judging?—Yes.

95660. What you want is measurement plus a remuneration?—That is so.

Regulations
in Order in-
sufficient for
discipline.

95661. Taking these various offences set down in the Order, which you are no doubt quite familiar with, did you find that practically they met your difficulty in the employment of men at all?—They did not, because the men will simply go to the farthest extent before you can deal with them in law. Personally, I do not like the law, I like to deal with them myself, but you must have something in the way of compulsion.

Drinking.

95662. Take this matter of discipline as to drink to which Mrs. Bosanquet has referred, on our present system, the man being outside the premises is a free man?—That is so.

95663. He comes back two hours later, possibly not quite drunk, but possibly having had more than is good for him; when he comes back he is no longer a free man, being on the premises?—Then the punishment comes in.

95664. The punishment comes in if he shows it; he is not punished for going out and doing what is wrong, he is punished for being in a state of intoxication?—That is so.

95665. Do you not think in any revision of the situa- Discipline
tion, we might do what the Salvation Army do in some while on
other way, and effect the same result, namely, that a man leave of
being maintained by the Poor Law should be under absence.
certain subjection, even though he is outside?—That
really has never come into force because there has never
been a colony like this before; there has never been a
place where the able-bodied class have been allowed to
go out.

95666. You are dealing with the question more from the point of view of the colony, which has no laws?—The question comes in there if they were to misbehave like that, the thing would be to stop their leave. I cannot see under the present law how you would deal with them while they were out, if you give them leave.

95667. I want to get to a new point. You say it is good for them to go out and get their walk?—Yes.

95668. What you want is a change of the law which will control them if possible, in spite of their being outside?—Yes.

95669. When you said something about having control, you talked of a labour colony; that labour colony would be practically a penal colony, would it not, and the discipline would be almost like prison discipline?—For the men I referred to of the worst class.

95670. Do you propose that a colony like that should Home Office
be in the hands of another authority like the prison as autho- over per
rity?—Really, I should say it should be under the colony.
Home Office, and those men should not be allowed to
go out unless they improved in their character and
demeanour, and everything.

95671. The ground of that would be not a specific Magistrate's
offence, would it, but the fact that their general behaviour order.
in the place has been so bad that the master thinks some
better control is necessary, and there must be a magis-
terial decision in that case to that effect?—Yes.

95672. Do you think quite as an outsider that the fact that a man has behaved badly all round, not broken any heads, not used any particularly obscene language, but he has been a bad influence in the place through idleness and so on, that in such a case the magistrate would commit?—No, he would not commit on that. I should not like to take a man merely on those conditions. I never have done so.

95673. I meant rather one of the scabby sheep?—No, they would not commit.

95674. Do you think your proposal of a penal colony means much, because after all it must be a magisterial decision, you may have your colony and not be able to use it; for have we not a Vagrancy Law which is very little enforced?—I do not think they should be dealt with by my scheme, but dealt with in the colony wherever it was; in the case you speak about, you could deal with a man like that by simple isolation, and giving bread and milk, and all that.

95675. You want attached to your colony, within Penal dis-
reach, or in the place itself, penal discipline?—That is so. pline with
colony.

95676. Do you not come back to those old Orders of the board, with the penalty of shutting up or reducing rations?—Yes, you must have the Orders.

95677. Supposing you are dealing with these men at Laindon, what means have you of doing one or the other? You can cut down dietary?—Yes, and give them bread and water.

95678. Now as to the shutting up?—We have nowhere Isolation
where we can shut them up.

95679. All the advantages that come from isolation are out of your reach?—There should be isolation, which is not within our reach, that is one of the difficulties we have to contend with.

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hose.

95680. Taking the work, of course the soil is a very troublesome one for wet weather and in winter-time?—Yes.

95681. But making the very best of that, you are driven at last to sack-making and mat-making?—Yes.

95682. You also put them on to stone-breaking?—Yes.

95683. Are you not, therefore, being driven back to almost workhouse employment, only in a colony?—That is being driven back to workhouse employment—stone-breaking.

95684. So that except that it is in the open air and in the country, relatively, if your numbers were at all increased, would you not have to make what you call institutional work for them as against farm work?—Yes.

95685. Are we not thus working in a vicious circle, unless we are careful to keep the numbers down to what the farm will employ we get a larger number than we can deal with on farm employment?—That brings us back again to the employment of the workhouse; you have to deal with the men as best you can. When you get an overflow of numbers, and have not got the work for them, that brings them back to the workhouse, and they get into the same state.

lower of
dismissal.

95686. Taking that point you mentioned just now, of dismissal, you said quite rightly, I think, that at Hadleigh they could be dismissed; they can turn a man out?—Yes.

95687. Do you see any great reason against the authorities of an institution of a Poor Law type having power to dismiss?—I do not. I think it would be a very good thing. I have never known a man in my life to starve when he was turned out.

95688. I suppose here again it is rather the fear of what might be said that is the whip over us?—You have not a legal right.

95689. Do you see any objection to there being a legal right to cases being reported to the guardians at once and the supervising body dismissing the men?—I think it would be a very good thing indeed; I think it would be a splendid thing.

95690. If we did that there would be a continual sifting of these men in the farm?—Yes. I find it has more influence over a man to turn him out than to send him to prison.

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95691. You have yourself been in charge of a workhouse; comparing notes with other people who care about this, it seems pretty clear that there is one thing that deters at the outset, and that is keeping the men out of the body of the house; it is systematically done in some places; that is to say, the man when he first comes in is not allowed to go into the body of the house, and very often he will consider the matter and take his discharge. Have you found that that is so?—That is if he does not get into the body of the house. If he once gets through the gates and into the body of the house he does not take his discharge.

fect of
assification.

95692. Supposing you get many of the unemployed instead of saying in every case: Here is the workhouse—which is practically what has been done in effect, you take half-a-dozen different types and you say: This man shall go to the colony, and this man shall go to another place; do you think that that would tend to prevent the creation of the type that we do not want to exist at all?—I do most earnestly.

Water
upply.

95693. Where does your water come from?—Ours is surface water.

95694. Surface water?—Yes, I made a reservoir, we collect it in the winter-time, and store it for the summer.

95695. Is it lasting?—Yes, it has done at present.

95696. Is it good water?—Yes, it was examined last, I think, about three weeks ago; we just found a trifle of ammonia in it, but very little.

Drainage.

95697. Where does your drainage go? How do you manage the drainage of the premises?—I drain into a cesspool for all ours; and the overflow runs out the other side of the reservoir.

95698. That is all used for the farm?—Yes.

Water
upply.

95699. No complaint has been made about the supply of water?—None whatever. There was a complaint made two years ago, a letter was sent by one of the inmates, but there has been no complaint lately.

95700. (*Mr. Gardiner.*) Is your supply of water adequate for baths, and things of that sort?—Yes.

95701. (*Mr. Lock.*) One question with regard to the workhouses; was any effort made to get the people out of the workhouse by going through the cases constantly and seeing what could be done outside of the workhouse?—That you had charge of?—No, not at that time.

Mr. John
Clarke
and
Mr. F.
Barnes.

3 Mar. 1908.

Classification

95702. May I take it that you think that unless this institutional work either at Laindon or elsewhere is combined with the consideration of the individual, the system will not really aid us in getting rid of pauperism?—(*Mr. Barnes.*) Not unless they classify them.

95703. Unless they are classified, and you are doing the right thing for each individual?—(*Mr. Clarke.*) If they are not classified it will all sink into a workhouse.

95704. It seemed to me, unless you made great alterations there, you could not get possibly the elements of classification. At present, I understand, you are dealing solely with the unemployed, not with the mixed population you had some time ago?—Yes, that is so.

95705. When you get this boy of seventeen or eighteen, is there any question of his coming before the magistrates?—Not if I could possibly help it. I have never taken a boy like that before the magistrates in my life yet. As soon as you do that he is done for altogether.

Youths.

95706. You propose all kinds of teaching in the place?—Yes.

95707. If you are going to have a teaching staff to have any effect you must keep these men in. I am thinking of these comparatively young people who are in your institution, if you have a teaching arrangement for them and they go in and out at all, your teaching will be valueless because they will not get much of it?—That is so. We find they do not go in and out down at the colony. When they will not allow them to go to the workhouse, they stay at the colony. If they could get inside the workhouse, they would take their discharge.

Instruction.

95708. You would like to keep them at the colony so long as you can help them to be better?—That is so.

Detention in
colony
necessary for
good effect.

95709. Does it not come to this, instead of the possibility of going in and out of the colony, which there now is, if you are to do them any service you must keep them some little time in the colony?—That is what you want, compulsion.

95710. Then it means a different method of admission and a different method of discharge?—Yes. (*Mr. Barnes.*) You must have classification in different colonies, not in one colony.

95711. It is always under the condition that you must hold the man some time, so that you can do some good?—(*Mr. Clarke.*) We say the man should go there for twelve months or six months; the condition of it would be different and the law would be different we presume.

95712. (*Mr. Patten-MacDougall.*) What provision is Medical there at the colony for medical supervision?—We send supervision for Dr. Carter from Billericay, 5 miles away.

95713. Does he come regularly, or is he sent for?—We send a man for him right away if we want him.

95714. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) Does he only come when you send for him?—We always make a rule to send for him every day and twice a day, if we want him. We do not want him to come every day, otherwise, because whenever he comes we always get a certain call to see him. We endeavour to try and kill that kind of thing.

95715. The police complained about you at one time, did they not?—That is so.

Local feeling
against
colony.

95716. Has that ceased?—Yes, there was a lot of feeling attached to that. I think that was proved. (*Mr. Barnes.*) The people living in the neighbourhood rather objected to the existence of the colony.

95717. They rather wanted to get rid of the colony?—That is so. They had an idea that in these quiet country places they did not like these men walking around.

95718. All that is over now?—Yes, we get very little of it now, they are getting used to it.

95719. There were complaints which you referred to, about their going to public-houses, is that still a trouble?—(*Mr. Clarke.*) That is what we have been talking of now. That has not been so up to the present, but we have the

Mr. John
Clarke
and
Mr. F.
Barnes.

unemployed down there now, and we have to test these new men. They have been down a week and I have to test them. I say if they get money no doubt we shall have the difficulty then.

3 Mar. 1908.

95720. You thought it desirable they should have a little money, did you not, by way of reward for good work?—Yes, and good conduct.

Drinking.

95721. Why is that not open to the same objection that they might want to spend it in drink?—It is so small an amount.

95722. At one time you gave them 6d. a week from a voluntary fund?—I did.

95723. Did you find that went in drink?—They had more money than that, too; it was the unemployed principally.

95724. The 6d. was not enough?—No, it only found them in tobacco. A man would not do much with 6d., if he had to find himself in tobacco. They smoke a good deal of tobacco in the open air.

95725. It was not enough?—No.

Discipline.

95726. Gradually have you been able to stiffen up your discipline?—I have never had any difficulty with the discipline except at that time with the drink of the unemployed.

Administra-
on.

95727. I rather meant there by discipline, the arrangements generally. Have you been able to be more strict in your administration?—Yes, we have had more officers since then. At that time there was only myself and one officer besides.

95728. Have the gangers had trouble in the field in looking after the men?—No, except in a few cases that we have turned away.

Dietary.

95729. In the matter of dietary you are much more stringent than you were?—Yes.

95730. It was suggested that when the men first came to you they required a somewhat generous diet in order to put them into a somewhat fair condition. How do you get over that difficulty now?—Some of them have not such large corporations as they had. We have noticed the difference in the corporations in different classes of men. We had some exceptionally large men here. This started on the 6th October, and, of course, they all refused to work on that morning, and I had to deal with them.

Mr. J. BUTEUX SKEGGS, called; and Examined.

Mr. J.
Buteux
Skeggs.

95745. (Chairman.) You are Deputy Town Clerk and Clerk to the Valuation and Rating Department of the Borough of Poplar?—I am.

3 Mar. 1908.

Experience.

95746. You have been kind enough to answer some questions which were sent to you by this Commission, and also to prepare a Statement, if you will kindly hand those in we will treat them as your evidence-in-chief?—Certainly. (Witness handed in the following Document)

Effect of
abolition of
compounding

1. The question of the extra charge upon local rates consequent upon the allowance to owners under the Poor Rate Assessment and Collection Act, 1869, cannot be dealt with fairly without at the same time considering the other causes of increased local rates, such as empty properties, bankruptcies, absconding of the direct payers, and the various other items included in the term "irrecoverable."

2. It is obvious that if the compounding be abolished this item must increase, as the whole of the loss through these causes in the case of compounded properties would be transferred to the column "Irrecoverable."

3. Attached is a Table showing the losses on the collection of rates in the Metropolitan boroughs. (Appendix No. XIII. (A)).

4. It will be seen at once that in boroughs where there is little compounding the percentage of irrecoverable is much higher.

5. In the borough of Lewisham, where there is no compounding at all, the percentage of irrecoverable is 9.33 as against 2.93 in Poplar.

6. I am strongly of opinion that all precept authorities should bear their proportion of the loss of rate.

95731. All that difficulty is over?—Yes. (Mr. Barnes.) We have got to prove yet the unemployed that we have down now. It is a fact that when the diet was reduced we had all pauper labourers down there, and they did not work at the same pressure as the men had worked previously under better dieting. As to whether the unemployed that we have now will be able to work on the diet we have now, as to whether it is sufficiently good for them, has to be proved.

95732. At the time of the reduction had you only paupers?—Only workhouse men.

95733. When you take in what you call the unemployed, do they come to you straight or from the workhouse?—(Mr. Clarke.) They come straight to us.

95734. On an order from the relieving officer?—Yes.

95735. So that they never go into the Poplar Workhouse itself?—There are some of them who have been in the Poplar Workhouse. There are some that I know have been there.

95736. They did not come direct?—No.

95737. They may have been in previously, you mean?—Yes.

95738. (Mr. Gardiner.) You used the work "unemployable" to describe some of the people you took. Will you tell me what you mean by that exactly?—I mean a man that if you find him work he would not work.

95739. Is that due to moral or mental failure?—Both.

95740. Do you think he is not quite all there?—You would not call him unemployable if he was mentally unfit; he must be morally and mentally unfit before you can call him that.

95741. How many of these men you have had down are unemployable?—A few; they are only physically fit for work.

95742. Their being unemployable is the result of moral failure?—Of their own character.

95743. And not mental?—(Mr. Barnes.) Physically, morally and mentally, too.

95744. Some of them are not quite sane, are they?—No, they are not.

7. The rate required for the central authorities (London County Council for county and education purposes, Metropolitan Asylums Board, Metropolitan Police, and the Central Unemployed Body) for the year 1906-7 on the rateable value of London was 5-1-478 in the £.

8. To obtain this rate the Borough Councils had to levy rates varying from 5-0-68 in Paddington, to 5-10-02 in part of Stepney, and 5-11-23 in the Bromley parish of Poplar (Poplar's average being 5-10-30), the difference, of course, being caused by the fluctuation in the losses in the various boroughs.

9. Had these central authorities borne their proportion of the loss on the collection of the rates levied for these purposes, an equal rate would have been levied of 5-5-53, an increase of 485 in Paddington, and a decrease of 570 in the Bromley Parish of Poplar.

10. In this suggestion I am only dealing with the central rates, which surely should be the same in all London, and not with rates raised for local purposes, which might be open to argument as to the local needs or local policy of the governing bodies.

11. With regard to the Poor Rate Assessment and Collection Act, I think an amendment of that Act very desirable.

12. I believe the rating authority should, at all events in a borough like Poplar, have the power as at present to compulsorily rate the owners of small properties, instead of the occupiers, as provided by Section 4 of the Act, but that the allowance to the owner of 15 per cent. merely for acting as the agent is far too much. I think 5 per cent. for this purpose would be ample, and a further allowance of not exceeding

Percentage
of irrecover-
able higher
in boroughs
where there
is little com-
pounding.

Effect of
equalisation
of loss in
collection of
equalisation
of central
rates.

Compulsory
ag
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duction
allowance

Compulsory 15 per cent. made as now on the owner agreeing to pay the rates whether the hereditament be occupied or not.

13. In many cases now the owner refuses to agree to pay full or empty, finding it more profitable to deduct the proportion of empties from the gross rate, and then have the allowance of 15 per cent. for paying instead of the tenant.

14. A notable example is the London County Council, who declined to pay "full or empty" in respect of their tenements, with the following result:—

15. The gross rate on these tenements for the current year amounts to - £2,051 17 0
The allowance had the compounding agreement been in force would have been 25 per cent. - 512 19 3

Amount payable - - £1,538 17 9

16. The L.C.C. deducted from the gross rate of £2,051 17s. the proportion in respect of empty tenements, and received the 15 per cent. allowance on the rate payable, with the result that the amount actually paid was £1,316 13s. 11d. Had the allowance been only 5 per cent. the amount payable would have been £1,528 9s. 11d., in which case there would have been no great inducement to the L.C.C. to refuse to compound.

17. I am also of opinion that the maximum rateable value under the Act is too high. I do not think it was ever intended that a house let at 16s. per week should come within the Act.

18. Briefly, then, I would suggest that the law should be amended—

(a) To make the central spending authorities bear the loss on the collection of their portion of the rate.

(b) To reduce the maximum rateable value under Section 3 of the Poor Rate Assessment and Collection Act, 1869, to £15, and the compulsory allowance to the owner under Section 4, Sub-section 1 of the same Act to 5 per cent.

(See Appendix No. XIII. (B).)

Question I.—Is composition by owners for the payment of rates the rule in your district?

Answer I.—Yes. Section 4 of the Poor Rate and Collection Act, 1869, is in force in this borough, whereby the owners of all houses rated at and under £20 are liable for payment of the rates instead of the occupiers.

Question II.—Is the direct payment by occupiers (a) possible, (b) advisable. If in your opinion it is impossible, would you kindly say on what ground?

Answer II.—In my opinion in a borough such as Poplar the direct payment by the occupier of the small weekly let hereditament is practically impossible.

There were at the last Quinquennial Valuation of the borough in 1905, 24,667 assessments classified as follows:—

Direct payment by occupiers practically impossible where large number of small weekly lettings.

Docks - - - - -	3
Railways - - - - -	20
Gas, water, and other public companies - - -	29
Government properties - - - - -	9
Municipal buildings - - - - -	71
Factories - - - - -	447
Sheds, stables, workshops, etc. - - - - -	612
Licensed houses - - - - -	351
Houses and shops over £20 rateable value -	3,259
Houses rated at and under £20 - - - - -	19,866
	24,667

There are at the present time 19,283 separate assessments the subject of compounding agreements, and of these 1,230 represent the artisan or block dwellings, and 18,053 in respect of ordinary dwelling houses, the vast majority of which are occupied by more than one family.

These, too, consist of two classes:—

(a) Those let by the landlord to two or more families, the rents being paid by each direct to the landlord or his agent.

(b) Those let by the landlord directly to one tenant who sublets a portion to lodgers.

The following table gives the number:—

Assessment.	Weekly Rental.	Number of Houses.
Not exceeding £5.	4s. and under.	247
£6 and up to £10.	4s. 6d. to 8s.	4,268
£11 and up to £15	8s. 6d. to 12s.	2,460
£16.	12s. 6d.	1,051
£17.	13s. 0d.	1,755
£18.	13s. 6d.	618
£19.	14s. and 14s. 6d.	1,166
£20.	15s. and 15s. 6d.	718
		19,283

Mr. J. Butcher Skeggs.
3 Mar. 1908.

There are 3,124 compounding agreements with the landlords or agents in respect of these hereditaments.

Dealing with the compounded houses, other than artisans' dwellings, I believe if the rates had to be collected direct from the occupier the number of assessments, now 18,053, would at least be double, and the collection of the rate from 36,100 or more ratepayers, either quarterly or weekly, would be quite impossible.

Question III.—Do variations in the rates affect rents where composition is the rule?

Effect of variations in rates on rent.

Answer III.—To an extent, yes; but speaking generally, I believe the rents depend largely upon the demand for houses. At the present time with the rates increasing, rents are showing a downward tendency. There have been 487 appeals against assessments of this class of hereditament solely on account of reduction of rents during the past twelve months.

Question IV.—Can you trace any effect of the direct payment of rates by occupiers on the interest they take in local government; and what attitude do the occupiers of small properties take towards local government when they do not pay the rates directly?

Answer IV.—My experience goes to show that to a very large extent the interest taken in local government depends upon the work of the various associations (political, trade union, and ratepayers) interested in the question.

Interest in local government not affected by direct payment of rates.

Question V.—Have you any experience of a weekly collection of rates from occupiers? Would such be possible?

Answer V.—I have had no experience of a weekly collection of rates from occupiers, and having regard to the number of the hereditaments of this class, and of the migratory character of the occupiers, I am quite certain such a system would be impracticable if not impossible.

Weekly collection of rates impracticable.

Question VI.—Assuming a weekly collection, would the cost be greater than the allowance now made for compounding?

Answer VI.—The cost of collecting would, of course, be infinitely greater than now, and, in addition, there would be the loss on empties, bad debts, runs, and a probably permanent increase in the item of recoverable arrears; so that the probability is that the percentage of loss would be as great or greater than under the compounding system if amended, as I will suggest in a Memorandum accompanying these answers. (See Appendix No. XIII. (A).)

Proportion of loss on weekly collection.

Question VII.—Has the system of compounding any effect upon the value for rating purposes of the property compounded for?

Answer VII.—Certainly not. The Valuation Metropolitan Act, 1869, is very clear in its definition of gross and rateable value, viz.:

Compounding has no effect on value for rating purposes.

"The term 'gross value' means the annual rent which a tenant might reasonably be expected, taking one year with another, to pay for an here-

Mr. J.
Buteux
Skeggs.

3 Mar. 1908.

Compound-
ing has no
effect on
value for
rating
purposes.

ditament, if the tenant undertook to pay all usual tenant's rates and taxes, and tithe commutation rent charge, if any, and if the landlord undertook to bear the cost of repairs and insurance, and the other expenses, if any, necessary to maintain the hereditament in a state to command that rent."

"The term 'rateable value' means the gross value after deducting therefrom the probable annual average cost of the repairs, insurance, and other expenses as aforesaid."

In arriving at the yearly rental in this class of property the Court of Quarter Sessions decided (in a Poplar case) that the sum which would have been paid yearly for a 10s. weekly let house was not fifty-two times 10s., but something less than that, and the late Mr. McConnell determined the amount of difference between the amount actually receivable and the amount which would have been received had the house been let yearly as 7 per cent., and upon this assumption the gross and rateable value of the 10s. house in Poplar at the time of this appeal was determined as follows:—

	£	s.	d.
Weekly rent at 10s. - - - -	26	0	0
Less 7 per cent. for converting this weekly rent into a hypothetical yearly tenancy	1	16	6
Yearly rental - - - -	24	3	6
Less Parochial Rates at 12s. in the £ on £12 - - - -	£	s.	d.
	7	4	0
Water Rate - - - -	12	0	
	7	16	0
Gross value - - - -	16	7	6
Statutory deduction $\frac{1}{4}$ - - - -	4	1	10
Rateable value - - - -	12	5	8

The Assessment therefore being determined at £16 Gross, £12 Rateable.

No allowance
for payment
in advance.

Question VIII.—In the event of occupiers paying their rates direct, should an allowance be given for payment in advance?

Answer VIII.—I think not.

Question IX.—Does the practice of demanding payment of rates considerably in advance tell unduly on occupiers paying direct?

Demand in
advance.

Answer IX.—Rates are not now collected considerably in advance. In this borough the rates are made and collected quarterly, and it is half way through the quarter before the rate actually begins to be paid. It is not till the second week of the third month of the quarter that pressure is brought to bear in the shape of summonses.

The present direct payer of rates has practically a set time each quarter when he pays. Some of the big firms and companies invariably pay early in the quarter, but whether early or late, the direct payer knows he has to pay rates four times in the year and arranges accordingly.

Direct pay-
ment by
small weekly
occupiers.

95747. (Chairman.) I will take you through certain of your answers because you may wish to amplify them. I see from your answer to Question 2, your opinion is that the direct payment by occupiers of small weekly hereditaments is practically impossible, and you show what a very large proportion of them there are rated at or under £20. Were you looking at this rather from the official point of view as to the collection of rates through the rate collectors?—Yes, to a great extent.

95748. I can quite understand the objections there would be to an attempt to collect the rates weekly through the existing organisation of rate collectors, but might it not be possible to collect the rates weekly if they were associated with the payment of rent?—I do not think so.

Utilising rent
collectors.

95749. Utilising the rent collectors for the purpose of collecting the rates also?—Then for this class you would have 3,000 rate collectors in a borough like Poplar.

95750. The majority of those who are employed by the landlords are responsible persons?—Yes.

95751. Would it not be possible to utilise them?—Yes, but you would have to pay them for collecting, and you would have to have your collectors for direct payers.

95752. If it was only tacked on to the collection of rent the commission would be a very small one?—You would have the other point, that what you gain by the reduction of the present commission you would lose on empties and so on.

95753. Taking first the question of machinery it would be in your judgment, I assume, impossible to collect through the existing machinery?—Supposing you paid 5 per cent., then your commission would practically be one-fifth of what it is now.

95754. Shall we take the machinery first, then we will come to the commission. It would be impossible, without an enormous increase in the existing rate collectors for the borough, to collect?—That is so.

95755. What are the difficulties of collecting through the landlords whose rents are paid weekly?—I take it in the bulk of cases the agent who collects weekly only accounts to his principal quarterly; that is one difficulty, we want money from time to time during the quarter; we could not wait a quarter. That might be got over. Then the agent who now collects the rent at 5 per cent. collects the rent, probably, at 5 per cent. because he is also a builder and repairer, and he is making money in the repairs to the houses.

95756. Are those largely the class of persons who are employed as agents?—I think every agent is a builder, and what he does not make in the collection of rent he makes by his profit on repairs.

95757. A difficulty that occurs to one is that if the collection of public money was entrusted to an individual, he would have to give some guarantee?—Yes.

95758. That is a difficulty which could be got over probably?—Yes, but what could not be got over is that you would have 3,000 accounts in your office. You are bound to have at least 3,000 accounts with these men who are collecting money for you. Therefore, you are going to infinitely add to your clerical work.

95759. You have 19,000 houses rated at under £20?—Yes.

95760. You would have a separate account for each one of them?—I do not mean in that way, I am dealing with the rent collector now who collects in account with his employer; you would give him so much to collect, and he would have to account for that, and you would open in your ledger account, 3,000 accounts with these collectors.

95761. Should you say that the number of houses rated at and below £20 in Poplar is abnormally large, or is it about the normal number there would be in an East End constituency?—I do not think there is any borough in the County of London with the same proportion, or anything like it.

95762. Having dealt with machinery, we will now come to the allowance. What is it at present?—At present we are under Section 4 giving a commission of 15 per cent., and 10 per cent. on agreeing to pay full or empty, that is 25 per cent.

95763. The majority of the landowners accept that; they pay full or empty, and get 25 per cent.?—Yes.

95764. You think that the loss, if the rates were directly collected weekly from the occupiers, would be as much as the 25 per cent.?—I think so.

95765. You have a considerable number of empties in Poplar?—Yes; it is not only in empties that we should lose.

95766. How else would you lose; the occupier might move?—Not only that, he might not pay you, and have nothing there that you could take.

95767. And the legal process by which you distrain is cumbersome?—Yes, it takes us three weeks.

95768. The landlord can do it immediately?—Yes.

95769. As regards interest, you do not think the direct collection would increase the interest of the occupier?—I think not. I do not see much interest unless the interest is made by somebody else.

95770. You think the interest largely depends on the action of the various associations?—Yes.

95771. Of course, every now and then there may be a question?—Yes, it may get acute.

95772. What is your experience? If a local question is at all acute, is it fought on its merits, or is it generally taken up by the different political associations?—My own opinion is you would have difficulty in getting men to stand for these positions but for your local associations, political or otherwise.

95773. Beyond that there is no machinery behind to help the man to stand?—No.

95774. There is a certain expense, and the certainty of a great deal of physical effort required?—Yes.

95775. In Paragraph 5 of your Memorandum you say where there is no compounding the percentage of irrecoverables is much higher?—Yes.

95776. You put the percentage of irrecoverable against the commission of 25 per cent. I suppose?—Yes, I take the total loss. In Appendix A. you will see that Lewisham's loss is only in one column, 9.33. You get the total loss in each other borough from irrecoverable and owners. It is obvious if you have no allowance to owners then that class of property has to bear its proportion of empties.

95777. There are only two whose total loss is in excess of that of Lewisham. One is Poplar and the other is Wandsworth?—And Bethnal Green; there are three.

95778. I suppose "irrecoverable" means empties?—Everything; empties, bankruptcy and so on.

95779. The great mass will be empties?—Yes, the bulk would be empties.

95780. What is the first column "owners"?—That is the allowance to owners either under Section 3 or Section 4.

95781. The allowance to owners in Poplar and Bethnal Green is very high?—They are both under the same section of the Act, with the same allowance of fifteen and ten, making together 25 per cent.

95782. Take Stepney, how do you account for Stepney? It would be under the same Act, would it not?—Stepney is under Section 3; and they fix their minimum rateable value at £15, and allow not exceeding 20 per cent. on it. Then in Stepney you do not get the same number of small houses occupied as in Poplar or Bethnal Green.

95783. You think that the present method is the most economical method, or the method by which the least loss on the total collection can be made?—I think so absolutely.

95784. (Mr. Loch.) Has the rateable value or assessable value of Poplar risen or fallen of late years?—It has increased a little. I have it here from 1875.

95785. Would you take a figure at the beginning, the middle and the end?—In 1885 it was £714,834; in 1895, £707,872 (it went down a little); in 1905, £818,944.

95786. It has gone pretty steadily?—Yes.

95787. Have the rents gone up steadily?—Not to an alarming extent. I have taken out three streets, one in each parish, as typical streets. In Hind Street in Poplar I found houses let there at 10s. 6d. in 1890 are now 12s. and 12s. 6d. In Monier Road at Bow I find a house that was 7s. 6d. in 1885, 7s. 6d. in 1895; 8s. 6d. in 1900 is 9s. 6d. in 1905. There is a 2s. increase there. Then we come to Brabazon Street in Bromley. A house there which was 9s. in 1885 is now 10s. (See Appendix No. XIII. (C).)

95788. That is fairly typical?—Of this class of property.

95789. The Bromley property does not tend to rise so much as the other?—No.

95790. Have there been complaints made of the rise in rents?—Yes.

95791. Are there many empties in the place?—Yes, a tremendous number.

95792. On the empties no rates are paid?—Yes, because they are compounded; we get no loss on those; we do not know of the empties through the rate-book.

95793. You say that practically there is no interest taken in the rating by the people?—No interest taken in the local elections except such interest as is brought about by the action of the different societies.

95794. Individually there are few complaints of assessments, or anything of that kind?—We get plenty of complaints of assessments.

95795. That is from the owners?—From the owners to an extent, and from the direct payers.

95796. Do those complaints increase?—No, they are pretty steady. Rents are going down to-day, there is no doubt about that, there is not the demand for the houses, there are so many empty.

95797. The number of empties is now expressing itself in figures?—Yes.

95798. So there is what might lead to a lower assessable value?—That is so.

95799. Is the lower assessable value shown at all?—Assessable Yes, a house let at 10s. in 1885 was assessed at £15; to-day it is assessed at £13 or £12.

95800. (Miss Hill.) That is because the rate is high?—Yes, the rate governs it, of course.

95801. (Mr. Loch.) And the rates tend to rise?—Yes, the rates are rising again now; they came down considerably.

95802. Therefore the position of Poplar is less satisfactory in the sense that the property has been depreciated while the rates are rising?—To an extent it may be, but there is not the demand probably for houses to-day, there is not the work there nor the necessity for the people to live there.

95803. That is an explanation of it?—Yes.

95804. What is your method of collection, is it very economical?—Yes, I think so.

95805. You do most of your work through the owners?—Of this class of property. The rateable value of this property is only £230,000 out of £830,000.

95806. With regard to the rest of the property, do you have much trouble?—Very little.

95807. Might I say that all your trouble almost is in this lower class?—We have no trouble at all in collecting the rates, I think you will find as far as recoverable arrears are concerned we are practically the lowest borough in London in each year.

95808. Have you found in any exaggerated way, so that you can trace it as cause and effect, that rents have risen as the rates have risen?—I do not think they have. I think this statement shows it.

95809. That is to say both have risen, but not equally?—Not equally. The landlord of a 10s. house in 1885 was paying £3 rates, to-day he is paying £5, although he has got the lesser assessment.

95810. That is to say, simultaneously with the decrease in demand?—That is so.

95811. So that he could not draw his rate from the occupier?—No.

95812. Is there any exception taken to the largeness of the Poor Rate? They do not know of the Poor Rate as a Poor Rate, do they?—In Poplar they get the one rate.

95813. If they did know the Poor Rate, would it make any difference?—To the direct payer probably, but the occupier would not know anything about it.

95814. Does the occupier know anything about the rates now?—Not the occupier of compounded property.

95815. Yet he is the person who is most chargeable to the rates?—Yes.

95816. Have you ever thought of it educationally as a possibility that if they pay direct, even out of small wages, it would make a difference to them?—I do not think so.

95817. Why do you not think so, if they found that they themselves were paying for themselves, and it was a distinct tax on them, you think it would make no difference as to whether a rate was increased or not? I take it this way, that the poor look after the poor, and if the man next door is getting relief out of it and his neighbour thinks he is justified, I do not think it would make much difference to him, he would pay his share and grin and bear it, even if he paid directly. I do not think you would affect them in that way. They might all be on the list for relief themselves at some time or other.

95818. If they had the rates before them they would see a great deal was going other than what their neighbour

Mr. J. Buteux Skeggs.

Mar. 1908.

Position of Poplar.

Lowest proportion of recoverable arrears.

No relation between rise of rents and rise of rates.

Small occupiers know nothing of rates.

Educational effect of direct payment.

Mr. J.
Buteux
Skeggs.

3 Mar. 1908.

got ?—They might ; I am not going to criticise the policy.

95819. No, but we want suggestions. At any rate, except those who are owners of larger property above this level, there is no basis of criticism in the hands of those who pay the rates ?—No.

95820. Or on whose behalf they are paid ?—No, they know nothing about the rates directly.

95821. Therefore, to that extent, they are not citizens ?—No.

95822. A great deal has been talked about the duties of citizenship. I suppose you have societies for improving things. Has this question ever been discussed in that relation ?—I do not know. I do not go to the meetings of those societies. You had better ask Mr. Lansbury.

95823. You have a society in Poplar for looking after the rates and so on, some sort of association ?—We have two or three ; do you mean the Municipal Alliance ?

95824. Yes.—They give lectures, but their audience is of the shopkeeper class and those who belong to them.

95825. That is to say, the opposition is from the small shopkeepers far above this level ?—The man who feels it most is the small shopkeeper.

95826. Is he represented on the board largely ?—No, not to any great extent.

95827. Is he represented on the council largely ?—There are one or two, but not to any great extent.

95828. Those who are feeling it most are not represented ?—Not to any extent.

95829. And those on whose behalf it is incurred do not know anything about it ?—No, not officially.

95830. It is paid in rent, I understand, and they do not concern themselves ?—That is so, they know nothing about it ; they never see a demand note.

95831. Do you think that is a condition under which local government can be well conducted financially ?—It would be perhaps advantageous to let them know, if you can suggest a means of doing it. I have heard of all sorts of suggestions : the rent card and the division of rent into actual rent and rates.

95832. How is it that the shopkeeper class is so little represented ?—To an extent, I suppose they cannot give the time, some of them, but they are in a minority, and they would not get much chance unless they belonged to one or other of the associations.

95833. The associations represent some other classes ; they do not represent the recipients of relief, I believe ?—No.

95834. Nor do they represent the shopkeeper class ?—No.

95835. Whom do they represent ?—You get your different trade unions, and you get your political associations which take an interest.

95836. The only people represented are trade unions and political associations ?—And the new body, the Municipal Alliance, which is supposed to represent neither.

95837. Is the Municipal Alliance largely represented now ?—Yes.

95838. To what extent ?—On the borough council they are in the majority.

95839. And on the guardians ?—Only about one-third, I think.

95840. In fact, the representation of the place depends upon, shall we call it, the warring associations within the place ?—That is so, absolutely.

95841. Are these people who are brought on paid for. Do they have their expenses paid ?—Not to my knowledge.

95842. Their election expenses ?—Yes, they have a common fund for election expenses.

95843. Practically, it is those who are financed who get on ?—So far as the cost of election is concerned.

95844. Are there any that get on whose election expenses are not paid ?—I daresay ; independent men have got on.

95845. Here and there one ?—Yes.

95846. Do you think that is a good condition of things ?—I do not know how you are going to alter it. They are looked upon as sort of dress rehearsals for other bigger elections.

95847. Can you say that Poplar itself is represented where the representation is in the hands of associations solely ?—You get all classes of men on the borough council at all events.

95848. You do not have tradesmen apparently ?—You have tradesmen.

95849. Are there many ; I understood you to say there are few ?—Few in proportion, but you have them. You have a shipowner and a large manufacturer, tradesmen, school masters and labouring men. Everybody is represented on the borough council.

95850. But on condition mainly that they are not in a position to pay for their election expenses ?—I do not say that ; plenty of them could pay for their own, but if they run in groups of an association, I think their expenses are pooled. I think some of them pay more than their share.

95851. It is done co-operatively ?—Exactly.

95852. (Miss Hill.) Are you well acquainted with any districts where there is direct payment of rates by the smaller occupiers ?—I do not think there is one in London.

95853. Then you are not in a position to say what amount of interest might be created if it were possible to collect direct from the small occupiers ?—No.

95854. You would expect that there would be a good deal of interest, would you not ?—I do not think so.

95855. Not if their rates went up or down ?—I do not think so. I have seen rates go up and down for the past thirty years, and the ordinary intelligent man has taken no practical interest all through that period, and having that in mind I do not think the others would.

95856. Really ?—That is so.

95857. Of course, a small rise in rates or a small fall in rates matters less to a man the larger owner he is, but, of course, 1d. in the £ means a good deal to the smaller owners ?—Yes.

95858. But you really do not know any district where there are any small occupiers who pay direct ?—I do not think you will find that in London.

95859. I know one or two where they are, and the interest is very great. I was asking if you knew. You say it would be impossible to have a collection by the local authority with the rent. That means, I suppose, you think it would be essential for it to be successful that it should be done fortnightly ?—Fortnightly or weekly you would have to make it.

95860. Do you know what amount is paid by owners for collecting rents ?—I have known as low as 2½ per cent. paid.

95861. But it is more often 5 per cent., is it not ?—Generally 5 per cent.

95862. And the allowance made to owners for direct payment is 15 per cent. ?—Yes, merely as commission.

95863. Leaving out of account whether they are paying, whether full or empty ?—That is so.

95864. That is three times the amount which is paid for collecting rents ?—Yes, that is absolutely wrong.

95865. Is it not very much a question of how many collectors the local authority would think it worth while to put on ?—Yes.

95866. Because three times the amount would certainly pay for the expense of direct collection ?—I agree, but you must not lose sight of the other fact of the empties coming in which do not come in now.

95867. At the same time you have 15 per cent. to go on with ?—For this purpose, I quite agree.

95868. You would get a very large quantity of property all contiguous so that it would pay a collector to go there although the sums were small ?—You would want a large number of collectors, would you not ?

95869. You would ; but then you would get a large amount of money. 15 per cent. on these 19,000 houses would come to a good deal, would it not ?—Yes, the 25 per cent. came to, when we were 12s. in the £, roughly, £36,000.

"Municipal
Alliance."

Small
shopkeeper
not largely
represented
on board
or council.

Ignorance
of small
occupiers
as to rates.

Associations.

Representa-
tion of
Municipal
Alliance on
board and
council.

Election
expenses.

Occupations
of borough
councilors.

Direct
payment by
small
occupiers—
effect on
interest in
local
government.

Commission
paid
collecting
rent.

Allowance to
owner for
direct
payment.

95870. If you have a large number of empties in Poplar at present, that will complicate the question, but at the same time three times the amount would go a long way in meeting the loss?—I am quite with you on that.

95871. I should think you would get the rates collected at 5 per cent, would you not?—I think so.

95872. Then you would have 10 per cent. towards the empties and loss?—I agree, and the 10 per cent. plus your present 10 per cent. for empties and loss would not, in my opinion, make up for the empties and loss. It is not merely empties.

95873. At the same time the losses would be much smaller, because they were collected fortnightly, would they not. It looks as if it paid the landlord, therefore I do not see why it should not pay the local authority?—It might pay the local authority but not when you take the other point in.

95874. (*Mr. Lock.*) If empties were charged it would?—But empties are not charged.

95875. (*Miss Hill.*) It is complicated very much, especially at this moment when the empties in London are so very considerable. They are considerable in many parts of London as well as Poplar?—Yes.

95876. (*Mr. Gardiner.*) You have no first hand experience of this municipal alliance system, have you?—No, I have seen their rent cards.

95877. So you could not tell us of what value it is?—No, I could only tell you that nobody adopts them in Poplar. None of their own members, except, I think, the dock company. Practically none of their own members adopt them.

95878. (*Mr. Lock.*) Those who are owners of property?—Yes, the dock company do use them; they come to me every quarter to fix their sliding scale of rents.

95879. You are sure of that?—Practically; there may be one or two, but they never come to me, to alter their rate for their card, although the dock company do each quarter.

95880. (*Mr. Gardiner.*) Do you know how long this card system has been introduced?—I saw it two years ago.

95881. It has the approval of the alliance, as an organisation, behind it?—Yes, they issued it.

95882. Therefore, you imagine if people thought well of it who are members of the association, they would make use of it?—I should think so. It has its advantages. I approve of the card in some respects.

95883. It is not introduced by many people even who are members of the alliance?—That is so.

95884. (*Mr. Phelps.*) How often are the assessments in London revised?—Every five years.

95885. By whom?—By the rating authority.

95886. What is their method of procedure?—You get a return from the occupier of each hereditament and from that return with the knowledge of the way you work the assessment, the assessment is fixed.

95887. Is the assessment authority composed of people familiar with the locality?—Yes, it is the borough council; in London the borough councils are the overseers.

95888. In Poplar have you many large owners of houses of the class of which we are talking—owners of a large number?—Yes.

95889. What is the largest number of houses of that kind that a single owner would have?—I could not say.

95890. Roughly?—We have a single agent, but for more than one owner, who pays us £1,200 a year.

95891. In rates?—Yes.

95892. That is one rate collector or agent?—One agent.

95893. Do you know how many properties he represents?—No; I could tell you.

95894. Would it make a great difference in that way if it were collected from the occupier instead of from the owner?—There are 3,124 agents paying their rates, whether for 1, 50, or 200 houses. That is the number of agents to-day paying their rates for this class of property.

95895. You think that the movements in the rates are almost all to be explained by the increase or falling off in the demand for houses?—Not always, because to-day rates are going up, and the rents are coming down.

95896. I was not quite sure which was cause and which was effect to your mind?—I think it is the demand for houses. If houses are empty, landlords will take what they can get without studying rates.

95897. The rents having gone down, the rate in the £ has to go up?—Not necessarily, because your assessment will come down.

95898. Would that not be the same thing?—No.

95899. If you want to raise the same sum and the assessment goes down, and the rent goes down, you must raise the amount in the £?—Yes.

95900. Which do you think is cause and effect; you think the rise in the rates is really largely due to the fall in rents?—Yes, that may affect it.

95901. Do you think that it works the other way also, that the rise in the rates has increased the number of empties?—To an extent, but not to any great extent.

95902. You think it is much more due to the want of demand for houses?—Take a typical instance such as I have given you, there is only a difference of 2s. in the rent between then and to-day.

95903. Supposing for the sake of argument the rates went up for a single year 50 per cent., how long would that be before it affected the rents?—I should think that would affect them at once.

95904. What kind of tenure are your small houses let on?—Weekly.

95905. You think they would move at once?—Yes.

95906. What rise in rates would affect the rents?—We went up more than 2s. in one year, and that had not much effect, but I have got a year in my mind where there was every probability of the rates keeping on the increase, two years after a quinquennial, when I found 3,000 of these houses increased in rent.

95907. You attribute that largely to the increase in the rates?—Yes, at that time, and it looked as though the rates were permanently going up.

95908. It would take some time before an ordinary rise in rates reacted on rents?—Yes.

95909. So far you think the occupier is independent of the rise in the rates?—Yes.

95910. You could not give us any idea when his interest would begin to be stirred in the administration of the borough?—No, I should not like to hazard a guess.

95911. Are many of these agents you speak of represented on the borough council?—No.

95912. Or the board of guardians?—No, not to any extent.

95913. Not at all?—Not to any extent.

95914. Or the owners of the house property?—There are some owners, but very few.

95915. They are not a large class in local government?—No.

95916. (*Mr. Bentham.*) I suppose the people who are dissatisfied with their rateable value will appeal to the appeals assessment committee of the borough council?—Yes.

95917. Then the assessment may be rectified?—Yes.

95918. Including the current rate?—Not for the present rate—for the coming rate. I contend that an alteration in rent is a structural alteration within the meaning of the Valuation (Metropolis) Act. We do not alter the rate itself in London, we do it by provisional lists.

95919. On what date is the first rate in the year made?—The rates are made quarterly in Poplar, for instance, therefore we make a provisional list each quarter. We make that provisional list as late as the day before the making of the rate, so that every hereditament included in the provisional list affects the next rate.

95920. Affects the next quarter?—Yes, the coming quarter.

Mr. J. Buteux Skeggs.

3 Mar. 1908.

Relation between fluctuations in rates and in demand for houses.

Relation between fluctuations in rent and in rates.

Representation of owners and agents on borough council.

Mr. J.
Buteux
Skeggs.

3 Mar. 1908.

95921. So that with an increase of rates it would be possible to get down the assessment of property in three quarters of the year, but not in the first quarter?—That is so.

95922. So that the whole of the increase of rates would not fall upon the owner of the property; in consequence of the rates going up and the expenses being higher, he is entitled to a lower assessment?—Certainly.

Incidence of increase in rate. 95923. So that part of it is shifted from the owner of the property, because he gets his rateable value reduced?—That is so.

95924. Therefore the whole increase in the rate does not fall on the owner?—No.

95925. It is spread over the whole of the ratepayers of the borough?—Yes.

95926. You do not know by what proportion the rateable value is lowered when there is an increase of 1s. in the rates?—No.

Effect of increase of rates on rateable value.

95927. Would it affect the owner one-half the increase or decrease, as the case may be?—That would want thinking about. I do not altogether follow you. Notwithstanding the reductions, the rateable value of the borough goes up practically year by year, because you get other classes of property which increase.

95928. What goes up?—The rateable value of the whole borough, so that that point would not apply.

95929. It would not apply in this sense, that it would require an additional rate in order to raise the same sum, because the rateable value is going up with the new and added property?—Yes.

95930. A particular owner of property is relieved to the extent practically of one-half of the increase?—Would it be a half; I should doubt it.

95931. He is affected to the extent of half of either the increase or decrease?—Yes, he is to an extent.

Compound-
ing.

95932. (*Miss Hill.*) You have no power to compel the owner to pay full or empty?—No.

95933. And the number of empty houses is increasing?—Yes.

95934. It is quite possible that owners may be giving notice to determine?—They are doing so.

95935. Then the two questions of the collection of the rate and the allowance for full and empty will be separated?—Yes.

Difficulties
in direct
collection.

95936. In that case, do you see any difficulty in the net collection of rates?—Only the difficulty that I express of the class of people you have to collect from, and the trouble at the end of the quarter to get it within the quarter. You will always have a lot of recoverable arrears. I do not think you can point to a landlord in Poplar who has not arrears.

95937. You have 15 per cent. for collection and arrears?—Yes.

Assessment
appeals.

95938. (*Mr. Bentham.*) How many appeals against assessment would be heard in the course of a year?—There were 497 last year out of the 19,000.

Recovery of
rent more
summary
than
recovery of
rates.

95939. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) Comparing the recovery of rates and the recovery of rent, is the process for the recovery of rent more summary and more easy than the recovery of rates?—Yes, the landlord simply takes a broker with him and puts him in.

95940. (*Miss Hill.*) Many of the people have not anything to take; so it is much the same thing?—That is my trouble.

Procedure in
recovery of
rates.

95941. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) Will you tell the Commission what is the process for the recovery of rates?—You make your demand, then your second demand at the end of a month, we will say, the following week you would issue summonses, those are returnable in a week, they are heard, and seven days is given by the justices. At the end of that seven days you get a warrant executed and you hand that over to your broker.

95942. Supposing you want to recover a rate from a man who had only got a weekly tenancy, that system would break down, would it not?—Absolutely, the man would be gone.

95943. How quickly do you think in a case of that kind you could recover a rate; you are not obliged to wait till the end of the month?—You can summon the day after a rate is made.

95944. But you must give notice?—Certainly.

95945. How long do you think therefore after you have made your demand for your rate and have not got it, you could recover?—You could not recover within a month.

Length of
time required
for recovery
of rate

95946. According to your present plan, but could not that be more speedy?—Only by an alteration of the law. If you are going to collect weekly you would want the same power as a landlord.

95947. We want to bring that out. We have not quite got to that yet. You are not obliged to give a month?—It takes a month from the time you start. You are bound to serve him with a notice, you give him a week. Then you serve him with a summons, that is returnable in seven days, then the justices will give him another seven days, so you have got the three weeks before you hand it over to the broker.

95948. It is in the discretion of the justices whether they will give seven days?—They can make an immediate order, but they never do.

Summary
order of
justice

95949. Do you think they would make an immediate order if you showed cause?—If you thought the man was off they would do it.

95950. The justices will give you that?—Yes, and then you would go and find nothing there.

95951. Is that one of your fears in enforcing a system such as has been suggested of recovering the rates practically with the rent?—Yes, and also the other fact that a vast number of the occupiers of this class of tenement would have nothing to take when you got there.

95952. But that is the same with the rent; you would not be worse off than the landlord then, would you?—No, but a man who would try and pay his rent would try and dodge out of the rates if he could.

95953. You think he would prefer to pay his rent rather than his rates?—Yes, he wants to have a roof over his head.

95954. You say you would require a large number of collectors if you collected weekly?—Yes.

Increase
in collectors
and office
work for
weekly
collection

95955. Apart from the salary to be paid to the collector, have you considered what would be the amount of office work that would be involved?—Yes, it would increase everything, as I said just now. Supposing you made all their agents your rate collectors, you have got to open a ledger account with each.

95956. Can you give any estimate of what would be the cost of that? Have you formed any estimate of it in your own mind?—No, I should like to work it for a quarter to see. I should not like to suggest. You have so many difficulties. You have to give a receipt for rates whether they are paid quarterly or monthly. You could not enter it in a book.

95957. You must have a receipt check book?—Yes.

95958. Are those checked in the town clerk's department?—In my department.

95959. You would require additional persons to check those?—Yes.

95960. You would want an additional staff?—Yes.

95961. There again have you formed any notion in your own mind what that would involve?—You have to check now the allowance for empties for the direct payer. I have three clerks to check that. You can imagine what it would be if you have to check the allowances for empties for another 36,000 assessments, and probably more.

95962. It would involve a considerable increase in your own staff?—Yes, and books, and everything.

95963. Are you familiar with the system which prevails outside London under the Public Health Act?—No.

System
rating
outside
London.

95964. Under that Act it is optional with the local authority, not as it is in London, where, if you make an Order at all it applies to everybody who comes within the section: they may select particular people. Would you think that system advantageous in London?—No, I think I prefer my own system in London, in a borough like Poplar, to compulsorily rate your owner.

Selective
compounding

95965. The local authority can compulsorily rate outside, but they are not compelled because they do it as regards one owner to do it as regards another. Do

you think that advantageous?—No, I think I would rather have the owner in all cases of this sort.

95966. Will you tell us why?—I think you are safer with the owner than with the occupier.

95967. There are, are there not, certain classes of occupiers who occupy small tenement properties that you are really safe with?—Yes.

95968. In those cases you need not compound under the system I was mentioning?—I do not know; I think you will have to.

95969. You would in London, but you would not outside. Would it not be an advantage to you, say in the case of the Peabody houses, not to compound at all?—Yes.

95970. And yet to be able to compound in cases where otherwise you would lose your rates?—I agree.

95971. Do you see any difficulty with regard to that?—No, I think that is feasible.

95972. How far do you find practically that the owners are willing to compound with you for payment whether the house is empty or not?—They are bound to do it under Section 4 if you start it.

95973. They are not bound to pay whether the house is empty or not?—They cannot make a choice; a man who has only ten houses could not pick out three or four; he is bound to pay full or empty for the lot.

95974. You tell us in the case of the London County Council they are not willing to pay whether empty or not?—No.

95975. Do you find that is the case with other owners of property?—They are just now beginning to get alive to that. I do not think they knew of it before.

95976. (*Mr. Loch.*) Suppose the collector from the point of view of rates had the same power as a landlord to realise his rent, would not then all this long procedure which you refer to be got rid of with advantage?—Yes.

95977. Why should not that be. Why should not rates be considered so?—I agree that is a question for the Legislature. Then you would have your conscience, if I may say so, as to whether you would like to put a man on the street and so on.

95978. It is the conscience which the landlord has now to consider?—I do not think a landlord has a conscience.

95979. That is a question which would differ in various cases. Some people would say that a local authority have no conscience?—I think they have more conscience than a landlord.

95980. However that may be, in both cases the same law might affect it?—Yes.

95981. If that were so, your difficulty would disappear?—To an extent, but the difficulty as to what you are going to lose would not disappear.

95982. But the difficulty as to getting your occupier to pay would disappear?—I do not think so.

95983. The whole of this procedure which lasts for five weeks would not be continued?—The difficulty is not merely in the occupier paying at all. You have to study what is going to be your loss from a different standpoint altogether under the new system. It is not merely the empties, is it?

95984. Admitted, but I understood your difficulty was that you could not punish the individual?—That is one of the difficulties, but my difficulty is that the borough is going to lose by it, not only through empties but the other losses.

95985. Even although you could bring the law quickly into operation?—Yes.

95986. That is a matter of the balance of interest?—Quite so, and it is only my opinion.

95987. (*Chairman.*) With regard to this summary power for rates, that would conflict with the prior right of a landlord might have?—You would give us the same power as the landlords now have.

95988. You would have a general power?—Yes, that would help you to a big extent.

95989. (*Miss Hill.*) Is it not the fact that you would be rather in a different position than the landlord in that you can distrain or summons immediately the rate is made?—You can as soon as you have demanded it.

95990. Directly it is demanded you can get it?—Yes.

95991. Therefore, practically you can go in in advance of the landlord, cannot you?—You can get your rate.

95992. (*Mr. Patten-MacDougall.*) The justices have discretion as to the seven days before the summons is returnable?—Yes. Discretion of justices as to summary order not exercised.

95993. You say they exercise that discretion?—They invariably give the man summoned seven days.

95994. Why, because in ninety-nine cases out of 100 there cannot be any defence. Is that to enable the ratepayer to make his defence or what is the object of it?—To give him a little time to raise the money.

95995. It is not that he may make a defence?—No. I mean on the day they appear they give them seven days before they issue a distress warrant.

95996. To enable them to raise the money?—Yes, no matter what their defence is, the invariable custom is to give seven days.

95997. He has had notice before?—He has had three notices.

95998. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) If a law was passed that you could demand the rate forthwith?—You can now.

95999. And if all the obstacles to taking proceedings were swept away do you think the bulk of the people you have in your mind could pay the quarter's rate or the month's rate down on the nail?—I am absolutely sure they could not. Inutility of summary distraint for rates.

96000. That is the point of it, that we are airily discussing powers to compel people to do something which in your judgment they have not the means of doing?—That is so.

96001. (*Miss Hill.*) Do they not do it to the landlord at present?—They do it weekly.

96002. We were talking about a fortnightly collection or a weekly collection?—That is suggested in the question which was put to me.

96003. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) It is not the question of the total rate you are going to sell the man up for; it is for one-thirteenth part of the quarter's rate. You never could do it?—You cannot make a weekly rate.

96004. (*Miss Hill.*) As long as he pays weekly or fortnightly you would not distrain, would you. Would it not be in the discretion of whoever is carrying it on?—It is all discretion.

96005. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) The man might move before that discretion was exercised?—I think he would.

96006. (*Miss Hill.*) There is 15 per cent. to go on with.—There is a great difference because you make a quarter's rate; if at the end of the third week of the quarter you are going to broker him, you are going to broker him for the balance of the quarter's rate; you could not do that if you are a landlord. Difference between collection of rate and collection of rent.

96007. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) It would be for the three weeks?—Then you would put the brokers in three or four times in the course of the same quarter; there would be an increase of the expense there.

Mr. Henry
Hamilton
Watts.

Mr. HENRY HAMILTON WATTS, called ; and Examined.

3 Mar. 1908.

Experience
of witness.

96008. (Chairman.) You are assistant manager and staff inspector of the London and India Docks Company ?—I am.

96009. Some replies have been prepared by Mr. Hardy, the manager of that Company, to some questions submitted to him ?—That is so.

96010. I believe you practically agree with the answers that he has given ?—I do.

96011. If you will kindly hand those in we will treat them as your evidence-in-chief ?—Certainly. (The Witness handed in the following Statement.)

Question I.—Is the lading and unlading of your port conducted by employing stevedores, or by the shipping companies, or by anything of the nature of a Harbour Board?

System of
loading and
unloading
ships in Port
of London.

Answer I.—The labourers who load and discharge ships in the Port of London are employed by the shipping companies, in some cases direct, and in others by stevedores and master porters. The work of loading and unloading ships is done only to a very small extent by the dock companies. The dock companies however employ a large amount of labour in the warehousing and working of goods.

Question II.—What is the system of taking on labour, and for what periods are men engaged?

System of
taking on
labour and
period of
engagement.

Answer II.—In the year 1906, 72 per cent. of the labour employed by the London and India Docks Company was done by men on regularly weekly wages. The balance of 28 per cent. was performed by preference and casual labourers taken on from day to day at an hourly rate of pay. The minimum period for which men are engaged is four hours, or a payment of 2s.

Question III.—What are the ordinary and the overtime wages? At what hour does overtime commence? When are they paid?

Wages.

Answer III.—Ordinary and overtime wages are 6d. and 8d. per hour respectively. Overtime commences at 6 p.m. The men are paid as follows:—Permanent and registered—weekly preference and casual—daily at the close of work.

Question IIIa.—Is there anything peculiar in the trade of your port that makes overtime inevitable?

Overtime.

Answer IIIa.—There is nothing peculiar in the trade of the Port of London as distinct from other ports to make overtime inevitable.

Question IV.—Is there much specialisation of labour?

Specialisation
of labour.

Answer IV.—The specialisation of labour consists principally in respect to stevedores and the handling of coal, timber, and grain.

Question V.—Is the trade seasonal?

Seasonality
of trade.

Answer V.—The trade is fairly distributed throughout the year, but as a rule it is slack in the autumn and busy in the early winter.

Question VI.—Is the dock labour of the usual "casual" and irregular nature?

Casual
labour.

Answer VI.—The labour as a whole employed at the docks (saving the answer to Question 2) is, to a considerable extent casual and irregular.

Question VII.—Are there alternative employments open to the men when not engaged at the docks?

Alternative
employment.

Answer VII.—The opportunities for dock labourers to obtain alternative employment are few.

Question VIII.—Is there ordinarily a surplus of labour seeking employment?

Supply of
labour.

Answer VIII.—There are usually more labourers available than are needed.

Question IX.—Can you give any account of labour-saving appliances at the docks, and any estimate of how they have affected the total demand for labour there?

Labour
saving
appliances
and effect on
demand for
labour.

Answer IX.—Cranes, lifts, and grain and coal elevators are the principal appliances in use at the docks, but no estimate can be furnished of the extent to which they affect the total amount of the demand for labour.

Question X.—Has there been any indication that the men would prefer constant, steady work to being taken on by the job?

Answer X.—The men employed by the London and India Docks Company on regular weekly wages value their employment, and vacancies are readily filled.

Regula-
work
vined
by men

Question XI.—Has any attempt been made to "de-casualise" the dock labour—e.g., are there any permanent staffs—or is there any system of "preference men," as in the London and India Docks Company?

Answer XI.—The labourers are graded as permanent, registered, preference, and casual men. For some years past special efforts have been made by the London and India Docks Company to diminish the number of casual labourers employed.

Deca-
sation
of
dock
labour

Question XII.—Would it be possible, in your opinion, to make the labour more regular?

Answer XII.—Constant attention is being given by the London and India Docks Company to make the employment regular, and the result is as indicated in the answer to Question 2. The fluctuations of the business are however such as to make it impossible to avoid an amount of casual employment.

Regula-
labour.

Question XIII.—Is there any trade union among the dock labourers? If so, how would it view any attempt at "decasualisation"?

Answer XIII.—There are several dock labourers' trade unions, but it cannot be said what their view is in respect to decasualisation.

Dock
labourers'
Trade
Unions

Question XIV.—What is the general personal character of the dockers?

Answer XIV.—The personal character of dock labourers in regular employment is good.

Persona-
character
of
dockers

96012. (Chairman.) What is included in the term "The London and India Docks Company" ?—The Dock Company owns the docks at Tilbury, the Royal Albert and Victoria Docks, the East and West India and the South-west India Docks, and the London and St. Katherine's Docks. Then they have warehouses in the city; the tea and general warehouses in Cutler Street, New Street and Commercial Road, and Crutched Friars, a cold-air store at West Smithfield and the railway depôt at East Smithfield.

Extent
property
of
London
and
India
Docks
Company.

96013. With regard to docks proper, this company has control over the great mass of the dock accommodation in London ?—Yes; all the docks with the exception of the Surrey and Commercial Docks, the Millwall Docks, and the small Regent's Canal Dock.

96014. There is a mass of labour employed by wharfingers, warehousemen and others which is very much the same kind of labour as that which finds employment at the London and India Docks ?—That is so.

Labour
employed
by
others
than
Dock
Company

96015. So if we want to get at all at the figures of the amount of casual labour or permanent labour connected with the Port of London, you have got to take those into consideration as well ?—Yes, certainly; ours is a small proportion of the labour in the docks.

Dock
Company
employment
small
proportion
of
the
labour
in
the
Docks

96016. You say in the year 1906, 72 per cent. of the labour employed in the London and India Docks was paid for by regular weekly wages ?—Yes.

Classification
of
labour
employed
by
Dock
Company

96017. 28 per cent. was performed by preference and casual labourers ?—That is so.

96018. What is the total number of men employed by the London and India Docks Company ?—We have on our books about 4,200 men.

96019. Would the 72 per cent. be 72 per cent. on the 4,200 ?—Yes, practically.

96020. Roughly, we may take it that ?—Yes.

96021. Have you any idea what the amount of the other casual labour connected with wharves and loading and unloading ships in London is ?—I am afraid not.

96022. Have you any sort of idea what proportion it would bear to this 4,000 odd ?—Very few of the master porters and stevedores have a regular weekly staff; that is, engage their men weekly.

96023. But they would employ casual labour?—It is nearly all casual labour; but, of course, a proportion of it gets pretty regular employment.

96024. Would the mass of labour outside your docks be much greater than the mass of labour you employ?—As far as casual labour is concerned very much larger.

96025. I assume in regard to the great mass of the labour employed outside the London and India Docks Company the same conditions prevail as did before 1896, inasmuch as the great mass of it is casual, and is not weekly paid?—Yes; I should say so.

96026. So that the changes or reforms, if you like to call them so, which were made by the London and India Docks in 1906 only affect a certain proportion of the casual labour in connection with loading and unloading ships?—That is so.

96027. I believe you gave evidence at some length before the Charity Organisation Committee?—I did.

96028. I will put one or two questions in connection with that which will make clear what was done. What wages do the men get who are in regular employment?—24s. Perhaps I had better hand in the "Conditions of employment," because it gives the conditions of each class of labour. With regard to permanent labourers the engagement is terminable on either side, for any cause, at seven days' notice from any pay day. Regular employment only during good behaviour. Wages 24s. a week of six days of eight working hours between 6 a.m. and 6 p.m.; overtime pay at current rates. Leave. Three days annually in addition to general holidays. Pension. Without deduction from wages, according to scale, to any permanent labourer if incapacitated for work by circumstances beyond his own control, after at least fifteen years' service. Dismissal.—A permanent labourer is liable to dismissal for any misconduct, indolence, or absence from work without leave. Qualifications.—Permanent labourers must have served for at least twelve months as registered labourers, and have been between twenty-three and thirty years of age on appointment to List 'A.' They must be physically sound and strong (to be certified by company's medical officer), and of good character. They must be ready to perform any work which they may reasonably be called upon to perform. This is the engagement form (*Produced*). (See Appendix No. XIV.)

96029. 72 per cent. of the men who have regular weekly wages would consist of those whose engagement you have just read out. Then they are supplemented, are they not, by another set of men whose wages vary a little in winter?—That is so.

96030. You take those both as permanent?—They are practically permanent; but the registered men, the List A men, do not have all the advantages of the others.

96031. Now will you tell us about the registered men?—Their engagement is terminable on either side, for any cause, at seven days' notice from any pay day. Regular employment only during good behaviour. Wages, 24s. per week of forty-eight hours in summer, and 21s. per week of forty-two working hours in winter (that is where the difference comes in) overtime at current rates. Leave, three days annually after twelve months' service on this list. Dismissal, registered labourers are liable to dismissal for any misconduct, and so on. They do not have a pension.

96032. If they are moved up to the first scale does the time they have passed on this list count towards the pension?—Yes, it is allowed to count half their time.

96033. When were pensions instituted?—For a number of years we have had pensions. I think the conditions were varied a little some twelve or fourteen years ago, but pensions have been in operation for a long time. Then we have the preference labourers, the B list, those men have tickets issued to them; they are not weekly men, they are taken on day by day as required. They have these tickets (*Produced*)* which are issued every quarter. Fresh tickets are issued of different colour every quarter. They are taken on in the strict order in which they appear in the list. The authorised numbers of B men are fixed for each department according to the amount of work actually undertaken, and on the basis of about 40 to 45 per cent. of the number of men generally at work. If a department on an average employed

100 labourers per day, it would have appropriated to it 40 to 45 preference men in addition to the men on weekly wages.

96034. What does the department mean?—The department means the separate control within the docks; the unit of control. There are forty-five departments in the whole establishment.

96035. Then each set of preference labourers are divided?—Yes.

96036. Have they separate what you may call stands at each dock where they are engaged, not necessarily at each department; several departments will take on their men at one place.

96037. Are they taken on at the same time generally each day?—The time varies, six, seven, or eight o'clock in the morning; and if it is found necessary they are taken on after that during the morning.

96038. At the sea-port towns they tell us that these persons know what vessels are coming in or going out, so that they come then. It would be difficult, I suppose, in London, to make the same observations. These men have to wait all the day outside?—That is one of the merits, if I may say so, of the system we have, because they are all taken on strictly according to their number on the list; and we publish the requirements the afternoon before. That is post them up at the docks; and the men can gauge fairly well whether they will be required, therefore if work is slack the men at the bottom of the list do not show up; they know there is no work for them. In that respect it is different from years ago, when all the men came down, and the man at the tail end of the list, if there was a list, had as much chance as the man at the top. We take the men on as follows: Supposing we require only fifty from the top of the list to-day we take the first fifty. To-morrow if we want fifty, we do not take the second fifty, we take the first fifty again; so the work is kept amongst the smallest number of men in order that at the end of the week a few men may get a full week's work rather than a large number of men get a day or a day-and-a-half's work.

96039. Your object is permanence and regularity of work?—Yes.

96040. Is there anything after the B. men?—Then there are the casuals; but under our arrangements they do not have very much chance.

96041. Do they attend in any numbers on the chance?—There are not nearly so many attend as there used to be. They know we work this system in a very strict manner, and unless there is a very great influx of work, an unexpected rush of work, there is not very much chance for them.

96042. Looked at simply from the fact of the condition of your employees under this system, the men are in a much better condition altogether than they were under the system where you had nothing but casual employment?—I think so. The men who get our work get more regular work, and they are better able to do the work that is given to them.

96043. Have you heard any account as to whether their domestic arrangements, and all that, are better, that they give regular allowances to their wives, and so on, under this arrangement?—I cannot say I have any positive knowledge.

96044. You do not know whether they have improved in that direction?—No; I think it is very likely they do benefit that way, that the benefit reaches the home as well as the individual.

96045. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Do you come in contact with the men at all?—I do not at the present time.

96046. Do you see them?—I have been thirty-five years in the service; I have been in charge of one of the controls in Tilbury; I was in charge of the wool warehouse, the largest labour control in the London Docks.

96047. Did you see any improvement in the behaviour of the men, and in the dress of the men?—Generally, I should say "yes."

* Not reproduced.

- Mr. Henry Hamilton Watts.*
- 3 Mar. 1908. Selection of "preference" men and revision of lists.
- Effect on casual labour.
- Numbers employed by Company have diminished only through giving up certain classes of work.
- Reduction not due to machinery.
- Preference of good men for regular employment.
- Total labour employed in Port of London not decreased.
- Quality of work.
- Overtime.
- Improve-ment in condition of men and quality of work.
96048. I suppose that it is a process rather of physical selection that the men most permanently employed are the strongest and the best?—We pick out the best men to put on these lists; but every three months the list with the preference men at each department is gone over very carefully. We keep a book showing their attendance, and if we find that any have been slack in not applying for work when they ought to have been there they are dropped down in their order, and the better men are put up; so it is all worked with the view of the better-class men getting the most work. A man who does not attend at all regularly eventually finds himself at the bottom of the list, and he gets the least chance of any, and drops out altogether.
96049. While this must have improved the condition of those in permanent employ, I suppose it has left the condition of the casual labourer worse than it was before?—I suppose that is so except in this way; that I do believe there are fewer casual men come round for the work now. I daresay there are as many casual men about, but they do not flock up and hang round the gate to the extent they used to before on the off-chance of work.
96050. There is not the number of people lingering and loafing about?—Not as a rule.
96051. That being the system, what effect has it had on the number employed by your Company?—Has the number diminished say in the last ten years?—It has diminished, but not entirely for that reason. We have been giving up work. Shipowners take on their own men within the docks, and we permit them to do so when they wish it. So the total number of men employed by the dock company has decreased during the last ten years.
96052. Will you put that in figures? According to this statement it seems that the average number of men employed has decreased from 5,076 in the year 1894, to 3,054 in the year 1904; there has been a considerable reduction?—Yes.
96053. I suppose that is really due to machinery taking their place?—I do not think that has affected it very much. It has to some extent.
96054. Are these men that you employ keen to get these regular jobs, or do you see any disposition on their part to prefer the other system?—I do not think they prefer the other system, not men that are worth anything. Men that are at all worth considering value the regular employment.
96055. Should you say the total number of persons employed in this work in the Port of London has decreased during the last ten years?—I should not think so. There is as much work in the port now as ever, more I should think; the Board of Trade has got that information.
96056. Should you say the work is better done?—So far as the docks are concerned I should.
96057. Has this checked overtime much?—I do not think it has had much effect upon overtime because the overtime is necessary by the requirements of shipowners and merchants.
96058. There is unlimited overtime at certain docks and the same man works right on, and then takes a day or two off. How do you manage here?—We do not allow that. We have very strict instructions, which our directors are very keen on being carried out, that no man is allowed to work more than sixteen hours, and he must not come on again under twelve hours after that.
96059. Are the men who are employed after a certain time of the day entitled to higher pay?—From 6 o'clock at night to 6 the next morning it is 8d. an hour instead of 6d.
96060. Is there much dodging to get the higher rate of pay?—I do not think so.
96061. That works fairly well, does it?—Yes; men appreciate a certain amount of overtime to increase their earnings; but I do not think there is any inclination to spin the work out, or anything of that kind, in order to get it.
96062. You have been many years in the service of the Company; and would you say there was an improvement both as regards the condition of the men and the quality of the work done?—Yes.
96063. Can it be pushed much further?—I do not think it can. Directly we get over 75 per cent. of work performed by weekly men we find that occasionally we have weekly men on hand unemployed. We do occasionally now. The work necessarily is intermittent; and although we turn our weekly men about from dock to dock, we find sometimes that we have more men on hand than we have work for for a day; and that is money out of pocket.
96064. You pay them the same?—Yes, the permanent and registered men.
96065. Is there any union amongst the men or any insurance? They come under the Compensation Act, I suppose?—Yes.
96066. There is no insurance against unemployment, or anything of that kind?—Not that I know of.
96067. There is a Dockers' Union, is there not?—Yes, but we do not have much to do with it. I think the men seem fairly contented just now.
96068. Are the men on piecework?—Yes, 83 per cent. of our work is done on piecework.
96069. They get a bonus, do they not, under certain conditions?—Yes. We grant the men regulation pay as a first charge on the job. A number of the men are employed on discharging a ship, and a certain rate is fixed per ton; out of that money the regulation pay is paid to each man according to the number of hours that he has worked; the difference between that amount and the amount that has been agreed upon to be paid is the bonus. That is to be divided into one-tenths of a penny, and the total number of hours worked on the job by the number of men is divided into that, and they are paid each man according to the number of hours he has worked.
96070. In old days, as I understand it, there was a difference between the price paid by the company for the labour they took on and the price charged to the shipowner. What do you do now if a ship comes in. Do you contract with the shipowner to unload it?—Yes. We have tariff rates, and the shipowner puts his ship in and the tariff rate applies. There is a difference between that rate and what we pay the men, necessarily, because the dock company must have some profit.
96071. Do the shipowners grumble at all at the tariff rate; is it higher under this system than it used to be?—The tariff is not higher, but sometimes they grumble, they think that they should get the work done for less.
96072. Do they at all say that you have run up the expenditure and the consequent tariff by employing people by the week?—No, we have not.
96073. That is not the allegation?—No, I do not think that our labour costs us more now than it did formerly. The men individually get more now than they did; through the piecework, I should say on the average the men get 1½d. an hour more, taken throughout the year; their 6d., putting it in that way, becomes about 7½d.
96074. I suppose you are in communication with all the different docks from the centre?—Yes.
96075. Is that ever useful in enabling you to distribute the labour?—Yes. Our system is complete under which, every afternoon, the question of distributing labour is gone into by each superintendent of the different sets of docks. We have five sets of docks and five superintendents, and the labour is regulated every afternoon. If there are surplus weekly men at the West India Dock, the London Dock is informed and a few are sent along. I might mention it is not intended to have any more than is sufficient for each set of docks; the organisation is on the basis of the number of men required for each dock. We do not have more at one set of docks than we believe are necessary for the work of those docks, but when it happens that the work is very slack, and we have not full employment for some of the weekly men, the surplus is transferred to one of the docks, temporarily, where there is more work.
96076. It has been suggested to us in certain quarters, with regard to this casual unemployed labour generally, that the establishment of a regular system of labour exchanges in connection one with another would enable this labour to become more mobile and be better dis-

tributed. I gather rather from the system you have in force at the docks now it is rather a system of labour exchanges?—It is, it follows on those lines.

96077. What should you say from your experience; would you think a system like that would be beneficial if applied generally to other branches of casual work?—I think it would; although I see greater difficulty, as a matter of fact, than we experience, because our labour exchange is, of course, under the direct control of the managers and directors, and no officer at any of the docks can make any demur or raise any objection to the arrangement being carried out, whereas if you got a number of employers in a district, you would find one man willing to fall in with a system and another man, for one reason or another, not so willing, and another man objecting altogether. You have no power at the present time to compel them to fall into line.

96078. You not only have established a labour exchange, but you lay down there very precisely the terms and conditions of employment. I do not assume that a labour exchange would attempt to do that, except in a very general way?—No, but we find sometimes at the London Dock we may have some weekly men to send from the West India Dock; the officers of the London Dock may say: I wish you would not send me these men, I would sooner have my own preference men that are here and take on some of the extra men I know, rather than take on your weekly men; I wish you would not send them up; but we send them up and say: You must have them. The same objection would apply if you had various wharves; you would have one man say: I will take men not employed; but at another wharf another wharfinger would say: I will get my own men, I do not want men sent to me, I can meet my own requirements in my own way.

96079. Your point is that a labour exchange, if it had unlimited powers of selection with regard to the persons a particular employer was to take, very probably might come into collision with that employer?—Yes.

96080. I think that is clear, but the idea that was behind the scheme in the minds of those who promoted it was that it would give information to the most unskilled and least mobile class of labour, and might in certain cases, and probably would in a good many cases, put them in communication with employers?—Quite so. From that point of view it would be very useful, but ours goes a good deal further.

96081. But taking purely an exchange?—It would be useful.

96082. Then you say it would be a benefit?—Yes, certainly I do.

96083. I suppose in the old days a strong docker could earn more than his 24s. a week?—Yes, and they do now, because our weekly men's wages average, I should say, 31s. or 32s. a week all the year round, with the bonuses and the little overtime they get.

96084. Your overtime is limited to sixteen hours? What is the actual day's work?—Eight hours, according to the engagement, but that is nominal. If there is no particular reason for continuing work, if it is not necessary to get a ship out within a given time, then we should only work the eight hours. We work from eight till half-past four; the half hour is dinner time. But if dispatch is required for a ship the men may work longer than the eight hours.

96085. Would a man be able to claim overtime after eight hours?—Yes. We pay 6d. an hour up to six o'clock, and then if he works till eight, he would be paid two hours at 8d. an hour.

96086. How was the system of pensions worked in the old days when you had almost only casual labour?—It did not apply to the casual labour. There were some permanent labourers, but I might mention that the dock company is very good to even the casual labourers, they give them compassionate allowances of 5s. a week or something like that, when they have proved they have been following the Dock Company's work and getting most of their livelihood at that dock for a number of years, twenty or twenty-five years, and they cannot do any more work.

96087. Now as to boys. Do you take boys on?—Yes.

96088. What class do they come on first?—As messenger boys. We have some that are boy labourers. They are the messenger boys that do not pass the examination for the minor staff. They have an opportunity, when they have been messengers for a few years, to pass an examination which will enable them to become assistants and junior foremen; if they do not pass those examinations we put them into the boy labour class.

96089. You find employment for all your boys who qualify for it?—Yes.

96090. They pass on?—Yes. The messenger boys who pass the examination become assistants and junior foremen, and ultimately foremen and outdoor clerks. Those who do not pass the examination become boy labourers and then are drafted into the permanent labour staff when they become twenty-three years of age. By this system all the lads who enter the Service are provided for for life, subject to good health and good behaviour; and the Company obtains a staff trained by itself to meet all its varied requirements.

96091. Do you find you get as boys the sons of men working for you?—Yes.

96092. Is it at all a hereditary profession, should you say?—To an extent it is.

96093. I assume the physique of the permanent men is good?—Yes, we take care that it is so.

96094. Should you say that their conduct and discipline has been better since you had this system of regular weekly employment?—Yes. We watch their attendance; we have returns every quarter of the weekly men and we look up the superintendents if we find at any particular date their permanent men or registered men have been absent above the average.

96095. Have you many stevedores in your employment?—Not actually in our employment. We control our labour direct, and we pay our men direct. I might mention that, particularly, it is a feature that we do not allow any middleman to pay our men; we do not contract with any of our men and give them the money to pay the other men. We insist on paying every man.

96096. You have no gang system?—The men work in gangs. We pay our men direct by the company's pay clerk.

96097. They would do the class of work of stevedores, although not called by that name?—Stevedores are principally men who load ships. We load very few ships indeed, only a little Continental work. Our ship work is mostly discharging, and stevedores until just recently did not do it. The last year or two stevedores have done more unloading of ships.

96098. Who does load the ships?—The stevedores load the ships.

96099. In dock?—Yes, but we have nothing to do with that.

96100. It is more skilled work?—Yes, especially with colonial cargoes going long distances.

96101. The stevedores, if they load, bring in their gangs?—Yes.

96102. That would all be over and above the number you have given us?—Yes.

96103. The great proportion of ships that come in with cargo take a cargo out?—Yes.

96104. So there would be a very large addition to the number you have given us?—Yes.

96105. Would those men be all casual, other than the stevedores?—Yes, I think they are. I do not think any master stevedore has actual weekly men, but he has a certain number of men following him that get pretty regular work. I do not think they have permanent engagements in the way that the dock company's men have.

96106. Do your own foremen like your system? Before they had much more power of selection and discharge?—I do not think our foremen quite like it; the selection of men is a great deal taken out of their hands by the system.

Mr. Henry
Hamilton
Watts.
3 Mar. 1908.

Boy labour.

Prospects
of boys.

Improve-
ment in
conduct and
discipline of
labourers.

Company
control and
pay all men
direct.

Stevedores.

Casual work.

Foremen do
not like the
system.

Mr. Henry
Hamilton
Watts.

3 Mar. 1908.

Bulk of
work in
docks done
by casual
labour.

96107. Naturally they are not such big people as they were before?—They are bound to take on the preference men in the order of the list; they cannot select a relative or a friend, or anything of that kind. They must take them on according to this list; and they do not quite like that restriction.

96108. (Mr. Lansbury.) There is a great amount of work done at the docks that your company is not responsible for, is there not?—Yes.

96109. Would it be the biggest part of the work?—Yes.

96110. And that in the main is casual, is it not?—Yes, casual, subject to my remark about the stevedores.

96111. Subject to one stevedore having a certain following of men?—Yes.

96112. Who are the other people, the big shipping companies?—Some of the large shipping companies employ their own men direct.

96113. Very much in the same way that the dock company used to employ them?—Yes.

96114. Could you give us a figure in any way showing the numbers that are employed by the dock company under your system, and the numbers employed in the various docks by the shipping companies and the stevedores?—I am afraid not.

96115. Would it be possible to get that?—I do not think we could get it. I think in the Board of Trade monthly Returns they obtain it from a certain number of wharves and employers.

96116. But not all, I think?—No, they mention a number, I think. If I remember rightly (I have not seen it just lately) it is about 12,000 to 14,000.

96117. So that your system only applies to a small part of the work of docks and shipping generally?—Yes.

96118. Do you think it is possible for the shipping companies to do as you have done?—I think it would be possible.

96119. It is simply they do not take the trouble to do it?—Yes; there is a great deal of trouble involved in this, but our directors have insisted upon its being carried out. In the first instance there were difficulties, but I think the result is that the policy justifies them not only with regard to the men, but themselves as employers.

96120. So there would not be any great harm done in passing an Act of Parliament setting up a labour exchange, and in compelling the owners to do this?—I do not think so, subject to reasonable arrangements and regulations; that is, I think the labour exchange should be according to groups of employers, certain descriptions of employers. I think, for instance, the regulation, or whatever it is, should apply to employers of similar men.

96121. Take timber, which is a good big lump of your business at the West India and Victoria Docks, you would make it apply to all that?—Yes, but I meant it is not much good sending a painter to take the place of a dock labourer.

96122. It would have to be men competent to do the work?—Quite so.

96123. Subject to that, there would not be much harm in doing it?—No. For instance, taking the Albert Dock, I do not see why the Atlantic Transport men should not interchange with the P. & O. and any other large liners that employ their own labour.

96124. You do not think there is a real objection because of the ships coming in at various times and having to get out so very quickly?—I do not see that that makes any difference at all.

96125. The argument is that a steamship must be got out very much quicker than you formerly got out a sailing ship, for instance?—Yes.

96126. It is more expensive to keep it lying in the dock?—Yes.

96127. Therefore you must have men working night and day on purpose to clear it?—Then they should take the men that the exchange provided for them, rather than go to the men outside.

96128. You might not be able to get regular work, that is what I was getting at. Would not these fluctua-

tions prevent what you have really done, taking on men by the week, say 75 per cent. of them?—Yes, but I was not thinking of it in connection with weekly men, I was thinking of it as providing more regular employment for casual men.

96129. I was rather thinking of getting rid of the casual idea of paying wages daily, which I think you will agree, is a bad sort of way of paying wages. You do not think the payment of wages daily is good, do you?—No, I do not.

96130. I was wondering whether it was possible to frame a scheme by which the mass of the work at the docks could be done by the payment of weekly wages?

96131. (Chairman.) How are the men paid now, daily?—Yes. That is the preference and casual men.

96132. Is any receipt given?—No.

96133. It is just a kind of cash payment, is it?—Yes.

96134. Is there no receipt or stamp given for it?—No, the pay book is run out with the number of hours and the ticket number and the money at the side. Then the man comes to the window and the money is handed out; he takes it, and it is struck off the list.

96135. There is a system adopted abroad somewhere where a stamp is put on every time. There would not be much difficulty in that, would there, if a man handed in his parchment, or whatever it was, a stamp would be put on it?—There would be difficulties at some of our places. Take the wool warehouse; sometimes we have 1,000 men there, just while the sales are on, for a week or ten days; a large number are extra men. Directly the work is over at night they all flock down to the pay window; and there must not be the slightest delay in paying them the money. If they had to give a receipt, or any formality of that kind was gone through, it would hinder the payment, and the men would resent it very much.

96136. (Mr. Lansbury.) Your experience and your opinion is definitely that it is much better to employ men regularly if possible?—Certainly.

96137. It improves their physique, and condition generally, you would say?—Yes.

96138. With regard to the docks, I understand you to say there is as much business done now as ever, probably more?—Yes.

96139. Would it not be true to say you had not only re-organised the employment of your labour in this way, but have you not also rather re-organised your methods, your mechanical methods, for dealing with stuff?—There has not been very much alteration, if it is a question of discharging. Take the wood wharves at the West India Docks. There have always been cranes there for moving the logs into position.

96140. But not electric cranes?—There were hand and steam travellers before the electric cranes which have been used for a number of years.

96141. But you are able to handle a bigger quantity of stuff with less labour now, are you not?—I mentioned the wood department because there is more machinery there than anywhere else. With that exception, I do not think there has been very much change. We should rather like to bring in more machinery, but the character of the work does not permit of it.

96142. As to dealing with the logs, I rather think formerly they were hand cranes?—Yes, they were worked by hand, then electricity was applied to them; but that is a small proportion of our work, comparatively.

96143. (Professor Smart.) What is the character of the ships coming into your docks?—All sorts, from every part of the world, from America, Australia, India, China, and all parts of the Continent.

96144. There are no liners, are there?—Yes, there are lots of liners; the P. & O., the Orient.

96145. The P. & O. come into your dock?—Yes, and the White Star, and the Atlantic Transport.

96146. They make use of your docks entirely?—Yes.

96147. Exclusively?—Yes.

96148. May one gather from that that the trade of your docks is more steady than the trade of other docks?—Yes; the liner business steadies the work.

Number of
workers in
docks.

Possibility
of extension
of Dock
Company's
system.

Practica-
bility of
compulsory
labour
exchange for
dock work.

System of
payment of
preference
and casual
men.

Advantage of
employing
regular
labour.

Machinery.

Character of
shipping
using the
docks of a
company.

Effect of
"liner"
business
steadying
work.

96149. So that you have an advantage in this system that other docks would not have?—Which other docks?

96150. Any other docks where you have not this steady liner work?—There is a certain proportion of liner work in the other docks of the port.

96151. Wherever you have the liner work you have an element of steadiness?—Yes.

96152. You draw a sharp line between preference and casual men, I see?—Yes.

96153. What is the result as regards preference men? How many days a week would they generally get?—About three, taking the year throughout.

96154. Not more than three?—No; but I might say that our list of preference men is rather a longer list than we need; we really ought to cut it down; but it is such a great advantage to the men having these tickets that a man, although we cannot give him very much work at a particular date when he has the ticket issued, knows that the ticket will give him preference for the work at any of our docks before a casual man; so we have allowed our numbers to continue rather larger than we think absolutely necessary; that is rather in the interests of the men than the company.

96155. Does your preference man go anywhere else?—To any of our docks.

96156. Beyond that?—He can go anywhere; the fact that he has a ticket does not debar him from getting employment in any other place.

96157. Would it not be rather an advantage to him?—I do not know what use he makes of his ticket outside our employ. It would not be a disadvantage, because to some extent it is a guarantee of character.

96158. If preference men having this great advantage can only earn three days a week, the advantage is not so great, is it?—That is the average taking this long list; but the men at the top of the list of each department get a great deal more work than that.

96159. What year did you make this change? Was it after the dock strike?—Yes, about that time. The change has been gradual rather. Mr. Hubbard was chairman then, and he took a great interest in these matters, and introduced these changes.

96160. What were the reasons for making the changes?—I cannot say exactly what the reasons were, any more than that it was thought to be an improvement; that it was a great improvement to the men, and it would not be disadvantageous to the company; although some people connected with the docks thought the directors were going rather too much on philanthropic lines; still the result, in my opinion, and I have watched it very closely for some years, is that it has been beneficial to the company as well as the men.

96161. I asked for the reason that your dock is the only large dock that has adopted the system at all?—Yes. I do not think there is any dock which carries this out as completely as we do.

96162. It must have been philanthropic notions in the first place that led you to do it?—It was in the thoughts of some of the people connected with the docks at the time, that there was more philanthropy about it than anything else.

96163. I do not see how you gain by it except in that respect?—We get better work; instead of having a lot of casual men spread about amongst our better men, the casual element is kept out, and the work is concentrated upon the weekly and the better preference men; the consequence is we get good work done, the men are more fit, and they are able to do better work.

96164. At the same time you have admitted there is a heavy charge when the men are not employed, when you cannot find work for them?—There is some expense for that; but we consider that the advantages of having a considerable weekly staff out-weigh that. We watch it every year. If we find our work is decreasing, and that we must diminish the number of weekly men we do so, and if we can see our way to increase the weekly men we do so. Just now we are increasing the number of weekly men.

96165. It is quite natural we should ask you that, because we find nobody else has followed the system.

Apparently the other employers say it is impossible. They frequently say they do not know your system, but there must be something to differentiate you from the others?—That may be so.

96166. (*Chairman.*) I understand you rather repudiate that theory, and on the other hand maintain that, balancing both sides of the question, you think your company have gained in having a better class of men, more reliable men?—Yes.

96167. Men on whom you can depend at a pinch better than you could under the old system?—Yes, and the men earn more money than they used to. Their average money was less a few years ago than it is now under this system. It limits the number of men, and the consequence is that fewer men are employed. They are moved about and become more competent, and they earn on the average a better week's wage than they did formerly. That all has its results, and it is a good result for the men and for the company.

96168. (*Miss Hill.*) If the work was more irregular, it might be more difficult to do it; but would not that mean you would have a fewer number of weekly men, and a larger number of preference men?—That would be so.

96169. (*Professor Smart.*) There is another difference, is there not?—You are a Dock Company altogether?—Yes.

96170. You are not shipowners?—No.

96171. Has not the movement for a similar method to yours been tried rather by shipowners than by dock companies, Mr. Booth, for example?—I do not know the cases where they have tried it. I do not mean to suggest it has not been tried.

96172. (*Chairman.*) Here you have the right to unload any vessel that comes in; is that not so?—I do not know that we have exactly the right, but we do a proportion of the work.

96173. Could a shipowner say: I will unload my ship myself?—Yes.

96174. But they do not as a rule?—Yes, they do in many cases.

96175. (*Professor Smart.*) There would be more difficulty in the way of a shipowner adopting this method than a dock company?—Yes; because he has not the opportunity of moving his men about in the way that we have.

96176. You own warehouses as well, do you not?—Yes; we do a large warehousing business.

96177. Your weekly men are engaged in that, too?—Yes.

96178. Can you shift men from the unloading of ships to warehouse work?—Yes.

96179. That gives you practically two trades?—Yes.

96180. That is an advantage you have?—Yes.

96181. You allow perfect liberty to shipowners to use their own stevedores, and do their own unloading?—Yes.

96182. Do they avail themselves of that much?—Yes; to a considerable extent, the last few years.

96183. You speak of casual work; but it seems to me you have no proper casual work; you say the minimum period for which men are engaged is four hours?—Yes.

96184. We usually mean by "casual men," men who are paid by the hour?—They are paid at the hour rate; but they are never taken on for less than four hours.

96185. You say four hours or 2s.?—It is the same thing.

96186. It need not be if it is 8d. an hour. Why did you introduce pensions?—As an additional inducement to the men to value their employment, and continue to be of good conduct.

96187. It is confined to the weekly men?—To the permanent men, not the registered men.

96188. Do you find these preference men stick by you?—Yes.

96189. Do not they stick too well by you rather; they would rather have three days a week with you than

Mr. Henry Hamilton Watts.

3 Mar. 1908.

Advantage of system to employers and employed.

Greater irregularity of work would necessitate smaller number of weekly men.

Dock Company are not shipowners.

Advantage of Dock Company in having large number of docks and variety of trade.

Employment of labour in docks by shipowners and stevedores.

Pensions.

*Mr. Henry
Hamilton
Watts.*

3 Mar. 1908.

System
based on
mobility of
labour
among the
departments.

try for a fourth or fifth day elsewhere?—Very few leave our employ when once on the list. They obtain employment elsewhere between times about the docks as dock labourers.

96190. And very few try to get work for the other days?—No. A number of them obtain a fair turn of work with other employers of dock labour.

96191. Have you mobility amongst your departments?—Yes, the system is based on that. The preference man can go from one department to another, and from one dock to another if necessary.

96192. Most of your men are union men, I suppose?—I do not know.

96193. Have you heard of any jealousy of your system on the part of the unions?—No, not distinctly stated.

96194. Was not the whole system a logical outcome of the dock strike?—I think it pressed on the organisation that the directors had in mind.

Organisation.

96195. Your docks are very near each other, are they not?—The Albert and Victoria docks are six miles from the London and St. Katherine's dock.

96196. Does not that make it very expensive to shift the men from one place to another?—A great many of our weekly men live between; we simply give them orders at night where they are to turn up next day.

96197. There is every facility for communication?—Yes.

96198. Would you like to express an opinion of your own why your system has not been followed by others?—I should think it is because it was too much trouble and that our circumstances are a little more favourable than they would be in the case of smaller employers.

Average
wages of
regular men.

96199. (*Mr. Bentham.*) Could you tell us what the average wages of your regular men are?—I took the average wages for a week a week or two ago; we take it twice a year just to test it. The average of the permanent men was 31s. 6d., and the registered men 29s. 11d.

Wages in
winter.

96200. (*Professor Smart.*) There is a difference in the winter's wages?—It varies. I notice when it was taken in July, 1906 the average wage of the permanent men was 32s. 7d., and of the registered men 31s. 9d. It fluctuates from about 29s. to 32s.

96201. (*Mr. Bentham.*) Have you the average for a whole year of your regular men?—This is the average of the establishment for a week; we take it twice a year, once in the summer, once in the winter; we have got it for a number of years, and we find it always runs just about that.

96202. You could say that that would be the average earnings of these men for the whole year?—Yes, I think so.

96203. (*Mr. Patten-MacDougall.*) The number in your employ you said decreased considerably up to 1904. I think you gave the figure of 1904 as something over 3,000?—In 1904 it was 4,661.

96204. You gave two years to the Chairman originally; and I think the decrease was a decrease of something like 2,000, was it not?—Going back to 1893 our number of men was 6,034. On January 1st, 1908, it was 4,170.

96205. It has gone up since 1904; it has increased again. In 1904 you said it was 3,000?—I think the explanation is that I was speaking of the weekly men then, but now I am giving you the total with the preference men. The number in 1894 was 6,063; in the year 1904, it was 4,661. The figures I was referring to are the numbers of men on the list.

96206. What is the number for the latest period you can give me as compared with 1904?—I have just given the numbers of men on the lists. The average numbers of men actually employed were in 1904, 3054 and in 1907, 2974.

96207. That is practically a decrease of something like eighty?—Yes, that would be so.

96208. You said, I think, it was not the introduction of machinery that caused that decrease?—No.

96209. What was the cause?—The decrease in the work that is undertaken by the dock company, the transfer of work to shipowners. In some cases the dock company's own work is performed by shipowners at a rate; instead of our mixing our men with the shipowners' men, if we have some work on the same quay we pay them a tonnage rate to do it with their own men.

96210. It was merely a transfer of some of the work which you had previously done to the shipping companies?—Yes.

96211. It did not mean a diminution in the amount of work?—No.

96212. Or in the number of dock labourers employed?—No.

96213. (*Professor Smart.*) But a change in the character of it back to casual labour?—That is so.

96214. (*Mr. Gardiner.*) Do the shipowners save money by not allowing you to do this; is that the reason?—Yes, they think so; It is a mutual advantage.

96215. (*Mr. Patten-MacDougall.*) Did you ever do the loading as well as the unloading?—No, none of the stevedoring.

96216. Never?—We do a little for the continental boats; but the loading of the steamers for the Colonies we never do.

96217. The reduction was not due to anything of that kind?—No.

Number of
men
employed by
Dock
Company.

Decrease in
number due
to decrease in
work
undertaken
by company,
not decrease
in amount of
work done
at docks.

ONE HUNDRED AND FIFTY-FIRST DAY.

Monday, 16th March, 1908.

AT SCOTLAND HOUSE, WESTMINSTER, S.W.

PRESENT.

The Right Hon. LORD GEORGE HAMILTON, G.C.S.I.,
etc., etc., etc. (*Chairman*).
Sir SAMUEL B. PROVIS, K.C.B.
Mr. F. H. BENTHAM.
Dr. A. H. DOWNES.
The Rev. T. GAGE GARDINER.
Mr. GEORGE LANSBURY.
Mr. C. S. LOCH.

Mr. J. PATTEN-MACDOUGALL, C.B.
Mr. T. HANCOCK NUNN.
The Rev. L. R. PHELPS.
The Rev. PREBENDARY H. RUSSELL WAKEFIELD.
Mrs. SIDNEY WEBB.
Miss OCTAVIA HILL.
Mr. R. H. A. G. DUFF (*Secretary*).
Mr. J. JEFFREY (*Assistant Secretary*).

Mr. REGINALD A. BRAY, called; and Examined.

Mr. Reginald
A. Bray.

16 Mar. 1908.

96218. (*Chairman*.) You have been good enough to send us a paper relating to various questions connected with child employment, which, if you will kindly hand it in, we will treat as your Evidence-in-chief?—Certainly. (*The Witness handed in the following Statement.*)

I.

PRESENT CONDITIONS OF CHILD EMPLOYMENT.

1. My experience of London children stretches over a period of more than twelve years. During this time while residing throughout in a poor neighbourhood, I have been on different occasions a member of a board of guardians, a member of the London School Board, and a member of the London County Council. I was recently appointed chairman of a special committee, appointed by the London County Council to consider the question of apprenticeship, and was responsible for the report which was afterwards published.

2. No accurate figures exist which give the occupations followed at present by any large number of London children as they leave school. At the same time there is little doubt or disagreement concerning the main facts of the case. My experience, which is confirmed by the head teachers of a large number of elementary schools, may be summed up briefly in the following assertions:—

(i) The majority of children leave school at the earliest moment allowed. In London this age of exemption is usually fourteen years. But the cleverer children are able to obtain a labour certificate at thirteen. To be eligible to sit for the examination a child must have been six months in Standard VII. In consequence, the number who obtain the labour certificate is not large, but unfortunately includes the cleverest children. The better classification in the schools and the more rapid promotion, which are now becoming more common, are, however, tending to increase the number of those who are eligible to leave school before the age of fourteen is reached.

(ii) The majority of the children who leave school at the earliest possible age, choose and find situations for themselves. The parents have little voice in the matter. The father has no time to find his boy a place, except on the rare occasions when there happens to be a vacancy where he himself is employed. What is true of boys is equally true of girls, though in their case a few parents forbid certain forms of employment, as, for example, work in a factory. Naturally, when the children are left to choose for themselves, immediate earnings, and not opportunities for training or prospects of advancement, decide their choice.

(iii) The majority of the occupations selected by the boys fall into one or other of the following classes of employment:—van-boy, telegraph-boy, district

messenger, shop-boy, errand boy. If they enter a workshop they are, as a rule, set to perform tasks rigidly restricted to boys. I recently visited a factory where two men "set up" the work and fifty boys, fresh from school, minded the machines. They all left after two or three years.

(iv) These various types of employment are distinguished by fairly uniform characteristics:—

(a) The hours, including the journeys to and from work, are long. Apart from the fact that the boys on their return are too tired, they return in many cases too late to attend evening continuation classes. Late hours.

(b) The work affords no training and is altogether of an uneducative character; while the hours are long, the boys are frequently doing nothing for considerable periods, are left much to their own resources, and receive no proper supervision from the master. Uneducative work.

(c) The work supplies no incentive to industry and tends to encourage idleness. For, in the first place, there is little or no prospect of advance, and good and bad conduct alike receive the same ultimate treatment—dismissal at any age varying from sixteen to eighteen. And, secondly, the demand for boy labour is so large that a boy knows that, if he loses one situation through misconduct he can, without trouble, find another. The boys are continually changing their occupation and throwing up their place at the smallest provocation. It is a matter of common experience in boys' clubs and boys' homes that, in the course of a single year, a boy will frequently have obtained and lost three or four different situations. Lack of incentive industry.

(d) The fatigue which results from long standing or running about or from lifting heavy weights, is excessive and militates against any proper all-round physical development. No all-round physical development.

(v) When the boy reaches the age of about eighteen the effects of this kind of work and life are unmistakably stamped on his character. It may be useful to mention a few of the principal consequences. Effects of this work on the boy's character.

(a) The boy at the age of thirteen or fourteen has suddenly become a man with all a man's independence. He naturally turns to a man's pleasures before he has learned their consequences. To this cause must be attributed the increase in boy smoking and boy gambling which has, of late years, attracted much attention.

(b) The effect of the school discipline and school training has worn off. The lad of eighteen has neither the desire nor the ability to

Mr. Reginald
A. Bray.

16 Mar. 1908.

learn. While demanding the wages of a man, he is distinctly inferior in adaptability and intelligence to the boy of fourteen. His sole asset lies in a greater physical strength, accompanied, however, in many cases, if allowance be made for age, by a relatively poorer physique.

(c) He has acquired the fatal habit of continually shifting his occupation and of throwing up a job which in any way causes him dissatisfaction.

(d) But, at the same time, he no longer finds it so easy to discover employment and periods of out-of-work are frequent. In many cases he is fit for nothing but mere brute labour, while his poor physique often renders him unfit for this when demand is made for continuous exertion. He is of little general use to the employer and the boy, with his greater intelligence and his satisfaction with lower wages, becomes for him a dangerous rival

(vi) While it is true that no figures exist to show, in statistical form, the number of lads who drift into unskilled labour, certain facts of common observance clearly indicate the extent of the evil. Attention may be called to two characteristics which are year by year more clearly distinguishing industrial development in London

(a) "The skilled trades," says the report of the committee of the London County Council on apprenticeships, "are, we fear, recruited in the main by immigrants from outside London. In many trades the Londoner is at a discount. Acquainted as he is with but one or two operations of his industry, if he loses his situation it is only with the greatest of difficulty that he can find another. Mr. Charles Booth states that 'With carpenters and joiners, bricklayers, carriage-builders, engineers, smiths and saddlers, the percentages of heads of families born out of London range from 51 to 59.' An enquiry, made by the London County Council Technical Education Board on the building trades, showed that 'forty-one typical firms in various branches of the building trades, having 12,000 employés, had only eighty apprentices and 143 learners, instead of 1,600, which would have been the normal proportion. The London building trades are, in fact, recruited from the country.' The same report mentions that 'among the foremen and operatives who have come before us, not one stated that he was born or trained in London.' In these trades the better positions go inevitably to the country-bred man with his all-round training. In the docks alone does the Londoner hold his own. An enquiry there showed that, among the dock labourers proper, more than 70 per cent. were born in London—a result not calculated to excite any very solid satisfaction. These facts should arouse serious apprehension concerning the future of the London-born citizen. We cannot view with equanimity his relegation to lower positions while the better places are given to better-trained immigrants. We are not prepared to admit that the Londoner is, on the average, inherently inferior either in intelligence or in manual dexterity to his country-born neighbour. His unfortunate situation is, we think, due to lack of opportunity for industrial training and not to any innate infirmity incapable of cure."

(b) Secondly, we find the problem of the unemployed year by year assuming larger dimensions and attracting more serious attention. The increase of "out-relief," in many districts, while offering no adequate remedy, indicates the extent of the evil. Now, whatever other forces may contribute to swell the numbers of the unemployed, there can be no doubt that two causes, already mentioned, are largely responsible. On the one hand there is the growing tendency to substitute boy labour for man labour, and on the other the steady deterioration in the value of this adult labour.

While there is apparently little truth in the often repeated cry of "too old at forty," there is probably good reason to believe that in many cases we might say: "No use at five-and-twenty."

II.

PROPOSED REMEDIES.

3. Any remedies, adequate to the evil, must satisfy at least two conditions. On the one hand, the control of the State over the boy must not cease abruptly at the age of fourteen; and on the other hand, facilities must be given for a continuation of the boy's general education, and, in particular, for industrial training.

4. There is nothing new about such proposals and many precedents exist for action of this character. Under the Industrial Schools Act, 1866, children may be detained in an industrial school until they reach the age of sixteen; while under the Industrial Schools Acts Amendment Act, 1894, a child sent to an industrial school remains, after discharge, up to the age of eighteen, under the supervision of the manager of the school. Mentally and physically defective children are deemed to be children until the age of sixteen, and their attendance, part or whole time, may be enforced. Industrial training has always been made a prominent feature in the schools attended by such children.

5. It is true that these examples of an extended period of control refer only to the mentally, physically, or morally defective. But every argument, used to justify the attempt to render the inefficient citizen efficient, applies with greater force to an endeavour to prevent the efficient child becoming an inefficient man.

6. On the other hand, we have long since reconciled ourselves to the necessity of restricting the working hours of young persons. The various Factory Acts, the Prevention of Cruelty to Children Act, 1894, and the Employment of Children Act, 1903, have all had this end in view.

7. If we go further back in history we find that the State continually recognised its interest and its responsibility in the industrial training of the young. The Statute of Artificers, passed in the reign of Elizabeth, codified existing measures and attempted to enforce a seven years system of apprenticeship. Under the Poor Law Act of Elizabeth it was the duty of the overseers to apprentice any children, whether they were the sons of paupers or not, who in their opinion were not receiving a proper training. Indeed, it is only during the last century that we find the State neglecting to make proper provision for the training of the artisan and the labourer.

8. Further, proposals embodied in Bills of private members have more than once been made in Parliament with the view of establishing a system of compulsory evening classes. It is clear, however, that this suggestion alone cannot meet the necessities of the case. To insist that a lad, after a long day's work, should spend a couple of hours at an evening school would be an inhuman proceeding. It is obvious likewise that, worn out in body, he would not be in a condition likely to profit by instruction. If we add to this proposal rigid restrictions limiting the hours of employment we are at once faced with the practical difficulty of enforcing them. We may indeed limit hours in a factory, but it is impossible to do the same in the many miscellaneous occupations followed by the boys.

9. If we are anxious to provide effective training, and at the same time to limit the hours of employment, we can gain our end only in one way. We must have the boy in school during a portion of the working hours. I suggest, therefore, that we should establish a new system of half-time. The control of the public education authorities over the boy must not be allowed to close abruptly, as at present, at the age of fourteen, but must be extended till the lad reaches the age of eighteen. He must spend, during these four years, either the morning or the afternoon in school, while during only the remaining half of the day would he be free to follow some paid occupation. The aims of the school would be threefold—it would enable the boy to continue his general education; it would provide a course of physical exercise and gymnastics; and it would supply a proper industrial training.

Number of
boys drifting
into
unskilled
labour.

The skilled
trades
recruited by
immigrants
from the
country.

Increasing
substitution
of boy for
man labour
and de-
terioration of
adult labour.

Remedies for
the evil

Precedents
for the
deterioration
of industrial
schools

Restriction of
working
hours
young
person
suggested

Recognition
of the State's
responsibility
in the matter

Proposals
to compulsory
evening
classes.

A new
system
half time
I suggest

10. There are various advantages and features in this proposal, of which the following deserve special attention:—

(a) The enforcement of this new half-time system entails no practical difficulties. Attendance would be enforced in the same manner as in the elementary school, and by the same officers. All children would be scheduled and followed up and accounted for until the age of eighteen was reached. We should not have to trouble about restricting hours of employment, it would be enough to ensure that the boy spent either the morning or the afternoon in school.

(b) The medical inspection, which we may hope soon to see made compulsory in the elementary school, would be continued in the half-time school. We should, therefore, watch over the physical well-being of the youths of the community at the most critical period of their career. A proper course of drill and physical exercises, under medical supervision, would do much to remove the evils which in a town make such large inroads on the health of the lads.

(c) We should obtain a better return for the expenditure on elementary education. At the present time this is largely wanted. The boys leave at fourteen, before their characters are formed, and, rejoicing in their newly-won freedom, are impatient of any sort of restraint, and resent any attempt to check their habits. In four years of half-time attendance we should maintain a very salutary control and only by degrees give to them the wider liberty of the man. The gain in intelligence would be no less than the gain in character. The habits of study and the interests acquired in the elementary school would be continued and would not, as too frequently happens under present conditions, disappear in a few months. At the age of eighteen the youth would leave school with his tastes and interests well developed, and consequently with better chances of finding healthy forms of happiness; while the fact that he has received four years additional instruction would ensure the possession of greater intelligence, power of thought, and adaptability. In short, we should be gradually calling into existence a race of intelligent unskilled labourers, whose employment would be at once more regular and better paid, because more valuable to the employers.

(d) The manual and technical teaching, which would play a large part in the half-time schools, would serve two purposes. For those destined to remain unskilled labourers it would supply a certain dexterity in the use of tools which would add greatly to their value in the labour market. For those destined to enter the ranks of skilled labour it would, in conjunction with the experience of the workshop, afford an all-round training and become a real and effective substitute for the old system of apprenticeship which, unsuited as it is to the methods of modern industry, is rapidly becoming obsolete.

(e) Finally, four years of additional schooling would give an opportunity for any special ability on the part of the boys to show itself. It is in every respect a gain for a lad to be able to wait a few years before definitely deciding on his occupation. There can be no doubt that the present system, which practically determines the boy's future career at the age of fourteen, wastes much talent which is of slow development and has not shown its presence at the earlier age.

(f) While making the unskilled labourer more valuable and consequently more desirable, the half-time system would render boy-labour scarcer, more expensive per hour, and, as a result, less sought after by the employer. We should thus be gradually promoting an industrial development which favoured the increased employment of men and discouraged the employment of boys—in short, a development precisely the reverse of the present.

(g) Boys would receive less wages than now, but, since the effective supply of boys would be halved, they would be paid at a higher rate per hour than at present. The receipt of smaller wages would be a positive advantage—boys have too much spending money under existing conditions.

(h) I have here been considering only the training of lads who will become unskilled labourers or fill the lower ranks of skilled labour, as these are the persons who, at the present time swell the army of the unemployed, and tend to appeal for assistance to the Poor Law. For the training of those destined to rise higher, I should like to refer to the report of the London County Council on apprenticeships, or to a volume of my own recently published by Mr. Fisher Unwin, entitled "The Town Child." The problems involved are fully discussed there, but will, I imagine, hardly come within the purview of the Poor Law Commission.

(i) While I have, in the main, been speaking of boys, the application of the half-time system to girls is equally desirable. Girls, as much as boys, require a more prolonged period of training under the supervision of the public education authorities, while the question of their physical health between the ages of fourteen and eighteen is even more important. There are, however, a few additional considerations which in their case merit attention. As a rule, girls need employment for only a few years; they marry and withdraw from their occupations. The half-time system would ensure a greater demand for their services—a very desirable thing—while the greater expense per hour of employing them would give more openings to the women who are compelled to earn their own livelihood. In the half-time schools special attention would be devoted to domestic economy subjects, the management of the home, cookery, infant feeding, and the like. It has often been rightly pointed out that the teaching of domestic economy in the elementary schools fails of very satisfactory results, because the children are not allowed at home to carry into practice the lessons they have learned at school. When the time comes for them to be mothers they have too frequently forgotten all they have learned. Nevertheless, few would deny that the training of the future mother is among the most urgent problems which are now engaging the attention of the social reformer. We can never anticipate any very solid measure of success until we can teach the proper performance of these duties to elder girls. The half-time system affords the only means by which this most desirable end can be encompassed.

(j) There is good reason to believe that the half-time system would be welcomed by many of the best employers, who are acutely conscious of the defects of the present system of training. In certain instances they allow, or even compel, their apprentices to attend trade classes during the day-time. Woolwich Arsenal, the London and South-Western Railway, and the Silversmiths may be quoted as examples; while an enquiry among the wood-work trades of Shoreditch revealed a general desire to welcome some plan which would enable their apprentices to obtain instruction at a technical institute during working hours. The exigencies of competition have forced the industrial development in the direction of employing boy labour, and, without compulsion, it is difficult for those who dislike this course to pursue other methods. But, if all trades were placed on the same level in this respect, we need not fear any very stubborn resistance. Of course, nothing but legal compulsion can touch the case of the van-boy, district messenger, etc.

(k) Nor need we be very apprehensive about the cost of the proposals. The expense would only reach its maximum after several years, while, in London at any rate, there are a large number of technical institutes with accommodation and equipment for trade instruction during the day. The bulk of the training given there takes place during the evening, and some of them are practically empty at other times. The London County Council has recently established a number of trade schools for boys and girls, and their success amply justifies the experiment. These are at present whole-time day classes, but there would be no difficulty in converting them into half-time schools. The accommodation would thus be doubled, and the expense of teaching-staff and equipment per head halved. Further, it would no longer be necessary, as it is now, to make

Mr. Reginald A. Bray.
16 Mar. 1908.

Problem as to those destined to rise.

Desirability of the half-time system for girls.

Importance of teaching domestic economy to the elder girls.

Attitude of employers to the half-time system. Action taken by certain trades

Practicability of the scheme in London

Connection between the problem of the unemployed and the lack of proper training and discipline.

(7) In conclusion, nothing short of this compulsory half-time system can meet the needs of the case. The problem of the unemployed and the growing tendency to resort to the Poor Law, are intimately connected with that lack of proper training and discipline of character, which are among the most familiar and the most disastrous features of modern civilisation. Every argument in favour of compulsory elementary education tells with equal force in favour of compulsory half-time. The effects of the former will be largely wasted until the adoption of the latter enables the State, by prolonging the period of education, to stamp its influence permanently on the lives and characters of its future citizens.

96220. You have had experience, too, of various local institutions, such as boards of guardians, the London School Board and the London County Council?—That is so.

96221. You have been specially looking at this question lately in connection with the subject of apprenticeship?—Yes; I was Chairman of the Special Committee of the London County Council appointed to consider the subject.

96222. The substance of the first part of your evidence is that the majority of the children in London leave school as early as they possibly can?—Yes.

96223. I suppose where the children by having attained a certain standard can shorten the time of school attendance, the tendency is to make use of that?—Certainly.

96224. That is fully utilised ?—That is fully utilised in the poorer schools.

96225. Your experience shows that the parents have little voice in the selection of the boys' or girls' occupations?—Very little.

96226. What should you say did decide the occupation, is it mere chance?—It is a great deal chance, or perhaps in a school one boy will go to the same sort of situation as another boy; they talk it over together and then settle it amongst themselves; that happens also a good deal with girls; the parents in the respectable families are rather more particular where the girls go; but the boys are allowed to choose practically for themselves.

96227. There are little gangs of them, and they talk it over ?—Yes.

96228. Should you say the parent having little voice is due to the authority of the parent being diminished by the school attendance, or do you think it is because they have no information as to what is the best occupation; or is it a combination of both?—It is probably due to both, but there is a great deal of ignorance.

96229. The father, probably, if he was in employment, would not have much time outside his employment for looking about?—No.

96230. Are there any facilities now by which parents can obtain information?—There are a few Skilled Apprenticeship Committees in various parts of London.

96231. I suppose there is no office at which a man can apply and find out details about any particular occupation?—I should not like to speak for all London, but speaking for Camberwell, I should say no. If they wanted to know anything they would probably go to the headmaster; he is consulted to some extent by the parents.

96232. That is the practice, is it, to consult the headmaster?—In certain cases.

96233. Would you say in the poorer districts?—
Yes.

96234. I suppose the occupation which the boy takes is not necessarily in the vicinity of his home?—No, not at all; I suppose a large percentage of the boys go across the river from Camberwell.

96236. I suppose the classification is a wide one?—It is divided into unskilled trades; unskilled trades where a boy says he is going on to a skilled trade; and skilled trades; and, fourthly, those who go to some form of higher education. Those are the four classes of which I have the summary.

96237. The first leads practically to very little?— (1) Bo
Yes, it leads practically to nothing at all; out of enteri
8,756 boys in 2/2 Council schools 58·2 entered unskil
trades, 11·0 unskilled trades with the intention later of trades
entering a skilled trade, 27·1 entered a skilled trade while
3·7 went to some higher form of education.

96238. Do you get at those figures from a large number of schools or from a particular district?—It was intended to be a return for the whole of London; but as I said, the Returns were sent out rather late, so we have only got it for certain schools; this is for 292 schools, including 8,756 boys.

96239. Do you think we might accept that as a generally fair figure to take for the whole of London?—These schools are scattered all over London.

96240. They are not in a particular locality?—No, scattered all over London.

96241. Fifty-eight per cent. go into the unproductive (2) Bo occupations; then taking the next one?—That was a enterir rather uncertain return, I do not know whether it is of unskill very great value; they are boys who went into unskilled trades trades with the intention of going on to skilled trades; tendin; o go those returned under that heading were 11 per cent. on to s led

96242. Then taking the next one?—The skilled: (3) Boys 27·1 per cent.; and going on into some form of higher education, secondary education, or some technical school: skilled 3·7 per cent. Of course, the last column is very low, because all our junior county scholars would be taken before that age.

96243. Is the pay of the lowest class higher as a rule ?
—You mean the “not leading to skilled” ?

96244. Yes.—It is higher, certainly.

96245. That, of course, would be a very great attraction? drawba s.
—Yes.

96246. I suppose, speaking generally, one may say that the boys who are in this class get higher remuneration than those in the two higher classes?—Certainly in the higher class; the second class is probably just the same.

96247. The fact of the boy leaving school and being able to get this wage paid him he is placed out suddenly in a position of *quasi* man's independence?—That is so.

96248. Physically, these occupations do not seem to develop the boy much?—No, I do not think they do at all. Of course they vary a great deal, but in many cases the hours are very long.

96249. Carmen's boys, and so on?—Yes, van boys.

96250. Then when the boy passes on to a greater age, say eighteen, and so on, from your paper he is relatively of less commercial utility?—Very much so, certainly altogether in the way of intelligence; he is stronger physically because he is four years older, but mentally he is distinctly inferior. The boy when he leaves school is exceptionally bright and intelligent as a general rule.

96251. So the boy coming out of school is a serious competitor to this, what I may call, hobbledehoy; and he has not got the strength, I suppose, to be able to do a man's work?—No.

96252. Another factor which I think your attention has been called to is that a considerable amount of the skilled trades in London are recruited from outside?— from outside London

96253. I suppose that would not come under your personal experience, that is a conclusion arrived at from

information?—It was an enquiry held by the Technical Education Board into the building trades in London.

96254. It is not a mere record of previous opinions?—No, it was an enquiry; and there was a report published.

96255. You think that the problem of the unemployed, so far as London is concerned, is assuming larger dimensions?—Yes, I think it is.

96256. You go so far as to say that our present system is such that in a good many cases a man may be of no use at twenty-five?—I think that is so.

96257. The opinions you are giving are not merely your own individual opinions, but, I assume, those of the majority of those with whom you have worked and carried on these investigations?—I think you will find it a general opinion.

96258. Therefore, I suppose, putting it broadly, one may say that a large proportion of the working population of London are gradually being, by various causes, ousted from skilled employments; and their lot is to be connected with badly-paid and a low-grade class of ill-paid unskilled labour?—Yes.

96259. Coming to remedies, you would propose to extend, in some shape or other, the period of the boys' educational training?—Yes, I am anxious to have a new half-time system from fourteen to eighteen.

96260. How would you work your half-time system?—I would insist that the boy should be in some educational institution, either in the morning or in the afternoon.

96261. If you do that you must limit the hours?—You automatically limit the hours during which he is employed.

96262. Any proposal to limit hours, or extend the school period of boys, would meet with a great deal of opposition. Do the parents, do you think, as a rule rely very much on the earnings of these boys, or do the boys spend them pretty much as they like?—The boys have a good deal to spend themselves; but the earnings are relied on in the poorer homes, especially the homes where the parents are often out of work; in the homes of the casual labourers naturally the earnings come in very welcome.

96263. Is there pressure put on the boys by their parents to go out early to work, or do you think it is the boys' wish, rather, to free themselves from the restraint of school life?—It is a good deal that the parent thinks he has kept the boy long enough. In certain cases I have known boys who would have stayed on, but their parents insisted on their going out.

96264. Putting on one side the education objections, and the domestic difficulties which might accrue from an administrative point of view, you see no practical difficulty?—No, we could enforce attendance there just as easily as we enforce attendance now in the elementary schools by getting the roll of the attendance of the boys at the different technical institutes.

96265. Would you have accommodation, or would you have to build fresh schools?—We should have to build fresh schools. I could give you a sort of estimate of the whole cost. I tried to get out for London what would be the annual cost, assuming that we enforced attendance at half-time classes on these boys from fourteen to eighteen.

96266. That would be very interesting, because that would give us some idea to what dimensions a scheme of this kind would attain in London?—I am assuming there are 80,000 children (I am taking it for boys and girls) of the elementary school type who reach the age of fourteen each year.

96267. I suppose that is about the figure?—Yes. The total cost, I estimate, would then be £1,100,000. That would be the gross cost. If I take the Board of Education grants that would reduce it very considerably, because we should be entitled to grants, under the present regulations, of £720,000 for classes of this kind, which would make the net cost about £380,000. That would only be a little over a twopenny rate in London.

96268. What does that £1,000,000 include; the cost of the buildings?—That would include loan charges; I am assuming £10 a head as maintenance and loan charges for each full-time place.

96269. The maintenance would include the cost of *Mr. Reginald A. Bray* teaching?—It would include the cost of the teaching.

96270. The cost would be about £1,000,000, of which you think you would get back £700,000 from the Education Department?—Yes, under their present system of grants. 16 Mar. 1908.

96271. How long would you extend your half-time system to?—From fourteen to eighteen.

96272. Would it be £1,000,000 taking all the children from fourteen to eighteen?—Yes.

96273. Your 80,000 is the number which passes out each year?—Yes

96274. What would be your calculation of the number between eighteen and fourteen?—I have taken 80,000 for each year; I am assuming we should want 160,000 full-time places, that is for the 320,000 half-time students. Estimated number of half-time students.

96275. That is a full estimate?—Yes. I have made certain deductions from the 80,000 if you want me to go a little more into particulars, because from these there would be a number who received scholarships from the London County Council, or were promoted to the higher elementary schools, or whose parents continue their education. There would be altogether something like 10,000 of those, and this deduction would bring the number down to 70,000. Then you would have to make an allowance for irregularity of attendance, because you would not get a perfect attendance. I do not suppose you would get an attendance of much more than 85 per cent.; this would be a very fair attendance in the elementary schools, and you would not get a better attendance after they go out to work. That would be a deduction of another 10,000; so that it would mean you would only have to provide for 60,000 places in average attendance.

96276. What population is this expenditure applicable to, about 4,000,000?—Rather over 4,000,000. I forget the exact figure. Estimated effect of the half-time scheme in the whole country.

96277. I was thinking about the country generally; this half-time system comes to £1,000,000 for 4,000,000 of the inhabitants?—Yes, it is rather over 4,000,000.

96278. Assuming the proportion of children in the elementary schools in each 4,000,000 was about the same number—I suppose it is rather higher in London?—I should not like to say for certain; I do not know the figures.

96279. It is a heavy charge, it would come to something like £8,000,000 for the whole of England?—Yes. Of course the expense would not be so great in country districts; the expense of land, for instance. I do not suppose you would have to allow anything like £10 per head.

96280. What proportion of the £10 do you put in for cost of maintenance and loans?—I put about £7 10s. 0d. for maintenance and £2 10s. 0d. for loans.

96281. That would make a very large reduction in the country districts?—It would make a considerable reduction.

96282. Have you ever worked out at all what the child under the half-time system would earn compared to what he does now?—No, I think that would be very difficult. You would diminish the supply of boy labour by one half, so that undoubtedly his wages would rise, but how far they would rise I could not say. Probable effect of half time system on the boy's wages and on the demand for men.

96283. So the loss would be somewhat less?—He would get more than half what he gets now.

96284. (*Mrs. Webb.*) That would be specially so with messengers, would it not, and work that cannot be done by anybody else?—That is so.

96285. (*Chairman.*) In Paragraph 10 (f) of your statement you point out that the half-time system would render boy labour scarcer and more expensive per hour, and as a result less sought after by the employer; therefore there might be a considerable reduction in the demand for boys, and that you could not estimate in advance?—That you could not estimate exactly; on the other hand if there was a great reduction in the demand for boys, there would be a large increase in the demand for men, so that the boy's father would get employment, although the boy himself might find it more difficult.

Mr. Reginald A. Bray. 16 Mar. 1908. 96286. That rather raises this question: have you ever thought that the work that these boys do could be discharged by adults?—I suppose a great deal of work like the district messengers would be very expensive to do by adults, but I should imagine that a great deal of work done in factories could be done by adults—machine-minding and things of that kind.

96287. (*Mrs. Webb.*) I suppose the old man might replace the youth?—Yes, the old man could certainly do this.

96288. (*Prebendary Russell Wakefield.*) The less efficient kind of man?—Yes.

96289. (*Chairman.*) Where a boy is associated with a man the boy's and man's wages I suppose are now calculated together?—Yes.

96290. It might affect the employment somewhat prejudicially if a boy is taken off, and a higher paid person is put in his place?—Yes.

96291. Are you on the education committee?—Yes.

96292. It has been suggested to us that there is another method by which a good deal of the evil of these boys stepping into these unskilled employments early in life might be mitigated, that is if there was more information given to parents as regards what occupations were open, and what were suitable?—I think that would be a help. We are trying at the present time under the London County Council to carry out a plan of this kind recommended in the Report of the apprenticeship committee.

96293. Is it not at Lisson Grove, or somewhere, that you have such a system?—It may be done there. Certain headmasters have done this.

96294. Do you not think that by an authoritative establishment with information available to the parent, either through the teacher or by some official being attached to the school who could give information, an improvement in that respect could be effected?—I do not see that that would make a great deal of difference; there is a certain amount of demand for boys at the present time; it would not change that demand; you might only sort out the boys a little better, the intelligent boy you might induce to go into a skilled trade, but then you would be turning someone else out instead; information would not affect the demand. A great deal of the information would be of a very unsatisfactory character, merely pointing out openings for van boys and messengers.

96295. The demand is very great?—Yes, boys have no difficulty in getting work, not the slightest.

96296. That was indicated to us by certain witnesses. That has a bad effect on them; they are apt to throw up their employment?—They throw it up at once if anything annoys them, and they can get another situation without any difficulty.

96297. That is your experience?—Certainly.

96298. That is very bad in not promoting habits of discipline or regularity?—Yes, especially when they are about eighteen, because when they throw up a job then they find it hard to get another.

96299. Should you say the demand for boy labour of this kind has increased of late years in London?—I think it has increased in connection with district messengers, and in factories there is a tendency to get machines that a boy can watch. I think the whole trend, in London certainly, is to use boy labour as much as possible.

96300. As the community gets richer it requires more service to be done for it?—That would be so.

96301. And boys would be the instrument in a good many cases which would perform that sort of service?—Yes, the messenger service.

96302. You think there is a tendency in factories in London to employ boys?—Yes, I think there is.

96303. You are speaking educationally rather than from an investigation of the industries?—Yes, there are only one or two factories that I have been into.

96304. I suppose the great occupation of girls is domestic service?—Very largely, and a sort of vague term "dress-making," which covers an immense amount of very different kinds of occupations.

96305. Is the girl labour more valuable in the early stages than it is later on, in the same way as boy labour is?—Of course, the girls only want to work for a few years; so many of them get married; it is difficult to say.

96306. The problem is a different one?—It is an entirely different problem, or at any rate, to a large extent; though of course, you have the same evil of the long hours with the girls, it is probably more prejudicial in many ways to the girls.

96307. That would be in factories?—Yes.

96308. A good many of those factories are seasonal factories, jam-making, for instance?—Yes, jam and sweet-making and mantle-making, there are a lot of them.

96309. Have you ever thought of what the effect in developing the half-time system would be outside London, say with regard to agriculture?—I do not think there would be any difficulty in agriculture; you would have two boys, if you took boys, instead of one. If you wanted a sheep boy you would have two employed, one in the morning and the other in the afternoon.

96310. Then the complaint is that it is difficult to get boys enough even now. I am thinking about the half-time system; have you thought how you could work that at all; would you vary it at all in agricultural districts?—It would make it harder to get boys and it would have the effect which is now taking place, the substitution of men for boys.

96311. Would it be possible, do you think, to make the half-time attendance by the year so that they could attend during the winter?—You could do something in that way.

96312. If the half-time system is to be extended and made generally applicable to the country, it would have to be varied, I suppose you admit that?—Yes, I think it would have to be varied.

96313. It is a very heavy expenditure, but I assume you take a serious view of the present state of things?—I do, most serious. I think we are spoiling all our child labour, and we are now finding the fault of what we have done in the increasing number of the unemployed.

96314. And in the early age of so large a proportion of the unemployed?—Yes.

96315. (*Prebendary Russell Wakefield.*) You say when the children are left to choose for themselves, immediate earnings and not opportunities for training or prospects of advancement decide their choice. Is it not true also that that is very often the case with the parents when they choose for the children?—I think so. I think the parents would take very much the same view.

96316. Do you think very much is done in the schools when the children come to the fifth or sixth standard with regard to advising them as to what their future career should be?—A few headmasters have done it very energetically, not always very wisely.

96317. Sometimes with considerable success?—Sometimes.

96318. And it is a fact, is it not, that it is not only in an isolated school, but in a good many schools the effort is made to try to place boys when they leave?—Yes.

96319. There are certain cases in which practically schools have become rather celebrated for providing of suitable boys, and girls too, for certain commercial pursuits?—That is so. Those are rather the better schools; certain commercial ones, for instance.

96320. Fleet Road?—Yes, that is practically a secondary school.

96321. I did not know whether it kept up its character?—Yes.

96322. Practically everybody going from Fleet Road can get immediate employment of a very satisfactory character?—Fleet Road is practically a secondary school. It is a higher elementary school now, but it is on the same level as the ordinary commercial school.

96323. Has it not rather worked itself into that position by the care and attention of the teachers with reference to the children?—Yes, but it is fed by the contributory system; it draws from perhaps thirty schools around, taking the best children.

Question of giving parents more information as to suitable occupations.

Bad effect of the case with which boys get situated.

Increased tendency to use boy labour.

Tendency to employ boys in factories.

Occupations selected by girls.

Problem connect with girl labour.

Effect of half-time system agriculture.

Possible variation of the system.

Narrow views taken by parents.

Reputation of some of the better schools for providing suitable boys.

96324. Of course, the pay that these boys get varies very much indeed with regard to how far they can live on what they can get, and how far they have pocket money over after they have paid for their living? One knows instances where boys, what with tips, and things of that kind, are actually earning more than a grown man can earn by an ordinary unskilled occupation?—That may be. I do not know of places of that kind.

96325. Would you say that as a rule it is true that boys have too much spending money? Does not nearly all the money go home in a great many cases?—I do not think so; it does in certain cases. In the case of widows no doubt it does, but the boys have a good deal of money to spend.

96326. The only criticism one is inclined to make with regard to what you have sketched out here is this, would not almost more than half-time be required for the physical and mental training which you put down?—If you had four years half-time you could make an enormous difference, there is not the least doubt.

96327. You are strong upon continuing the ordinary education as well as technical education during these four years?—Certainly.

96328. (Mr. Lansbury.) On the question of cost, as I understand it, you are contending that a good deal of the money that we spend now is wasted because the education is not carried on?—Yes.

96329. And therefore we must set against the increased cost the fact that we are going to get value for the money we have previously spent?—Certainly.

96330. And that the one thing dovetails into the other?—Yes.

96331. Have you had any experience of children whose parents are getting outdoor relief attending the schools?—Individual cases certainly.

96332. You have never found any board of guardians that takes any interest as to what becomes of these children?—Very little indeed. I have been on the board of guardians at Camberwell, and very little real interest is taken.

96333. Nobody really bothers about them?—No.

96334. Although the guardians are supposed to stand as parents really?—Very little is done.

96335. The outdoor children are at a disadvantage to those who are trained in the Poor Law institutions, are they not?—So far as training goes.

96336. And getting a start?—Yes. Whether they are quite so fit to face the world if they have been altogether in an institution is rather a question, I think. There is that other side to it.

96337. (Mrs. Webb.) With regard to that last point, that is a matter of evidence, is it not, as to whether they are more fit or not?—Yes.

96338. So far as we have gone, we have had very favourable evidence about the fitness of boys brought up in Poor Law institutions?—Yes.

96339. With regard to No. 4 of your proposed remedies, I see that you point out there are certain classes of children who have already the advantage of training up to sixteen, and the supervision of the State up to eighteen in the industrial schools?—Yes.

96340. Could you tell us what are those classes—the truant?—The truant and the reformatory class.

96341. That is separate?—Yes.

96342. Under the Industrial Schools Act they are truant and children of unsuitable parents, are they not?—Yes.

96343. Is it so under the Home Office Reformatory School Act? Have they the same supervision up to eighteen, do you know?—I am not quite certain of that.

96344. They keep them up to sixteen?—Yes, they keep them up to sixteen certainly; I am not quite sure of the age.

96345. You point out that the mentally defective children are kept up to sixteen?—Yes.

96346. So they have an advantage?—Yes.

96347. And as regards Poor Law children who are brought up in institutions, they are also kept up to sixteen?—Yes.

96348. So that you already have considerable sections of children who have this additional training?—That is so.

96349. And they happen to be rather the children who are less fit *prima facie* than the children of the general population?—That is so.

96350. Then we are giving a premium to unfitness?—Undoubtedly, we are spending an immense amount more on our special schools for the physically and mentally defective in comparison to what we are spending on our ordinary children.

96351. That applies to the truant child and the criminal child?—Yes.

96352. So that it is rather important, from the point of view of encouraging fitness, to extend this additional advantage to the rest of the population?—It certainly is.

96353. Do you as a practical administrator find any disadvantage in all these different sections of children being controlled by different localities and different central authorities?—It is extremely inconvenient. To take even such a thing at the present time as the administration of the Provision of Meals Act it is extremely difficult. A certain number of the parents have help from the guardians, we find, and yet the child is reported as underfed. Further dealing with the mentally defective children at sixteen, if anything more is to be done for them they must go on to the Metropolitan Asylums Board; if they become still worse then they come back to us to our lunatic asylums. It is a perfect chaos.

96354. That applies to your day industrial schools. You have not got children for your day industrial schools, have you; they are empty?—They are comparatively empty.

96355. They could be used for the out-relief children of the Poor Law?—They could be used very well.

96356. Would you be in favour of putting all the children under one authority?—Certainly.

96357. Would the same apply to the central departments that are at present under the Local Government Board, the Home Office, and the Education Department? Do you see any advantage in having one department dealing with children as a whole?—I think certainly it would be a great advantage.

96358. In order to get experience in dealing with the different types of children?—Yes.

96359. To go to the question of boy labour, I see we are in rather a logical difficulty about it; boys have always been employed, have they not?—Yes.

96360. All boys who are not living on private property must be in employment?—Yes.

96361. So that there cannot be an increase in boy labour, in that sense. Boy labour must always have existed to the same amount?—Yes.

96362. What was happening to the boys before, between fourteen and eighteen; they were not in school, they were not living on private property or on the rates, so something must have been happening to them?—I suppose it might have been harder for them to get places. The percentage of those out of employment would be considerably larger in the past.

96363. We have no evidence of that?—There is no evidence.

96364. One would have thought there would have been boy pauperism in that case, from lack of employment?—Would it necessarily have come before any authority if that had been so?

96365. It is very difficult to imagine you would have a large number of boys actually on the streets without some kind of application for relief for them?—Applied for by their parents?

96366. Yes?—Unless it was a more or less normal condition that there might be a certain number out of employment.

96367. That in itself would not be a desirable thing, would it, that they should be out of employment?—No.

96368. So far as statistics go, there is no proof that there are more boys in employment than there ever have been in proportion to the population, so far as I understand?—No. But we must bear in mind that during the last

Mr. Reginald A. Bray.

16 Mar. 1908.

Present chaos in administration.

Uses to which day industrial schools could be put.

Proposed one authority to deal with children.

Question of nature of increase in boy labour.

Mr. Reginald A. Bray. few years the age of compulsory attendance has been raised, and this would lessen the number of boys employed.

16 Mar. 1909. 96369. It seems to me rather not a question of whether they were in employment, but what kind of employment. Apprenticeship was employment, was it not?—Yes.

Present unproductive use of boy labour. 96370. But it carried with it educational training?—Yes.

96371. And moral supervision and lower wages?—Yes and lower wages.

96372. So it is not wise to say there has been an increased use of boy labour; it is better to say there has been an unproductive use of boy labour?—Probably that is a better way of stating it.

96373. Otherwise I think we are in a grave logical difficulty about it?—When one said: "an increased use of boy labour" one thought of it as boy labour not as an assistant, but boy labour as a principal tending a machine.

96374. It rather means the profitable use of boy labour as distinguished from the educational use of boy labour?—Certainly.

96375. The old employer took boys on mainly to educate boys to become men?—Yes.

96376. That is the sense in which the trade unions objected, to some extent, to boy labour?—Yes.

96377. With regard to these proposals, what you are trying to substitute for the present state of things is some of the elements of moral control and educational advantage which you had in the apprenticeship system?—Certainly.

96378. You think it is only by calling in the State that you can bring that about?—I do not think you can do it otherwise under the conditions of modern industry.

96379. Has it been put before you, or have you come across what we were told of in Liverpool, that there is a certain type of boy growing up who for two years after he leaves school does not get employment; that he is the corner boy, or gets only casual employment?—Of course, in the semi-criminal quarters you find a certain number like that. I could not speak from any wide experience of that.

96380. It seemed to be rather prevalent in Liverpool. You have not come across that?—I could not say so to any large extent.

96381. I gather that the statistics rather point to fewer boys being employed in recognised occupations, in which case these corner boys might account for that?—Yes.

96382. It would be even more important to get him into the school than the boy who is working regularly?—Yes, undoubtedly.

96383. Do you see any likelihood, if we had an ascertainment of unemployment right through the country, by labour exchanges, that we could choose the occupations of boys more wisely?—Do you mean choose them when they leave school?

96384. Yes?—I think we could sort them out possibly more wisely.

96385. Do you not think if you could ascertain what was going to be the demand for labour by a complete knowledge of the industrial employment of the last ten years, you could better train the boys for what there was likely to be a demand for?—Yes, I should think you could in the skilled trades.

96386. That would be one indirect use of a labour exchange which ascertained the amount of employment?—Yes.

96387. Have you thought of the subject of the diathesis of the boy, as to whether it would be possible to foresee what kind of work would bring out his latent qualities or would prevent his latent tendency to disease being developed, if we had very careful inspection and consideration of each boy?—I am not certain that I understand your question. Do you mean that we might adapt his employment to his physical condition?

96388. Yes, to choose his employment according to his latent possibilities?—I think we could certainly do that if we had them under our control for a longer period. It is difficult at the age of fourteen: there are so many boys who develop a great deal later; I think you could do an immense amount in that way under a half-time system extending from fourteen to eighteen.

96389. This half time would enable you to watch them?—Yes, much more carefully.

96390. So that you could ward off a boy with a phthisical temperament from being a compositor?—Yes.

96391. (*Mr. Bentham.*) If a system of manual and technical training were adopted on the half-time system which you suggest, you say it would afford an all-round training and become a real and effective substitute for the old system of apprenticeship which, unsuited as it is to the methods of modern industry, is rapidly becoming obsolete. The apprenticeship system was really special was it not? I do not see how an all-round training can be a substitute for a special training, as in the case of an apprentice?—It was special in one sense; for example, the boy who was apprenticed to a carpenter would learn all the branches of a carpenter's trade, but at the present time if he goes to a wood worker's place and calls himself an apprentice, he will only learn to do one single operation. We have had at our technical schools boys who have never made anything but a table leg. When I spoke of an all-round training I meant we should train a carpenter who could do more than make a table leg.

96392. He would get an all-round training up to eighteen which would probably fit him to take up any branch of that trade afterwards?—Yes of that particular trade.

96393. You think it would be easier to specialise after that all-round training than before?—With the half-time you would get the two things going side by side; he might be learning to make table legs very excellently while at the same time he was learning to make the other parts of the table, and becoming acquainted with the different branches of the carpenters' trade. The two would go side by side with this half-time system.

96394. If such a system became compulsory, you have no hesitation in saying that manufacturers would fall in with the system and would employ these half-time scholars up to eighteen. I think you say in Paragraph 10 (j) of your remedies: an inquiry among the woodwork trades of Shoreditch revealed a general desire to welcome some plan which would enable their apprentices to obtain instruction at a technical institution during working hours?—Yes, certainly in Shoreditch there was a feeling in that direction; in other parts of London there is not the same kind of feeling. I have no doubt a good many employers would not welcome it at first, just as they did not welcome factory inspection or the limitation of the hours of child labour.

96395. How did you ascertain that feeling in Shoreditch?—We have in connection with the Shoreditch Technical Institution a committee on which the employers are represented and they helped us to make inquiries there.

96396. If it becomes compulsory the employers would be as likely to employ them half-time as they employ them now full time, if they wanted the labour?—Yes.

96397. I do not quite understand this sentence in Paragraph 10 (j). The exigencies of competition have forced the industrial development in the direction of employing boy labour, and without compulsion, it is difficult for those who dislike this course to pursue other methods. Does that not rather suggest there has been an increase in boy labour?—As I think Mrs Webb put it to me, there has been an increase in using boy labour actually to manufacture goods. For example, you will find boys now who directly they leave school are put to mind a machine; that is they are practically turning out the finished goods; before they were not so much finishing goods as actually learning. I think there is that distinction.

96398. In all trades during the last ten years there has been a gradual diminishing employment of boy labour?—Except in such things as the district messengers, the Post Office and van boys. That is where the immense amount goes, I think.

96399. Are you thinking of London alone?—I am thinking of London mainly, I should not like to speak for anywhere else.

96400. There is a gradual decrease going on in London alone of those who pass for employment between the age of fourteen and sixteen, it is gradually declining year by year?—The number of boys?

To what extent could half-time training be a substitute for apprenticeship?

In Shoreditch, feeling in favour of the scheme, in other parts of London, it might be welcomed.

Increase in use of boy labour in manufacture of goods.

Increase in boy labour as district messengers, in the Post Office and van boys.

An attempt to obtain the moral control and education of the apprenticeship system

Growth of "corner" boys in Liverpool.

Suggested use of labour exchanges to choose occupations for boys on leaving school.

Possibility of adapting the boy's employment to his physical condition.

96401. Yes. I have before me a Board of Trade Return which shows that between thirteen and fourteen there is a decline over the previous year and between fourteen and sixteen taken altogether throughout all the trades of the country, particularly the textile trades, the reduction of those employed under eighteen is most remarkable?—Would not that be a special inquiry embracing only certain trades? It would not include the boy that a little grocer might employ, would it? Those boys would not be classed as belonging to any special factory or industry.

96402. This general return does include those, because they must have a certificate if they are employed?—Between thirteen and fourteen.

96403. Between fourteen and sixteen, as young persons?—They would not have to have a certificate if they were employed by a grocer or as a district messenger. My point is I do not think you can get any return which would actually show the total number of boys employed unless you made a house-to-house inquiry as by the census.

96404. It would depend on whether they came under the Workshops and Factories Act, whether they were certified or not?—Yes. I quite understand that in the workshops and factories there might be fewer boys.

96405. Apart from the workshops and factories, is it likely there would be more employment of boys who would not come under the Workshops Act than formerly?—I am not certain what the Workshops Act would comprise, but it certainly does not include every one who employs messenger boys, every small carter who has a boy sitting on the cart behind—every van boy. There are in any poor part of London an enormous number of small carters who would each have their boy. I do not think they would come under any Factory Act.

96406. What evidence is there that there are more of them now than formerly?—There are no figures, I can only give you a general impression.

96407. With regard to those employed under the Factories and Workshops Act it is self-evident there is a gradual decrease going on year by year all over the country?—I have not the figures, but if this is so, it may be due to the gradual disappearance of half-time and steady lengthening of the age of compulsory attendance.

96408. For instance, take the textile trades as a whole from 1895 to 1904 they have fallen off under eighteen taking males and females together, from 238,000 to 208,000 in round figures, and it is no less remarkable as to the falling off in boys (and as regards girls the same) with regard to half-time under fourteen. Over eighteen there is a gradual increase in the numbers employed, therefore the ratio of persons under eighteen employed this year is greater than it was?—Taking these special trades from which you have your returns.

96409. If there are fewer boys and girls under eighteen now employed in workshops and factories it may mean that there are a larger number employed in less useful occupations than in a better way?—Yes.

96410. And that is the class that you think is on the increase?—Yes.

96411. You mention here that the London County Council has recently established a number of trade schools for boys and girls. How long have those been in existence?—They were established at varying times, from six or seven years ago up till quite recently. There has only been one of the trade schools in existence for any considerable time, that is the Shoreditch one.

96412. Have you any report of the results?—We have no statistical report of the results.

96413. It would be interesting to see how the children who have passed through those schools have been employed in after life?—I could not give it to you in figures. At Shoreditch I believe they have no difficulty in getting good employment. To take the others more recently established, such as the waistcoat making for girls at the Borough Polytechnic the employers visit the class and engage the girls direct from the class: there are no statistics that I have.

96414. (*Mr. Phelps.*) The boy population of London would fall I suppose into various classes according to their parentage?—Very much.

96415. With regard to the children of artisans do you find artisans are careful in bringing up their children to their own calling?—Not a great deal. I was looking through some of the returns that we have had from the schools as to the occupation chosen by the boys. The occupation of the parent is also set out, and what struck me was that it was not at all common to find a boy going into the same occupation as his parent.

96416. Speaking roughly, should you say there was much difference between that class and our own class in that matter?—You mean that in our own class boys would be likely to follow the occupation of their parents?

96417. Do you think as a matter of fact that people in our class of life follow their father's profession in any large proportion of cases?—I should not think any large proportion.

96418. The two very much resemble each other. For what class do you wish to see education technically improved, is it the sons of unskilled labourers?—When I drew up my Memorandum I was thinking mainly of those who would probably never rise very much above the ordinary unskilled workman and generally remain all their lives unskilled workmen. I want to make them intelligent unskilled workmen which at present they are not.

96419. That would leave the class of street arab or Residual gamin?—There must always be a residual class, but I class am anxious to make it as small as possible.

96420. How is that class recruited?—They come from no particular class; you may get them from any class and by various methods.

96421. There is a good deal of mobility in going down the social scale?—You get a great many more of them when you reach the semi-criminal parts: the parts coloured black by Mr. Charles Booth.

96422. That class has certain peculiar characteristics, has it not, mental characteristics such as shrewdness and intelligence in that sense?—Yes, they have a shrewdness.

96423. You have considered many of the means for utilising that class. Have you ever gone into the scheme which General Baden-Powell has associated himself with, the scout scheme?—I have never gone into that.

96424. Of course, you have studied the question which has often been brought before us of compulsory military service for such a class?—Yes.

96425. What do you think the effect on such a class would be?—I think probably any compulsory military service if it was largely out-of-doors would be good for all classes. I should like to see it as part of the general training.

96426. Physically do you think it would be good?—Physically I think an out-of-door training part of the year would be excellent.

96427. With regard to the preparation for employment in life, what do you think its effect would be?—I think if it only came as part of their training for a short time of the year it would not have any effect one way or the other beyond the fact of making them more physically fit.

96428. Supposing it was a year's compulsory service for everybody (to take a low figure) do you think that would militate much against your system of training?—I do not see that it would militate against it; I should have thought you would rather combine the two, and not have a year all at one time. That is what I should prefer, looking at it from the standpoint of physical training.

96429. Do you think, again, with regard to the moral effects of it that they would be good?—I think they certainly would be good.

96430. By creating habits of discipline, and so on?—Having some discipline would be excellent for all classes.

96431. Do you notice much change in the character of family life or in the existence of it? Do you think the family ties are growing weaker?—Speaking from impression, I should say certainly among the poorer classes. One cannot bring statistics to bear upon that, but from experience of twelve years in London, I should say there was a tendency to weakening among the poorer classes.

Mr. Reginald A. Bray.

16 Mar. 1908

How far children of artisans follow the parent's occupation.

Intelligent unskilled workmen wanted.

Characteristics of the semi-criminal class.

Possibility of their being utilised.

Compulsory military training.

Physical and moral advantages of training.

Present tendency to weaken family ties. Its causes.

Mr. Reginald A. Bray. 96432. Do you think that is connected at all with the evils you mention in your statement?—It is partly that, no doubt. It is partly, I think, due to the very great struggle of the parents to keep the home together. I think it goes to pieces under the incessant wear and tear.

Effect of the boy contributing to the family revenue. 96433. Would you say that the contributing to the family revenue was an agent in keeping it together?—To some extent it makes the parent try and keep the boy at home. This may not be an unmixed good. The parent is afraid to exercise any discipline over the boy when he gets to be about sixteen or seventeen, because if he does the boy may leave home; to that limited extent it may be said that the earnings of the boys keeps the family together.

96434. Do you think the fact that he contributes to the family resources appeals to his imagination as a member of the family, and makes the family more real to him?—I should not say that this is generally the case.

96435. Have you had much experience of country life and country boys?—To some extent, yes.

Effect of the proposed system for training boys for agricultural labourers. 96436. What do you think the effect of the kind of training you propose would have upon the country? Take, for instance, the question of depopulation. You know, of course, that any rise in the standard of living tends to move them from the country; they get into railway service, the police, and so forth.—Yes.

96437. Do you think your system would increase that or diminish it?—I think if you made him an intelligent agricultural labourer, so that he could be worth more money, and he might very easily be worth more money (I do a good deal of farming myself on Saturdays and Sundays), you might be able to keep him more in the country.

96438. Have you anything you could say to us with regard to the system by which you would propose to train the boy to be a highly-paid agricultural labourer?—That would be a matter partly of his general education, partly of developing an interest in natural things and partly of special training; a boy might learn a considerable amount about machinery (almost all agriculture depends largely on the use of machinery at present) or he could specialise more in the feeding of animals.

96439. Taking machinery first, a boy who is a mechanic and brought up to go with a steam engine, is hardly an agricultural labourer in that sense, is he?—No.

96440. He would no doubt be resident in the country, but his tastes and aptitude would be for machinery, and he would probably be drafted off in time to employment in the towns?—On the other hand, if a boy goes out with a modern reaper and binder he ought to be skilled in machinery; he is not, and the result is that the reaper and binder lasts but a very short time.

96441. That particular position is not very attractive to a boy with ambitions?—No, because of the low earnings and the poor prospects.

Desirability of more intelligent labourers on the land. 96442. It is very difficult to imagine a state of things in which an attainable amount of knowledge on the part of a boy would guarantee him earnings which would make a country life attractive to him?—To put it the other way, I think we want more intelligent people on the land, and I am sure the farmers could afford to pay for more intelligent people on the land, if they could get them, but they cannot get them at present.

96443. You do not think either that there is a great demand for intelligence?—Yes. You want to create that demand. We have got into a bad way in agriculture, and wages have been kept low.

Training in the feeding and diseases of animals. 96444. Take the second point, more particularly with regard to animals. What kind of training had you in mind there that would be given?—It would be training to a large extent connected with the feeding of animals, which is a special thing, and they could be trained in the simple diseases of animals.

Possible effect of additional efficiency on agricultural labourers' wages. 96445. What rise in an agricultural labourer's wages do you think that kind of additional knowledge would be calculated to bring in?—It would be very difficult to say, but there is certainly a large margin for increased pay for increased efficiency. I have gone over fields sown with grass seed where there was a loss of certainly

10 per cent. of the crop due to bad sowing; 10 per cent on that crop might have been worth 3s. or 4s. an acre. That is a single instance.

96446. To sum it up generally, you would not despair of making a career for an educated labourer in the country sufficiently attractive to keep him there?—No, I think not, if you give him such a chance as he has got now of getting a holding of his own and working his way up from there.

96447. Have you contemplated the kind of machinery that would be necessary to give that training?—The main thing is, I think, the general training, because a boy who leaves school at fourteen falls off in general intelligence. But if you get him interested in country things you would prevent that loss of intelligence, and would also tend to keep him in the country. On the other hand, he would learn to put together and repair such machines as are used on the farm.

96448. Would that be by a system of apprenticeship or a system of teaching?—Not necessarily a formal apprenticeship, but an application of the half-time system.

96449. Your idea would be in the country a system of continuation schools in the winter, in which boys would learn these various things?—I should prefer, if one could arrange it, for the half-time system, but, no doubt, in the country, to some extent, you would have to be satisfied with some compromise.

96450. The difficulty is that that implies, does it not, practically a large staff of itinerant teachers. The same man who taught with regard to economical sowing of grass seed would not teach with regard to the component parts of a steam engine?—No.

96451. Do you see your way to organising any system?—Is there any difficulty in organising itinerant teachers? The county councils in the country do it to some extent now for instruction in woodwork and drill. I do not think there is any special difficulty in that way.

96452. (Mr. Gardiner.) In answer to Mr. Phelps, you spoke about the creation of a residual class of boys. Have you had much experience of the enforcing of the Industrial Schools Act?—Not very much experience myself; not personal experience.

96453. Could you give us any information on the matter?—As to the actual effect?

96454. First of all as to the extent to which the Act of 1866 is enforced?—I am afraid I have not any figures I could give you in connection with that.

96455. Could you put them in?—I could get hold of them, I have no doubt, without much difficulty.

96456. It has been stated here and elsewhere that this growth of the hooligan class, in so far as it is a class, is the result of the non-enforcement of the Industrial Schools Act?—I could get the figures to show how far that has been enforced without much difficulty, but I have not them here. (See App. No. XV.).

96457. Have you yourself much experience of the difficulty of getting convictions?—I have not had much actual experience of the enforcement of the Industrial Schools Act.

96458. Neither in the country nor in London?—No.

96459. You could not tell us about the provision of industrial schools officers in the country?—No.

96460. Why is it your day industrial schools are not full?—I do not quite know why they are not full.

96461. When they were first set up great things were expected. We used to be told they were going to be the solution of all sorts of difficulties?—I cannot say.

96462. So far as numbers go, they are a failure?—Yes in their present condition. But I am hopeful we may use them for other purposes.

96463. Yet we are told on the other hand there is a serious increase in what is sometimes called the "hooligan" class?—Yes.

96464. Those boys ought to be prevented growing into hooligans, ought they not?—Yes.

96465. By the education authority, whatever it is?—Yes.

96466. And yet these day industrial schools are practically empty?—They are not used as they were.

Hopes of keeping educated labourer in the country.

Training necessary for him.

No form of apprenticeship but half-time system.

Organisation of itinerant teachers.

The Industrial School Act. No information.

Apparent failure of industrial schools.

Question
wh becomes
of a group of
boy as
street sellers.

96467. (*Mr. Loch.*) Have you worked out at all in detail any particular group of boys as to their industries, and seen what they become later on; for instance, street sellers?—No, I have not.

96468. Are the street trading regulations in London carried out to any extent?—The recent County Council bye-laws are enforced, I do not know to what extent,

96469. They would touch, would they not, a large class that you are illustrating?—Yes, the street trading class.

96470. Therefore, more or less the measure of their effect, taken as one force, on this class should be taken into account?—Yes.

Possibility
of controlling
new boys,
et and
training their
after career.

96471. Take the Birmingham experience; there they have a newsboys' brigade, and they limit the boys that go in by the bye-laws and control them to some extent?—Yes.

96472. The note that I have here is that out of 400 boys licenced for the two years during which these bye-laws have been in force it was impossible to trace about half, they had left their addresses, and their whereabouts were unknown. Of the rest, a large number, eighty-three boys of fourteen and fifteen, and eleven boys of sixteen, had become shoe hands; seventeen had gone into hosiery factories; and seventeen young boys were described as messenger boys; while only five continued as newsboys over sixteen. If that is an illustration of what can be done apart from any special machinery but by looking after the boys who are brigaded by the bye-laws, does it not seem that these boys, who are more or less outcast in the point of view of street sellers, do turn out better than people generally expect?—It would follow from that that they did; but they were really specially looked after, were they not?

96473. They were looked after in connection with street trading, which is one outlet, I understand, for this class of boy?—Yes.

96474. Therefore, if we in London looked after the street trader just as they have in this instance, without any further complication as to education, might we not expect as good a result?—Yes, I suppose you would expect that.

Act of
educative
em-
ment.

96475. Is there not, therefore, quite another attack on this subject beyond the educational attack which you submit to us?—I do not think that this is really the case, even with this type of boy; you do not continue any sort of education for him; you do not continue any training in intelligence, and certainly, judging from my own experience, when they have been through about four years of ordinary work they are much less intelligent than they were when they were boys; you see the result in the large number of the unemployed.

tent to
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s would
benefit from
half-
the scheme.

96476. What evidence have you to show that these boys handled as you propose to handle them, so far as the experiment has been tried in any form, do at the present moment get any better berths?—So far as it has actually been done, do you mean?

96477. As far as it has been done?—I can only say that we have made arrangements with certain employers who do let their boys off on Saturday afternoons, or other half days, to attend certain classes. The silversmiths have done this. For a time we had to pay the boys extra wages, because the masters deducted the wages, but now the silversmiths tell us that the boys are so much improved that they will pay them the full wages, even although they are allowed off time to attend our classes. That would show that certainly in that particular case they get real benefit from it.

96478. That is a better class, is it not?—That is certainly the better class; we have not attempted to tackle the lower classes at all.

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96479. You ask a very large expenditure on behalf of the nation on what is, after all, not even experimental. I understand you to say there is really no evidence that this would turn out as you suggest?—There may be no statistical evidence, but general arguments justify the conclusion. The most critical point of a boy's career is just the time when he leaves school: he has been looked after very carefully up to fourteen by the schoolmaster, then he is suddenly thrown on the world with nobody to look after him: if you believe in any form of education you must believe that if you had control over that boy for half-time for four years you would be able to exercise a beneficial influence on his character.

96480. Admitting the desirability of looking after children at that time of their lives, the proposal you make is one specific proposal of a very expensive nature?—Yes.

96481. There is no experimental evidence of that in the direction that you yourself submitted to us in regard to the class of boy that is most likely to go wrong?—There is no experimental evidence that I know of.

96482. Now let me take you to what I think is experimental evidence; have you followed closely at all the industrial school movement?—I am not very familiar with the industrial school movement.

96483. May I suggest this, that that movement has succeeded, as I think it has personally, largely by reason of the fact that the education has been of a type very different from what is usually supplied in our elementary schools?—Yes.

Question of
types of
education.

96484. If that be so, not only would you ask, as I understand, large help for education, but you would ask large help for education which is very different to what is usually supplied?—Do you mean that I am suggesting a different type of education?

96485. Not only that, but this education which they get is largely institutional?—In the industrial schools?

96486. Yes. You do not propose anything of that "Motor" type in your suggestion?—In my half-time it is certainly largely technical of a kind, or rather what one would usually term now motor education, because an immense number of these boys you would not train in a skilled trade, but you would teach them very much the use of the hand.

96487. The other part of the time you would teach them in their homes?—Yes.

96488. Surely the difference is greater in taking them to an institution where they are altogether institutionalised for the time being?—It would be a different effect.

96489. We have one step further to go, not only is that so, but we have the day industrial schools; they are really not half-time, but practically whole-time, with a home influence?—Yes.

Use proposed
to be made of
day industrial
schools.

96490. Why is it that no one connected with the council who are working out these things, lays any stress on the day industrial school system, and yet it has the very element of the problem in it?—I agree one might do more with the day industrial schools. As a matter of fact the council has decided to use them for children of parents who are away during the day.

96491. Why should not your day industrial schools be your system carried on, if necessary, in later life?—You are still dealing with just the absolute residuum, the lowest type of all?

96492. I am dealing with those about whom there is most talk, van boys, street sellers, and such like?—Van boys, telegraph boys and all those?

96493. Messenger boys and all that sort?—It would be very unfair to class all these with the residual class who would come under the Industrial Schools Act. I have been going through the occupations of the parents of a number of boys in our Return on the occupations of boys as they leave school, and find artisans and all kinds of skilled workers sending their boys as district messengers and van boys.

Question
how to deal
with van
boys, etc.
Day
industrial
schools.
suggested.

96494. Do not let us quarrel about the fact of their being industrial school boys, I am only talking about the sort of education?—If you mean the sort of education given in the day industrial schools, I think to a large extent that is an education which would be given in a good many of what I should call the half-time schools.

96495. The day industrial school education commence earlier than fourteen?—Yes.

96496. Do you not find actually in the schools that at the earlier age than this, thirteen or fourteen, when the children leave, the characteristics of the children show that something is wanting other than the elementary education they are receiving?—I agree altogether. We want much more, in some of the poorer schools certainly, of the semi-industrial training, or rather, as we now call it, motor education; we are trying one or two schools now.

96497. If that is so, does not this difficulty we have to deal with later in life become a difficulty which it is more

Mr. Reginald A. Bray. proper to deal with during the normal school life?—I think you will never really deal with it if you let the boy go out at fourteen.

16 Mar. 1908. 96498. Let us put that question aside; is it not the fact that the boys while in school show at an earlier age the necessity for this type of education?—Certain of them; I agree with that.

96499. That class would be largely the same class of boy that might go wrong in the miscellaneous labour market later on?—He might form part of that class. It is rather the slow developing boy and the unintelligent boy who comes into that class, not the very bright boy; the very sharp boy would not come into that category and yet might very likely go wrong.

Type of industrial education needed at an early age

96500. Admitted. I want to bring the question before you whether it is not that we should try to get an industrial education of a different type at an earlier age?—That I agree with altogether.

96501. When we come to the boys later on, when they leave school, there is a gap between the work of manhood and their leaving school?—Yes.

96502. That I understand you to say?—Yes.

96503. During that period, have we any experience of a kind of education other than that I have mentioned, namely, the industrial type, which should be given them?—I am not quite sure what you mean. What boys are we actually dealing with?

Evil effects of some employments on boys.

96504. Dealing with those of the type you mention, that you want to look after at this period?—My point is that these lads when they get to be eighteen are very much less intelligent than they were at fourteen. At fourteen I have known them bright and intelligent; then they have gone into this work which has often been well paid, but at which they get no sort of education, and at eighteen they write worse, they speak worse, and they are quite unintelligent. You would say they had never had any satisfactory sort of education at all. It is the work which does it, it is not only the boy who would go into the industrial school, but some of the very smartest and most intelligent boys are spoilt in this way; boys I have picked out myself as boys I should imagine would do well.

96505. I am not contesting your issue, I am simply trying how best to deal with it. I am suggesting that at an earlier age you might deal with the question to prevent further degeneration?—That would be true as regards the subnormal child and child of late development, but there is no degeneration with the ordinary or the specially bright child.

How the half-time system would train boys as intelligent unskilled labourers.

96506. What has struck one very much is that unless a boy is obviously fitted for some skilled work later on, or so-called skilled work, the best thing for him very frequently is work of a different type altogether, which, as you said, would be a general education?—Yes.

96507. Do you think that your half-time system could be brought into your plan for providing the boy with the general education he wants, unless you make it largely industrial education?—There would be an industrial side, I quite admit.

Possible labour opposition to half-time.

96508. If you make it a skilled industrial education, would you not have the forces of labour against you; would you not find yourself dealing with a large number of boys skilled up to a point, and putting them into the labour market, either to join the unions or to be out of it altogether?—I think there is some confusion here. I have not for the moment in view the training of the skilled workman. I want to create the intelligent unskilled labourer. Some part of his training must be of an industrial character; he must learn to use his hands. No doubt we could pick out certain who would be fitted for a skilled trade and give them appropriate training, but I am not advocating the training of everyone for a skilled trade. It is the person destined to remain an unskilled labourer that I am thinking of particularly.

Proposed training of boys engaged in skilled trades in their appropriate trade.

96509. You are not providing, therefore, at all for boys who might do entirely better work than unskilled work?—I should not quite say that. Those who are already engaged in some skilled trade would under the half-time system receive an all-round training in their appropriate trade. There would, of course, be various types of school, and the boys would be sorted out into

these types of schools according to their capacities and according to their occupations. We should undoubtedly provide for the skilled worker of the future, but those likely never to run above the level of the unskilled worker would receive a different training. I do not want one type of school, but many types.

96510. You do not think that you would at all interfere with the trade union ways of working?—I do not see that it should interfere in any way, any more than our technical classes do now. To a large extent where a boy has entered a skilled trade we should provide a large amount of training, but then he would have actually entered the trade.

96511. Then practically you would say that your half-time work would be a sort of public school apprenticeship?—Yes.

96512. With a large margin allowed for unskilled labour?—Yes.

96513. Do you really think that the system of teaching which is within our reach at present sufficiently shows you what should be done to justify you in asking for an enormous sum of money for it?—I think it shows what should be done with the skilled. With regard to the unskilled, I should be perfectly willing to say that the expenditure would be justified if we could have educational control over these boys during half-time for four years. We could watch over their physical health. A great deal is known about physical health, and physical training now. When you come to the mental side, that is, of course, more difficult; but even so, we know a certain amount about the educational development of the mind, and we can teach such subjects as handicrafts which would help in the development of the mind. So it is not pure experiment; we have the whole educational experience of the past to draw on.

96514. Have you yourself seen at work the half-time system as we now have it?—No, I have never seen it at work. We have no half-time in London.

96515. You have never seen the effect of it then on children up to fourteen?—No, I have not.

96516. What will be the effect of this method, do you think? The idea is that there will be a rise of wage for the boy labour, is it not?—There would be some rise, in such positions as district messengers, van boys, and that kind of thing.

96517. Would it be enough to recoup the parent for the boy standing out from full employment and living longer on him, as it were?—Not unless, as would probably happen in many trades, it was accompanied by a tendency to substitute adult in place of boy labour.

96518. But supposing the men came in, they would be unskilled men, would they not?—At the present time they would.

96519. They would be the parties who would come forward for the work that the boy left?—Yes.

96520. Then you would have men who would be practically earning boys' wages?—No, I do not think you would get that, because they would not work for boys' wages. The employer would be in this difficulty, that he would find that the boys that he had to employ on half-time were rather troublesome in that way, and though it might be difficult, it would pay him to put in a man instead, but then he would have to pay that man a man's wages.

96521. Take the lower class of wages in London in the most transitory range of labour; what would you say they amount to?—Do you mean the worst kind?

96522. Yes?—I suppose if it was regular, it would not drop below about 18s.

96523. What would a boy get now?—It would depend of course, on his age. I suppose he might rise to 18s. by the time he reached eighteen years of age.

96524. Is there, then, such a great difference between the boy labouring and the man labouring?—There probably is not a great difference between highest pay of the lad at eighteen and the lowest pay of the adult.

96525. So that you think the adult at eighteen would come in and take a wage equal to the boy's?—Where the lowest paid adult took the place of the highest paid lad of the age of eighteen this might happen, but not otherwise.

Trade union not interfered with. Proposed public apprenticeship in a large margin for unskilled labour.

Advantages of the scheme.

Witness as no experience of a half-time system.

Effect of the system on wages of boys.

Effect of the system on parents. Possible substitution of adult for boy labour.

Effect on employer.

Men's and boys' wages in London compared.

96526. If there is a difficulty in his getting a livelihood, as according to your Statement there is in London, would the man not be forced to take boy's labour and do it even if it was only a matter of 15s. or 16s. a week or something of that kind? You are opening, as it were, by your own statement, a new market for his labour?—I am increasing the demand for adult unskilled labour beyond what it is at present, but I am not changing the supply, and if I increase the demand, the natural thing is that I shall increase the amount that must be paid for it.

96527. It should not affect the standard wage that the employer was willing to pay for that type of labour, otherwise you would have sweating all over again, would you not?—Yes. But I do not think that is probable, and that does not seem to me what would happen. Admitting the actual sweating industries, which I suppose one will have to deal with by themselves, I do not think you will find that employers would try to get these men at sweated rates, because it would be exceedingly difficult to get them for 14s. or 15s. a week; the men would not take the work—except just a few, they would say they would not work at all. What would happen, I believe, is that you would rather raise the wages of unskilled labour by making a greater demand for it; that would be the natural economic result.

96528. You would raise the demand by giving them half the days of the boys, that is, the half time which the boy was taken away for school would be work available for the man?—Yes, but not, of course, on that particular job. What would happen would be that the employer would say: "I am not going to employ boys in this way; I will have men instead." In other cases they would say: "Very well; I will have two boys instead of one boy." What they would not do would be to say: "I will have a boy on half-time, and I will have a man for the other half-time." I do not think that would happen.

96529. You do not think they would rather have a man at a low wage such as they paid before and keep the boy entirely out of it?—I think they would do one or the other. I think they would either dispense with boys or they would work them on the two-shift system. The district messengers would not have the least difficulty in working with two shifts of boys.

96530. If they take the bold course and get rid of the boys altogether your system would fail, would it not?—If they got rid of the boys altogether then there would be an immense demand for unskilled labour as they would have to replace the boys by something; and that greater demand would raise the wages of unskilled labour because there would be more competition for it.

96531. But the boy would be left out?—Yes.

96532. And, therefore, he would be half his time idle and half his time at school?—Not necessarily, because if one employer dispenses with boys, all could not do this. The half-time system would diminish the supply of boys by one-half, so that if half the employers gave up boys there would be enough work left for the remainder.

96533. Are you not counting—for that is what it comes to—on a market which will take absolutely certain definite forms, whereas you cannot control those forms and you cannot foretell what they will be?—The half-time system will be one of the conditions to which the market will have to conform.

96534. But what the reactions may be from your intervention you cannot control?—Of course, in all economic things it is amazingly difficult to prophesy.

96535. You would affect 80,000 children, I understand?—Actually 70,000 children.

96536. And that would be running on from year to year?—Yes.

96537. So your interference with the labour market would be gigantic?—Yes.

96538. Do you think that all those 70,000 children would want the half-time?—Yes, I do; that events show that we must retain some control over children between the ages of fourteen and eighteen.

96539. (*Mr. Patten-MacDougall.*) There are in existence now evening continuation schools, are there not?—Yes.

96540. Those, of course, are voluntary?—They are quite voluntary.

96541. How far do they obtain in the rural districts? *Mr. Reginald A. Bray.*
—I believe in some rural districts they exist; but I could not speak with much experience on rural districts.

96542. Are they largely taken advantage of?—A considerable number attend. I suppose that at our evening schools in London very nearly 100,000 of all districts. ages would be enrolled at one time or another; but then they would not be regular attendants.

96543. You do not know what the attendance is?—It is a very difficult thing to give figures representing the attendance because the conditions vary so enormously. Some go just for one class, others to many; and then a lot enrol themselves and only make a few attendances.

96544. I understand your proposal is that in every elementary school in England there should be in future appliances for teaching these half-timers?—Not in every elementary school. We should not have it in London in any elementary schools, as we should have special centres in London. Of course, in some small remote village you might have to run it in connection with the village school; but as a rule you would make use of special centres.

96545. How about the rural districts?—There I would say that you might have to do it in connection with the elementary school.

96546. Of course, you could not have the boy if he were working half the day in one place, attending school in working at a centre in another place?—No, you could not.

96547. That would be an impossible condition of things, would it not?—Yes.

96548. And otherwise the expense would be enormous?—Yes.

96549. Your scheme is that in the rural districts, say, in an area where there are three or four elementary schools providing for the children now, possibly there might be one centre for the half-timers; is that it?—I was thinking of one parish that I know, in which there are four villages and about 300 children; that would mean about thirty on half-time in each year, or a total of 120 half-timers; it would be worth while putting up a centre for them which you could arrange more or less mid-way between the villages.

96550. Would that not necessitate their almost giving up their whole time to their school work? They could not work where they lived and then go to this centre for the half-time schooling, could they?—Yes; it would be no great distance.

96551. Would that apply all over England?—That would have to be worked out, but I do not think there should be any difficulty in working it out for all England. Of, course, conceivably, in the purely agricultural districts it might be necessary to have instead of a half-day system a half-week system; or you could vary it in many ways; so that the boy spent the whole day at school for a certain time. I have no doubt that in agricultural districts plans could be devised that would work easily.

96552. Would it work in sparsely populated parts of the country, say in Scotland, because the system must be applied all round, you know?—I do not see why it should not work wherever there is an elementary school. If the elementary school system can work, I do not see why this system should not work with the necessary variations, as I have said, of working for a whole day and then off for a whole day. You can get numerous varieties. Then, as somebody has suggested you might perhaps do it more during the winter; in Scotland probably that would be easier than taking the shortened days.

96553. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) First about finance: Did I understand you aright that your estimate is that it would be £1,100,000 per annum in London?—Yes, cost in London.

96554. Is that for the first year?—That would represent the maximum and include all the half-timers in the four years.

96555. In arriving at that estimate do you suppose that it would be necessary to provide accommodation for the whole of the children at one and the same time?—No. I am assuming that it is the half-time system but I provide accommodation for the whole time, so that every place I find means two places for the half-timers.

16 Mar. 1908.

Mr. Reginald
A. Bray.

16 Mar. 1908.

Employ-
ments lend-
ing them-
selves to
half-time.

Witness
formerly a
guardian at
Camberwell.
Scattered
home system.

The boys
went to work
at 14.

They got no
industrial
training.

The system
answered
fairly well.

Occupations
entered by
the boys.

How far the
intelligence
of London
boys is
affected by
their work.

96556. That is to say, you do not contemplate that all the children would be under instruction at one and the same moment, but that only half of them would?—Yes.

96557. You would have a morning school and an afternoon school and some would come in the morning and some in the afternoon?—Yes.

96558. Otherwise your figures would be considerably increased?—Very considerably.

96559. Do you think that the arrangement contemplated would be practicable?—I think that would be practicable.

96560. Are there occupations which would lend themselves to an arrangement of that sort where the boys could be employed in the morning and free in the afternoon, or *vice versa*?—It seems to me that with a very large number like the district messengers and the van boys there should be no great difficulty.

96561. Do you think there would be a sufficient number of them to enable the arrangements you have in view to be carried out?—I think so.

96562. You were a guardian at one time, were you not?—Yes.

96563. Was that in Camberwell?—Yes.

96564. There they have the scattered home system, I think?—Yes.

96565. At what age did they let the boys go to work?—They let them go at about fourteen—as soon as they were free from school control.

96566. Whilst they were under the guardians did they get any industrial training?—No, not in the scattered homes when I was a guardian. But the system had only recently been started then.

96567. And they got no instruction beyond that which they received in the elementary schools to which they went?—Yes.

96568. Have you any knowledge how the boys turned out afterwards?—The system had not been going on long enough when I was a guardian to say; but to some extent it seemed to answer fairly because the boys used to come back again to the homes and see their foster-parents.

96569. What occupations did they generally go to from Camberwell?—More or less unskilled and uneducative in character; they became shop-boys or something of that kind.

96570. Newspaper-boys, and so on?—Yes. They would just see who the employer was and then let him have a boy; a shop-keeper would have a boy and so on?

96571. Did they exercise any control as to the arrangements for the boy, namely, as to his hours and as to suggesting that he should go to a continuation school and so forth?—They would try to persuade him to go to a continuation school.

96572. You do not know perhaps how far that was successful?—No, I could not answer that.

96573. (*Miss Hill*). Do I understand you to say that you found a London boy who had been at work from fourteen to eighteen less intelligent at eighteen than he was at fourteen?—That is the case with a great many of them who have been in one of those uneducational forms of employment.

96574. I could quite have understood his being less disciplined and less valuable morally, but I should have thought his intellect as a rule was at least as alive; but that is not your experience?—Not with a large number of these. You get boys who are fond of reading who have a certain interest in intellectual pursuits, but the whole of that would go and they will have nothing but the ordinary street interests.

96575. So it was not exactly their intelligence that had diminished?—It was the way in which their intelligence was manifested.

96576. Their intelligence was devoted to another set of things?—Yes—of a kind you would naturally call less intelligent, I suppose?

96577. Have you any experience of boys who rather become less intelligent by being kept in the ordinary school where their interest would rather be in work—boys who seem to stop growing, but develop far better

with work than with continued schooling?—I think there are certain boys who would be far better with a different kind of schooling—with a schooling that had a much more strongly emphasised industrial side to it, certainly.

96578. Work is more or less educational very often, is it not?—Undoubtedly.

96579. Now with regard to the cost. Of course the cost of training these boys would be considerable, but you would have also to consider the enormous loss to the family from the postponement of their wage-earning years. It is often a very hard struggle for a man, and still more for a widow to keep his or her children until fourteen, and then if after they have become fourteen there are four more years in which they can only work half-time and consequently cannot earn full wages, that side of the finance will have to be very gravely considered, will it not?—I think so. But you see after the four years, when we have escaped from the vicious circle in which inefficient parents, by sending their children to uneducational forms of work, create inefficient men, we should get an efficient and consequently better-paid people.

96580. But you are expecting from the very poorest class of parent an investment of capital which is just what they find so difficult to make?—That is so. But then that is what all education has involved.

96581. You want to make it a great deal more costly not only to the rate-payer but to the parent also?—Yes; exactly as the ordinary elementary education increased the cost at the outset, but proved worth the expenditure in the end.

96582. You have considered that and are prepared for it?—I am prepared for it.

96583. You are prepared for a fresh tax on the poorest parents of the county?—I am prepared for that.

96584. (*Mr. Lock*.) What do you estimate would be the difference, that is, the amount that would have to be brought in to be added to the capital of the individual?—I think it is rather difficult to say.

96585. You have never made any calculation?—I do not know what data you can go on to make any calculation.

96586. (*Chairman*.) What is the expenditure on elementary education now in London?—The rate for elementary and higher education, that is, for all education, is 1s. 7d.

96587. What does each 1d. produce?—About £180,000.

96588. So that the total expenditure is about £3,500,000?—Yes. That is nett, of course, after deducting the Board of Education grants.

96589. Now you are proposing to put it up a million?—If I may deduct the Board of Education grants again it would only put the rate up 2d.

96590. Yes; but that comes out of the taxes?—Yes.

96591. What is the capital expenditure necessary to set up these schools for half-timers?—I think I put it at £40 a place.

96592. How many places?—We should want 120,000 places.

96593. Then that would be about £4,800,000?—Yes; that is assuming that we could not use a great many of the institutions we have got now. But, we could do that, as there are a large number in the Polytechnics and Technical Institutes with vacant places during the day.

96594. What is your sinking fund based on?—I took it at £40 a place.

96595. Then your estimate is a very high one?—I have taken a high estimate.

96596. Mrs. Webb asked you a question as regards the difficulty of successful administration where certain subjects were divided between different authorities; by different authorities I assume you mean not different committees of the London County Council, but distinct and separate authorities such as a board of guardians?—Yes.

96597. You would not call the statutory education committee a separate authority to the London County Council, would you?—No.

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96598. Where you have got these committees working in co-operation, the difficulty which you mention of separate authorities who are interested in the same question is to a large extent, diminished, I suppose?—Yes.

96599. (*Mr. Bentham.*) With regard to statistics, I notice that in Mr. Jackson's Report he has not put the total number of boys. According to the last census returns of the total number of boys of fifteen years returned as employed there is a decrease of 12·9 per cent. as compared with the number in 1891; while in regard to the number of messenger boys at the same age, the number has only declined 5·1 per cent. Then a little later it is stated that in the last decennial period the number of persons engaged in the telegraph and telephone services has increased from 14,955 to 22,819, or by 52·6 per cent. Therefore if it had not been for the large increase in the employment of messenger boys in the telegraph and telephone services the reduction in the number of messengers would have been considerable because there was a reduction of 5·1 in the last decennial period; so that really the number of boys employed in that way is a decreasing one?—I am not quite clear about those figures. Where do they come from?

96600. From the General Census of the whole country?—One would have to go into those figures to see just what they meant. One could not answer what was their real significance across the table.

96601. While there has been a steady decrease in boy-labour at fifteen years of age, during the last quarter of a century, there has been a more marked decrease during the last decade?—I have not the figures before me.

Mr. RICHARD HENRY TAWNEY, called; and Examined.

96610. (*Chairman.*) You have been good enough to prepare for us a very able and interesting Paper which we may take as your Evidence-in-chief?—Yes.

(*The Witness handed in the following Statement.*)

1. UNEMPLOYMENT AND BOY LABOUR IN GLASGOW.

I. I am Junior Assistant to Professor Smart at Glasgow University, and since October last have been resident in Glasgow. Since January I have been supplied, by the kindness of the Parish Council and Distress Committee officials, Charity Organisation Society workers, university students, and others, with the particulars as to the previous records of labourers and tradesmen given in Paragraph 8. Since beginning that investigation, Mr. Kennedy, a university student, and myself, have been visiting employers of labour in order to ascertain the prospects before boys in different employments, with a view to assisting Mrs. Gordon of Aberdeen; and in the course of the inquiry made for that purpose we have incidentally found our own views as to the effect of boy labour confirmed. During three years residence in Whitechapel and six months in Glasgow, I have seen various aspects of unemployed administration and other industrial problems.

2. The object of these notes is to call attention to an aspect of the problem of unemployment which is believed to be generally neglected, namely, its connection with the employment of boys between the ages of fourteen and twenty in occupations within which there will be no demand for their services as men, from which they obtain no industrial qualifications likely in any way to fit them for other occupations, and out of which they are thrust at manhood into the unskilled labour market. I wish to suggest:—

(a) That the chief problem with which distress committees in large towns are at present faced is the existence of a large mass of chronically unemployed, or half unemployed, low-skilled labourers, who exist in greater numbers than are required to satisfy the demand for the only work which they can do, who constitute the bulk of the applicants for relief, and who yet cannot be relieved by the offer of temporary employment.

(b) That this mass is continually being recruited by a stream of young men from industries which

96602. (*Mr. Loch.*) You have none of those figures, *Mr. Reginald A. Bray.*

96603. There are no figures, are there?—There are no figures. 16 Mar. 1908

96604. (*Chairman.*) I rather understand you did not go into the actual statistics of the mass of boy employment, but from what you have analysed in the figures you have got, you consider, that a very large proportion went to unskilled labour?—Yes. A large proportion of boys employed recruit unskilled labour.

96605. That is your point?—That is the real point.

96606. (*Mr. Bentham.*) Whilst you do not say that the recent industrial development depended on boy-labour you do say that casual labour should be reduced considerably by influencing the lives of the boys by training them for better occupations before they grow into men. That is your position, is it not?—That you might reduce the casual employment, did you say? Possibility of a reduction of casual employment by better training.

96607. By a better training?—Yes, I think you would; because I think at present there is a considerable amount of man labour which is really not worth employing.

96608. (*Chairman.*) You would stop the flow into that sphere of work which results in casual employment?—Yes.

96609. (*Mr. Loch.*) You will affect the skilled market immensely in this proposal, because you will be bringing a great many more into it; the question is whether wages will stand as they are?—No doubt that is a question to be considered, but I want to make it clear again that I am not advocating a half-time system with a view to making everyone a skilled workman, but in order to make everyone at least an intelligent unskilled labourer. Possib'e effect of half-time scheme on the skilled labour market.

rely upon unskilled boy labour, and turn it adrift at manhood without any general or special industrial qualification; and that it will never be diminished till this stream is arrested. *Mr. Richard H. Tawney.* 16 Mar. 1908.

(c) That this drift of boys into the unskilled labour market is not caused by the absence of a demand for them in more highly paid and better organised occupations; on the contrary, it goes on in spite of a demand for artisans which brings them into Glasgow, from all parts of Scotland. Even if such a present and visible demand did not exist, it is clear that, other things being equal, occupations demanding any special qualifications, whether general intelligence, trustworthiness, or technical "skill" in the narrower sense, are less likely to be overstocked with labour, and therefore more likely to offer secure employment, than occupations such as general labouring, which demand only the single common qualification of average physical strength. No lack of demand for artisans.

3. I will take these points in order. Who are the unemployed in Glasgow? These remarks will be confined to the unemployed problem as it presents itself to the distress committee. It is frequently stated, particularly by workmen themselves, that applicants to that body are not a fair sample of the unemployed. This statement is true in the sense that in periods of industrial depression a large number of men are displaced who would not apply to the distress committee, partly because they would not mix with the class which applies, partly because they would not do the work offered. Such men—engineers, boilermakers, iron-moulders, etc., who find their weekly earnings suddenly reduced from £2 and £3 to 15s., and all their plans upset—probably suffer as much as men with a lower standard of life, who are more obviously on the verge of starvation. Since, however, they are, when in work, able to save money, the immediate effect of unemployment on their families is not so injurious. Moreover, the distress committee is at present hampered in dealing with this class, because it is flooded with applications from men who are continuously on the verge of distress. Before a successful attempt can be made to deal with temporary intermittent unemployment, it is necessary to find a way of diminishing the number of persons whose unemployment is chronic. It is the latter problem alone that I shall discuss. How far applicants to distress committees are a fair sample of the employed. Necessary to diminish the chronic employed.

Mr. Richard H. Tawney. 4. An analysis of the applications made to the Glasgow Distress Committee shows the following noticeable facts :—

16 Mar. 1908.

Figures of applications to the Glasgow Distress Committee. Preponderance of low-skilled labour.

(i.) There is the usual preponderance of unskilled or low-skilled labour such as is found in other towns. This is shown by the following figures :—

	Glasgow.			Dundee.
	Relief Committee, 1904-5.	Distress Committee, 1905-6.	Distress Committee, 1906-7.	Distress Committee, 1906-7.
Total applicants	6,300	2,443	2,199 (total males investigated)	787
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Tradesmen -	22·4	24·1	30·6	9·3
Labourers -	63·7	64·7	49·5	90·7
Carmen -	4·4	4·3	2·8	—
Miscellaneous -	9·3	6·6	16·4	—

Report of the Central Unemployed Body (London) for 1908.

The preponderance of labourers and carmen shown above corresponds very closely to the state of things which the report for the year 1905 of the Central Unemployed Body (London) revealed there. The figures for London were arranged slightly differently, but they show 55·8 per cent. of the applicants (at least) were labourers, and that 18·8 were engaged in transport, i.e., carmen, who in practice are often recruited from and recruit the ranks of "general" labour.

(ii.) In the case of a considerable number of applicants to the distress committee, distress is not the result of some unusual crisis or misfortune, but it is a chronic condition. This point is well put by the investigator (an official of the Parish Council) who visited homes of applicants to the relief committee of 1904-5, and who writes as follows :—

" I think I am safe in saying that out of (every) twenty applicants, five of these have been at the parish. . . . For the third year in succession it has been my duty to visit and report on these applications, and in so doing I have come across the self-same men, and have in many cases found them to be living in the same conditions as they were the previous year. . . . When I find a man who was with us last year, I am careful to inquire how much work he has done since. Almost without exception, I am informed that they have only done a day now and again."

The substantial justice of these remarks is borne out by the figures relating to applications received by the distress committee in 1906-7. Out of 2,199 men investigated, 78 per cent. had been less than three months in their last situation; 461, or 25·9 per cent., had applied to the distress committee in previous years.

(iii.) There is an alarmingly large number of young men among the applicants to the distress committee. It is frequently stated that an important cause of unemployment is the dismissal of old men who are unable to keep up the pace required in modern industry. Such men certainly constitute a serious problem, and information gathered from employers shows that in certain occupations, particularly engineering, boilermaking, and iron shipbuilding, men have little chance of finding a fresh situation after fifty or even forty-five. I wish, however, to suggest that the extremely high proportion which comparatively young men form of all applicants is a much more disquieting feature even than the general shortening of the working life, if only because it means that a large number of men are out of work—sometimes more or less continuously out of work—at an age when their children cannot possibly be in a position to fend for themselves.

The following figures show the situation for the past three years in Glasgow, and for the past year in Edinburgh :—

	Total Occupied Males.	Relief Committee, 1904-5.	Distress Committee, 1905-6.	Distress Committee, 1906-7.
GLASGOW.				
Under 20 -	17·1	3·4	1·9	2
Over 20 and under 45 -	60·6	*69·4	*69·8	*65·2
45 and over -	22·3	*27	*27·8	*32·7
EDINBURGH.				
Under 20 -	15·9	—	—	3·5
Over 20 and under 45 -	59·4	—	—	*63
45 and over -	24·7	—	—	*33·5

Figures for three years in Glasgow and the last year in Edinburgh.

5. Though the proportion of applicants between twenty and forty-five is, of course, swollen owing to the fact that there are so few applications under twenty, these figures show that men between twenty and forty-five form a considerable high proportion of those who are in distress. Moreover, these figures do not adequately represent the extent to which chronic unemployment exists among young men in certain occupations. They refer only to the ages of unemployed in all trades grouped together, whereas, if the ages of men belonging to different occupations could be examined separately, it would almost certainly be found that the average age of the unemployed in some industries is much lower than it is in others. As the clerk of the Distress Committee has not yet completed the work of taking out these figures separately, I am unable to give any proof of this. But it will probably be the case that the occupations where the unemployed are largely young men are those of general labourers, builders' labourers, and carmen, while the occupations in which they are mainly old men are industries such as engineering and metal work, where speed, dexterity, and a quick eye are essential.

That this is so, is suggested by the fact that in Partick and Govan, where 43 per cent. and 63 per cent. respectively of the applicants are drawn from the shipbuilding and engineering industries, the proportion of men over forty-five among the unemployed is far higher than it is in Glasgow itself—58·9 per cent. and 62·1 per cent. against 41·6 per cent. Conversely, in Glasgow, where most of the applicants are general labourers, the proportion of men under forty-five is much higher than in Partick and Govan. If, after further inquiry, it should be found to be generally the case that among general labourers who are unemployed a larger number than in other occupations are comparatively young men, what is said later with regard to the connection between unemployment and the continual recruiting of the unskilled labour market by youths who are dismissed at manhood with no industrial qualifications would receive some additional confirmation. But it is not desired to emphasise this particular point. In any case, whatever the precise age-distribution of different groups of unemployed men may be, it is evident from the figures quoted above that a large number of these men are unemployed, or casually employed, not through old age, but at the very period when their physical and mental energy should be at the strongest. Very many of them are by no means, as it is often said that they are, the "veterans of industry." On the contrary, they are its raw recruits. During the last three winters (1904-5, 1905-6, 1906-7) 3,273 men under thirty years of age applied for relief to the Glasgow committees dealing with the unemployed. Nor is it even true that chronic, as opposed to occasional, distress is confined to the aged. Of the 461 men who applied in Glasgow for relief in 1906-7, after also applying for relief in 1905-6, as many as 312, or 67·9 per cent., were under forty-five years of age. It was stated above that the main

Significance of above figures.

Proportion of unemployed over 45 in Govan and Partick compared at Glasgow.

Many unemployed recruits of industry.

* These figures are calculated from returns showing the number of applicants between twenty and thirty, thirty and forty, forty and sixty; this classification, adopted by distress committees, is not comparable, as it stands, with the census.

About five in every twenty applicants chronic unemployed.

Alarming number of young men out of work.

problem confronting distress committees was that of the "unskilled labourer who is chronically unemployed or half-employed." In view of these facts, one may surely add, "who is usually in the prime of life, and frequently little more than a youth." It appears to me impossible to exaggerate the seriousness of the fact that so many men should be out of work on the threshold of manhood, when they have, in all probability, thirty years of married life before them. If these things are done in the green tree, what will be done in the dry?

6. The explanation offered of the phenomenon of chronic want of employment among unskilled labourers in normal times is that there is in Glasgow and other towns a permanent over-supply of that class of labour which has little other qualification than is given by average physical strength. The whole class of low-skilled labourers could only be fully employed in normal times if it were either to increase its efficiency, or, its efficiency remaining the same, to accept a lower wage. Neither of these things happening, it is the victim of chronic unemployment. But in practice its unemployment takes the form, not of the full employment of some men, and the complete worklessness of others, but of partial or casual employment for a large number—a condition of things which tends to mask the very fact of a permanent surplus of unskilled labour, which is the most important element in the situation. It is the existence of this surplus, and not the mere want of mobility among workmen, which alone makes casual labour possible. Bricklayers are not more mobile * than bricklayers' labourers; but except in periods of seasonal or cyclical depression the former are employed fairly regularly, while the latter, even in the best times, are employed irregularly. The reason is that, when contractor A has finished the brickwork on his house, contractor B, who is building a house in some other part of the town, is glad to take the bricklayers who have been employed by A, with the result that these men pass from job to job with the minimum of interval at the end of each. But the position of the bricklayers' labourers who leave contractor A at the same time as the bricklayers is very different. Contractor B can pick as many of them as he wants anywhere in the town, without being obliged to take on the men who have just finished a job. In normal times, his foreman has only got to go to the gate, and he finds a dozen men ready to carry a hod. Hence, while skilled men pass from job to job, and are, as it were, welcomed, unskilled labour does not pass with nearly the same readiness, and therefore does not have anything like the same continuity of employment. The bricklayers who finish a job in the north of the town, find that the building on the south side is ready to take them on; the labourers, when they leave their first job, know that there are plenty of labourers already on the south side, and that there is no reason why the foreman should take men from a distance instead of picking them up round the corner. In other words, so long as there is a surplus of labour, employers are under no pressure to employ the same body of men regularly, and the phenomenon of casual labour necessarily appears. This example intentionally exaggerates the situation. As a matter of fact, employer B will know in practice that some of A's labourers are steadier men than he could get in his own neighbourhood, that they mix mortar better and are generally handier, and will keep a look-out for them and take them on. But it indicates with sufficient accuracy how, when an occupation, e.g. general labouring, demands mainly physical strength and an easily acquired knack, more men tend to enter it than are required to meet the demand, and how again, when this happens, their employment is necessarily irregular.

7. If the above analysis of chronic irregular employment is substantially correct, the question how the low-skilled labour market is recruited is obviously of fundamental importance. I wish to suggest that, apart from personal and accidental causes, there is in Glasgow, Dundee and London, and probably in all other large cities, one general

* It should be noted that anything which diminishes the over-supply of unskilled labour facilitates the work of labour exchanges. When there is a large supply of labour waiting (as in low-skilled occupations) outside the gates, an employer says he has no use for an exchange. The advocates of exchanges, who say that as long as the system of casual labour exists men will drop into it, forget that as long as the over-supply exists employers need not trouble to abolish the system. Hence the German labour exchanges have adopted the plan of guiding boys into industry, in addition to their other work.

industrial cause which inevitably produces an over-supply of low-skilled labourers, such as have been found to predominate among the applicants to distress committees. This cause is the employment of boys in occupations which offer them no future at man's wages, and which at the same time either do not fit them, or else actually unfit them, for obtaining a situation elsewhere. The result is that there is a regular drift from certain boys' occupations into the low-skilled labour market. How this drift occurs can best be shown by (i.) an examination of the industrial records between fourteen and twenty-one, of men who are now labourers; (ii.) by an account of the employment of boys in certain typical industries.

8. The following facts as to the employment in boyhood of men who are now engaged in low-skilled labour have been collected by the kindness of the parish council and distress committee officials, police officers, Charity Organisation Societies, university students, and others. Out of the 150 labourers as to whom information is given, 125 were in want of employment. For the purpose of comparison, similar particulars are given as to the employment in boyhood of men who are now tradesmen:—

A.—LABOURERS (150).

Occupations entered immediately on leaving school.	Occupations at age of sixteen.
Country worker - - - - 7	4
Seamen - - - - - 4	5
Apprentices or learners - - 8	20
Message-boys and milk-boys - 55	13
Van or lorry-boys - - - 14	5
Vanmen - - - - - - -	9
Trace-boys - - - - - 3	1
Boys in factories or works not stated to be apprentices or learners - - - - - 40	49
Boys stated to be labourers - 9	30
Miscellaneous (office, warehouse boys, etc.) - - - - - 10	14

B.—TRADESMEN (100).

Occupations entered immediately on leaving school.	Occupations at age of sixteen.
Apprentices or learners - - 23	87
Message-boys and milk-boys - 51	2
Van or lorry-boys - - - 9	1
Trace-boys - - - - - 2	1
Boys in factories or works not stated to be apprentices or learners - - - - - 12	6
Machinemen - - - - - 1	2
Newspaper-boy - - - - - 1	1
Points-boy - - - - - 1	0

9. Attention is particularly called to the following points: the existence of a gap of about two years between the age at which a boy leaves school and that at which, in the case of most industries, he is old enough to become an apprentice.

The above figures show that, of the 100 boys who ultimately passed through a regular apprenticeship and became tradesmen, only twenty-three started as learners, immediately on leaving school, in the trade which they were to follow. The reason of this is that the school age happens to end at fourteen, and that, except in the case of painting, plumbing, and one or two other light occupations, employers will not take as apprentices boys who are under fifteen-and-a-half or sixteen years of age. Since apprenticeship, whether it is a good or a bad method of training—and in practice it varies infinitely in efficiency, not only from trade to trade, but also from firm to firm, is still the only avenue into all occupations which demand some special industrial qualifications, the fact that it does not begin till fifteen-and-a-half means that boys, on leaving school, have to spend two years in makeshift occupations, such as that of a messenger or van-boy. It will be seen that, out of the 250 cases given above, 134, or 53 per cent., started life as messengers, van or lorry-boys, and trace-boys. Since these occupations, in Glasgow at any rate, do not offer high wages, they do not compete in attractiveness with apprenticeship, nor, like some others to be described later, tempt a boy into remaining in them till he is eighteen or nineteen and too old to qualify himself for any other position. As a matter of fact, the majority of those who enter them

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16 Mar. 1908.

Gap after a boy leaves school before he can be apprenticed.

Makeshift occupations adopted to fill the gap.

Mr. Richard
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16 Mar. 1908.

Demoralising
character of
the work of
lorry-boy.

give them up before the age of sixteen. But it is, nevertheless, a very serious thing that so many lads, on being released from the discipline of school, should enter occupations which are often quite irresponsible, and which are purposeless in the sense of being no preparation for future life. The existence of the gulf between the elementary school and the beginning of any kind of industrial training, which makes it necessary for them to do so, is an obstacle at the very outset of their careers: it prevents many from ever beginning to get any adequate training at all, and diverts the less firm of purpose into low-paid, casual, or otherwise undesirable occupations. The work of a messenger, a milk-boy, or a van-boy is no test of industrial efficiency, and cannot select the fit from the unfit. Yet of those who start life in this way a large number become labourers without having had the smallest chance of discovering whether they are fit for something better. Moreover, not only do these occupations supply no industrial qualification; they sometimes inflict an actual disqualification for steady employment later in life. An example of work to which strong objection may be taken on account of the demoralising character is that of a lorry-boy.* The duty of a lorry-boy is to accompany a lorryman, and while the latter is delivering goods, to see that nobody steals anything from the lorry—to act, in fact, like an intelligent fox-terrier. Under the system of employment which prevails in some firms in Glasgow, each lorryman hires his own boy, and is allowed by the firm 4s. a full week, or 2s. for a week of half-days, in addition to his own wages with which to pay him: the firm often does not know the boys employed and has no responsibility towards them. This method of employment places the lorry-boy entirely at the mercy of the individual man who engages him. He may not receive the 4s. or 2s. allowed: one boy was found, on inquiry, to be getting 1s. 6d. He may be set by the man to do work for which he is not fit and for which he is not paid: a corporation department discovered that its lorrymen were compelling their boys to carry heavy goods to and from the cart to the houses at which they were to be delivered. He may, like another examined, be compelled to drive till eleven o'clock at night with a man who stops at every public-house on the way. In addition to this, the system of employment tends to encourage a kind of casual labour among boys. The boy has to go down to the yard, and wait there till his man comes in to take the lorry out: a group of such boys (lorry-boys and trace-boys) can be seen in the neighbourhood of any large contractor, loafing and playing cards on the pavement. There is no obligation on the man to take the same boy with him from day to day; nor does the obligation on the boy to put in an appearance seem to be very strict: a firm may employ eighty lorry-boys, and not be able at any given moment to say where forty of them are. Hence these boys rarely stay with the same firm for more than a few weeks at a time, but go from one to another much as they please, till they are not fit to be taken on as vanmen when they grow up. Out of 148 lorrymen employed by a firm examined, only one had been with the firm as a boy. In short, the opinion seems to be universal that this particular kind of work gets into the hands of a low class of boys and still further demoralises them. In their case, irregular employment in manhood is preceded by irregular employment when they are boys. Though this work is no doubt exceptional in having actually harmful effects, it is only one of several occupations undertaken by boys which do nothing to promote any kind of industrial efficiency.†

Evils of
employ-
ments in
which boys
are employed
between the
ages of 14
and 19.

10. More serious than the type of employment just described (messengers, milk-boys, and van-boys), through which most boys pass, and which usually end at the age of fifteen or sixteen, is the existence of a large range of occupations in which boys are employed between the ages of fourteen and nineteen, but which offer no permanent position to them at man's wages. They differ from those just described in that the wages are high, ranging from 9s. to 16s. a week, for boys of fifteen to nineteen years of age, with the result that, instead of leaving at fifteen, boys stay on to the verge of manhood.

* The number of lorry-boys in Glasgow is said to be diminishing, because it is hard to get them for 4s. a week.

† Street sellers, of whom there are 337 licensed and many more unlicensed under sixteen in Glasgow, are in much the same demoralising position. So are "trace-boys," who wait at the bottom of hills with extra horses to pull vans up, when additional help is needed.

They differ from the so-called "skilled * trades" because the work performed by the boy, instead of being in the nature of training, is a specialised compartment for which his sole qualification is the fact that, as an instrument of production, he is cheaper than a man. Examples of this kind of work are those boys who call themselves labourers pure and simple, of whom a considerable number, thirty out of 150, were in existence at the early age of sixteen. They are engaged in all kinds of work—some as general labourers, some in foundries, some in sawmills, some as builders' labourers, some at the docks. The majority of them, however, are entered above (Paragraph 8) as "in factories or works, not as apprentices or learners," and are employed as loom-boys, doffers or shifters in weaving factories, rivet-boys in boilershops, oven-boys in bakeries, "drawers-off" in sawmills, packers in soapworks, machine-minders in furniture factories, labelling bottles in mineral water factories, turning the wheel for rope-spinners, and in numberless other such positions in which they are performing some simple operation, often as an assistant to a man.

These positions in factories or works, some of which have been enumerated, present two features which are of importance in connection with the question of unskilled and casual labour:—

(a) They usually give no kind of industrial training, either special or general, such as to enable a boy to find a fresh situation when he leaves them. From the point of view of the boy, they are not an avenue into a future career; they are a blind alley leading nowhere. From the point of view of the employer, the class of work done is a species of light unskilled labour, which does not require either the intelligence asked in a boy who is learning the trade, or the strength demanded from an adult unskilled workman, and which, therefore, can be done by a sort of boy labourer. Thus the work of a loom-boy consists in assisting men at the loom, seeing that the supply of yarn does not run short, giving in broken ends, cleaning looms, and generally waiting on the weaver. In some factories no men labourers are employed, and the boys then do all the unskilled work: they do not obtain any knowledge which would enable them to do weaving, for which a formal apprenticeship is necessary, nor are they fitted for anything else. In a similar position are the large numbers of boys employed in soapworks, packing, wrapping, and filling soap-powder packets. Again, the boys tending machines in the biscuit department of a bakery are neither apprentices nor learners, and though they may acquire a certain rough handiness in dealing with machinery, it is only of the most rudimentary kind. A large number of boys are employed in sawmills as what are known as "drawers-off," whose duty it is to carry wood to and from a machine which is worked by a man, and generally act as his labourers. Much the same is true of cloth-finishing works, where a great many boys are employed, taking cloth to and from the drying machines and watching machines under the supervision of a competent man. All these different instances, which could probably be multiplied indefinitely were an extensive inquiry made, are cases in which the boy's work is simply a specialised compartment which gives no kind of qualification for future employment outside it.

(b) Not only are the boys in those occupations receiving no industrial training, either general or special, but the vast majority of them will be dismissed at manhood, or whenever they begin to ask for an adult's wages. This is not because they are inefficient workers, or for any other personal or

* It is almost impossible to avoid the use of the words "skilled" and "unskilled," though they are becoming devoid of significance. Much delicate work in engineering is done by machine-minders at 24s. a week, i.e., labourers who have a few weeks' training, and work a semi-automatic machine. It is the opinion of a good many employers that this type of man will become more and more general. But the fact that manual dexterity is no longer so essential or so valuable as it was does not mean that it is less necessary than it was for a boy to become adequately qualified for employment, though the qualification needed is different and may not be obtained through apprenticeship. What is wanted is not so much "skill" as efficiency.

accidental reason. It follows regularly and inevitably from the way in which the work is distributed between boys and men. The absolute impossibility of their being absorbed as men in the occupations which they started as boys is shown clearly by the following figures of the number of boys and men employed in certain businesses. In order to prevent all risk of identifying the firms concerned, the actual figures are not given; but the proportion between boys and men—the only point of importance—is the same as that really existing.

(1) *A Weaving Factory.*

Men	-	-	-	-	-	-	120
Apprentices	-	-	-	-	-	-	6
Loom-boys	-	-	-	-	-	-	120

(2) *Soapworks.*

Men	-	-	-	-	-	-	98
Boys	-	-	-	-	-	-	114

(3) *Bakery.*

		Bread-making.	Pastry.	Biscuits.
Men	-	96	60	12
Boys	-	8	7	41

(4) *Contractor.*

		Lorries.	Tracing.	Van-boys.
Men	-	148	—	—
Boys	-	50	9	10

(5) *Sawmills.*

		Machine-shop.	Turning.	Chair-shop.
Men	-	78	30	38
Boys	-	64	4	14

(6) *Finishing Company.*

	Store mills.	Drying.	Raising.	Pressing.	Odd hands.
Men	40	28	10	96	18
Boys	40	26	18	10	2

11. It will be seen that in the first two cases the number of boys actually exceeds the number of men employed. A workman employed in the weaving factory estimates that 5 per cent. of the boys employed stay with the firm as men, and that of those who leave, 75 per cent. do so because it is impossible to find work for them at men's wages. He insists on the irreparable damage that is done to the boy's future, and says he would dissuade any boy he knew from undertaking the work. That is in no way the fault of the employer concerned; on the contrary, he is well known to go to trouble and expense to increase the comfort of his employees. It is simply because the work is of a character which can be done by boys, and therefore boys, being cheaper than adult labourers, are employed to do it. This particular class of boys—loom-boys, doffers, or shifters—is to be found in greater numbers in Dundee than in Glasgow; it may therefore not be inappropriate to quote the remarks on this subject contained in the Report of the Dundee Social Union, which confirms strikingly the opinion here expressed as to the effect upon unemployment of this type of unprogressive boy labour. "The demand for men's labour would have to be three times as great to provide work for all these lads (i.e., who are in the jute industry), and a number whose parents have sent them to mill or factory as children are turned adrift at the age of seventeen or eighteen. A few of them become skilled workmen in other trades. (But even) if a boy is not too old to become an apprentice to some trade, he may earn half, or less than half, his accustomed wages. (Apprentices in most trades start at 6s. and rise after five years to 12s. or 14s.; hence, after three years a boy may be earning half what he could get as a labourer.) Some boys become labourers in other trades, others enter the Army . . . a number leave the town to seek work elsewhere, while others live from hand to mouth as casual labourers, or join the ranks of the permanently unemployed."* The evil is, of course, aggravated in Dundee by the fact that most of the adult workers are women, with the result that there are fewer places for adult men.

But the cases quoted above are sufficient to show that it exists in very many different kinds of business.

Take, for example, the case of the soapworks (2): in these the boys actually exceed the men, and they work in different departments; there is no movement from one to the other, because a strong, full-grown man is needed to do the man's work (as a matter of fact they are mainly immigrant Irishmen). None of the boys, the manager states, stay beyond twenty. The position of lorry-boys in (4) has already been examined. A member of the Carters' Union states that there is an enormous leakage of lorry-boys into other occupations, and the figures show that this must be so. In the case of the sawmills (5) and the cloth-finishing company (6), the boys do not actually exceed the men in number. But it is plain that even were there absolutely complete mobility between all the departments a large number of the boys employed would have to leave the trade at manhood. As a matter of fact, 80 per cent. are estimated to leave at manhood in the one case, and 95 per cent. in the other.

12. A general application may be given to the examples quoted above, if one considers for a moment what are the causes determining the demand for boys in different occupations, and in particular how the demand for boy learners differs from that for boy labourers. The considerations which determine the number of boys taken on by, say, an engineering firm, or by the bread-baking department of the bakery described above (3), are fundamentally different from those which settle the number of loom-boys, rivet boys, or boys in the biscuit department of the same bakery. In industries requiring much dexterity or intelligence, the number of boys entering the trade is determined, not by the demand for such work as they could do if they were immediately set to a single specialised operation, but by the estimated future demand for journeymen. Even where no formal agreement exists as to the proper proportion of apprentices to journeymen, as it does in the case of bread-making, this is the criterion to which both employers and workmen habitually appeal, when the former are claiming that the number of apprentices shall be increased, and the latter that it shall be diminished. *Real* learners are always an expense, and as long as boys are taken on with a view to teaching them so that they may recruit the trade, there is no temptation for employers to take on more than are required for this purpose. Hence a boy who enters, for example, a machine-making or bread-baking establishment will, if he is moderately intelligent and fortunate, find a place in it at a man's wage. If he leaves, he leaves because the trade does not suit him personally, not because it is unable to absorb all those who enter it as boys. But when there is no need to recruit a supply of thoroughly trained journeymen, or where many departments of the work are such as can be done by the relatively cheap boy, instead of by the relatively expensive man, there is always a force at work tending to increase the employment of boys without any reference to the openings in the industry which there will be for them when they reach manhood. An excellent example of the different prospects of the boy learner and the boy labourer is given by comparing the bread-baking and biscuit departments of the bakery mentioned above. Eight apprentices (five years' apprenticeship) are held, with the approval of the employer, to be sufficient to recruit ninety-six journeymen bread bakers; yet in biscuit-making forty-one boys to twelve journeymen are employed. Some of these boys recruit the eight apprentices; of the remainder, it is said "some go to other trades; the rest drift into casual employment." To put it concretely, the number of lorry-boys, or loom-boys, in Glasgow bears no relation to the number required for recruiting lorrymen or weavers, or to anything more remote than the number of cart tails and looms now in existence, and the number of boys who can be induced to sit on the one and hang about the other. In the words of an employer, "boys are employed for their *present commercial utility*." That "*utility*," which is to be found in the fact that the wage of an adult labourer in Glasgow is 16s. to 20s., while that of a boy (e.g., loom-boy) is 8s. to 12s., ceases at manhood; and with its cessation, employ-

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16 Mar. 1908.

Examples of trades in which the boys do not stay on manhood.

Considerations determining the number of boys employed in skilled industries.

Tendency to increase number of boys employed in unskilled industries.

* For a similar account of the fate of boys formerly employed in "laying on" and "taking off" paper in London" printing houses, see *Toynbee Record*, "Report on Boy Labour." These printers' boys were stated to enter the Army, and take to the docks: a large number of printers' labourers were found in the Whitechapel Casual Ward in the course of an investigation made into the previous employment of the men there.

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16 Mar. 1908.

Occupations
chosen on
leaving
school
by 100
labourers
and 100
tradesmen.

ment ceases as well. But, as has been already pointed out, he has learned nothing which will qualify him to do any other kind of work. What, then, can he do? Often he can do nothing but fall back on the possession of two arms and two legs, and either enter the Army (*vide* the report of the Dundee Social Union), or increase the over-supply of labourers, and therefore the irregularity of employment in the low-skilled labour market. It is not, of course, suggested that this is the fate of *all* boys who, at the age of sixteen, or on leaving school, are what have been called boy labourers. Some put up with half their customary earnings and recruit the apprentices (if any) in the firm where they are employed. Thus apprentice rivetters are drawn from among the stronger rivet boys, apprentice bakers from among the oven boys, apprentice weavers from among loom boys. Others, if still young enough, go elsewhere to learn some occupation which offers better prospects than labouring. But the figures given in Paragraph 10 show, what the distinction of work between boys and men in certain occupations makes probable, that a large proportion of these boys "employed in factories and works" ultimately become labourers. This may, perhaps, be seen more clearly if the occupations entered on leaving school by 100 labourers, chosen at random, be compared with those of the same number of tradesmen:—

	Became tradesmen.	Became labourers.
Out of 30 learners or apprentices*	23	7
„ 84 messengers or milk-boys	51	33
„ 20 van- or lorry-boys -	9	11
„ 5 trace-boys - - -	2	3
„ 9 labourers - - -	-	9
„ 48 in factories or works -	12	36
„ 4 miscellaneous - - -	3	1

Drift of
youths into
least skilled
occupations
accompanied
by a
scarcity of
tradesmen
who
immigrate
from country
districts.

13. This continual drift of youths into the occupations which, because they require least dexterity and intelligence, are continually overstocked, is not due to the fact that there is not a sufficient demand to absorb them on the part of occupations which offer more regular employment and (ultimately) higher wages. This is proved by the inability of Glasgow employers to get as many tradesmen as they want in Glasgow, and by the consequent immigration from country districts. Thus, in the bread-baking trade, nearly all the "all-round men" are recruited from the country. The same is said to be the case in tailoring. In particular, the building trades in Glasgow, like the building trades in London (*vide* the Report of the London County Council Committee on the Building Trades, 1898), draw masons, bricklayers, carpenters, plumbers, and painters from all over the kingdom. No statistics, as far as is known, are at present available upon this point, but it has been emphasised so often as to be beyond doubt. The reason given for the immigration of country tradesmen, and the preference they obtain with employers, is, first, the fact that a better all-round training is given in country shops, and, second, that town-bred boys do not make satisfactory learners. Whatever may be the reasons for such a condition of things, the effect is very serious. To the individual boy who is born in Glasgow, it means that he is competing at a disadvantage for the best positions in certain occupations, or rather, since there can be no real competition between a town-bred boy and a country-bred man, that he is forced to take to the less well-paid and more irregular classes of work. Yet it is surely absurd that the labour market should be overstocked with bricklayers' labourers, when, in normal times (though not at present), there are not enough bricklayers in Glasgow to meet the demand. From a broader point of view, it means that Glasgow or London maintains its industrial pre-eminence in spite of the decadence of a portion of its working population,

* The number of apprentices who drift out of apprenticeship because they either want higher wages or do not consider they are being properly taught is considerable. This fact is an additional reason (Paragraph 20) why apprenticeship is not an adequate remedy for the evils of boy labour.

and only by means of a continual draft on the vitality of country districts. Obviously this process cannot be continued indefinitely. A city which allows its own youth, for want of training, to drift into overstocked, and therefore casual, employments, and recruits its best workers in some industries from outside, resembles a company which is continually borrowing fresh capital, while wasting that which it already has. This is a practical argument which sometimes appeals to persons who are not moved by the more theoretical, though no less important consideration, that industrial training increases the productivity and adaptability of labour, and therefore, other things being equal, both the demand for labour and its ability to take advantage of the demand.

REMEDIES.

14. To sum up the argument so far:—The fundamental cause of casual labour (as distinct from seasonal or cyclical fluctuations of trade) is that a certain class of low-skilled labour is in permanent over-supply. This over-supply is, in part, caused by a continual drift of youths out of occupations which employ more boys than they can absorb, and which give them no kind of qualifications for future employment elsewhere. If these boys obtained before manhood some adequate training for industry and life, they could be absorbed in better-paid occupations, and the over-supply of unskilled labour would be diminished; unemployment, seasonal and cyclical, would remain, but casual employment would disappear, because youths would be diffused over many different branches of industry, making an infinitesimal addition to each, but greatly relieving the at present congested ranks of unskilled labour.

15. In devising a practical scheme, two things must be borne in mind:—

(a) The employment of boys in occupations which offer no training and no future is not an evil which tends to remedy itself. In some cases (*e.g.*, that of the "operative printers' assistants" in London, adult labourers have taken the place of boys. But this is not likely to be general. On the contrary, the number of positions in which boys are employed for their "immediate commercial utility," is increasing, as the subdivision of processes proceeds further.

(b) The evils described are not, as is sometimes said, caused by the decline of apprenticeship, though it is true that, as technical changes make apprenticeship unnecessary, they tend to attack trades where they were not felt before (*vide* the case of cabinet-making and boot and shoe making under the factory system). They are found mainly in trades where apprenticeship never existed, and where it would be quite useless to attempt to establish it. Hence, they cannot be removed by any modification or extension of the apprenticeship system. For example, the so-called "skilled employment committees," such as have been established in London and elsewhere, do not touch the real problem at all. Such agencies do not increase the *total number* of youths with adequate industrial qualifications. All they do is to persuade employers to take their own nominees as apprentices or learners, instead of boys obtained through the ordinary commercial channels. Quite apart from the question whether apprenticeship trains satisfactorily those who do become apprentices (which in most cases it certainly does not), it has the fatal drawback that it only reaches a small section of the community, viz., the youths whom employers need to recruit the skilled men in their business. The evil which has been described is not any deficiency in the supply of such youths, but the very low efficiency of a great mass of workers outside the so-called "skilled occupations," which causes them to overcrowd the easiest occupation, viz., that of general labouring. Apprenticeship is no more a substitute for a general system of industrial education than University degrees are a substitute for a general system of elementary education.

16. In these circumstances, there is only one remedy. It is for the State to aim at prescribing a minimum of industrial efficiency, in the same way as it has prescribed a minimum of general education. Two steps should be taken: (1) In order to get rid of the terrible gap existing between the elementary school and industry (*vide* par. 9), trade schools

Remedy
for casual
labour.

The evil
does not
tend to
remedy
itself.

The evils
described
would not
be removed
by any modification
of the apprenticeship
system.

Proposed
State
prescribed
minimum
of industrial
efficiency:
(1) By raising
the school
age.
(2) By insuring
on the employee
attending
trade schools

the leaving age should be raised to fifteen.* (2) It should be made a condition of employment in any capacity, save as a genuine learner or apprentice, that the employee is attending a trade school during his employment. The number of hours per week a boy is allowed to work might be increased as he rose in the school; if this were done, parents would be enlisted on the side of education, instead of being, as at present, against it. It should be noted that compulsory evening schools, unless accompanied by a compulsory reduction of hours, will not be sufficient, because some occupations (e.g. that of a rivet-boy) utterly exhaust boys by the end of the day.

17. Some such system is essential, if the energy of the growing generation is not to be used up in satisfying the community's immediate wants. It would diminish casual employment in normal times, because it would prevent the labour market being flooded with labour which is helpless because unqualified for any work which demands something more than mere physical strength. But it would do much more than this. To describe these youths, and the men whom they become, as "unskilled" or "untrained," gives but a faint picture of the state of demoralisation which exists among some of them, and which is, in part, caused by using boys of fifteen simply as instruments of production which are scrapped when they are no longer remunerative—in employing them, in fact, for their "immediate commercial utility." One symptom of this demoralisation is the inability of boys to remain in one job for more than a year or even a few months at a time. When the stimulus and restraint given by the desire to learn are absent, the only incentive is that of immediately higher wages, and these boys move from job to job with a mobility which is positively nomadic.

18. Here are some specimens copied from inquiry forms:—

(1) T. T., at present a labourer and the son of a brass-finisher, left school at eleven, and is twenty years of age. He gave the following particulars of his first six places:—(a) Delivering milk at 4s. a week; stayed three months; left because of a quarrel; (b) message-boy, 6s.; uniform; six months; (c) message-boy, 7s.; two months; sacked for destroying instead of delivering messages; (d) message-boy, 5s.; seven months; found work too heavy; (e) van-boy, 8s.; over a year; left because of a "row"; (f) weaving mill—working with drawer and serving him with yarn, 8s. 6d.; two years; mill failed. He was not asked for further particulars. Note that he went through six places in less than five years, and learnt nothing.

(2) H. B., at present a labourer and son of a moulder, left school at twelve, and is twenty years old. He gave particulars of the following six places—his first six employments:—(a) Van-boy, 5s.; three weeks; left because "fed up"; (b) van-boy, 7s. 6d.; four months; left because "tired of job"; (c) lorry-boy in brewery, 5s.; one month; left because "tired of job"; (d) message-boy, 6s. 6d.; one week; left because he was hurt and was idle for six months; (e) driving van, 8s.; six weeks; left because "he did not get enough for driving horses" (the substitution of boys for men as drivers is one of the complaints of the Carters' Union); (f) sawmills, "drawing off machine," 9s.; three months; left because he wanted "more money," and went to be a "trace-boy."

(3) M. A. (a Charity Organisation Society case), at present a biscuit cutter and son of a plumber, is twenty-three years old, and left school at thirteen. He gave the following particulars as to his first six employments:—(a) Message-boy, 5s.; two months; left to go to biscuit factory; (b) cleaning biscuit pans, 5s. 6d.; four months; "left to go to G. D.'s for more money"; (c) oven-boy, 11s.; seven months; "left to go to L.'s for more money"; (d) oven-boy, 12s.; eighteen months; left for more money; (e) assistant brakesman in bakery, 15s.; one year; left for more money; (f) brakesman, 16s., for four months; after that returned to L.'s (a bakery), then went to labour in a mason's yard at 22s. a week; then went to Giffnock quarries at 26s., where he stayed for four weeks; then became a crane driver, at 26s. a week; then went back to L.'s—and all this before he was twenty-three years old.

(4) M. C., a storeman, and son of a joiner, is twenty-four years old, and left school at fourteen. He gave the following particulars of his first six employments. He is exceptional in having begun to learn a trade:— (a) Van-boy, 2s. a week, three meals a day; "got another job"; (b) message-boy, 4s.; six months; "work too heavy"; (c) taking samples round for metal polish company, 6s.; one year; "left to get bigger pay"; (d) taking samples round for another metal polish company, 8s.; left because "father advised him to begin a trade"; (e) apprentice engineer, 6s.; two years; left because pay too small as an apprentice"; (f) labouring, 18s.; one and a half years; left because he "couldn't agree with his foreman."

(5) T. G., casual labourer, son of retail shoemaker, is twenty-seven years of age, and left school at fourteen. (a) Took rolls to customers for a baker, paid 2d. in the 1s.; six months; left "to better himself"; (b) lorry-boy, 7s.; one year; "wages too small"; (c) clothier's message-boy, 5s.; three months; left "to get more wages"; (d) bottle-washer in brewery, 10s.; twelve months; (e) sawmills, working a saw, 12s.; eight months; left for "slackness of work"; (f) ice store, 24s.; eight months; at the age of twenty-seven he had never earned more than 24s., and never remained in a place more than a year.

(6) H. B., a labourer, twenty-four years of age. Gave following particulars:—(a) Drove trace-horses for sawmills, 10s.; five months; "sacked for galloping horse"; (b) pottery, packing, 12s.; two weeks; "lazy and chucked it"; (c) foundry, moulding (not apprentice); piecework, 12s. 8d. a week; "couldn't make enough"; (d) iron roofing works, at punching machine, 14s.; six months; "fed up"; (e) selling guides to Glasgow Exhibition, 30s.; six months; (f) sawmills again, "German saw," 12s.; four months; sacked; and so on till now, without definite employment in the last six years. He was able to count up and actually gave name and addresses of employers in *fifty or sixty different jobs* he had been through.

19. It would be possible to multiply indefinitely cases such as have been given above, showing the utterly disciplined life led by these boys. The same facts are put in another way by some statistics kindly supplied me by the Chief Constable of Glasgow as to the "number of youths dishonesty between the ages of fourteen and twenty-one charged with theft and other offences inferring dishonesty, including those remitted to the sheriff court, during the year 1906."

(a) Total number charged (under 21).	(b) Messengers, street traders, hawkers, labourers, carters, rivet- heaters (under 21).	(c) Tradesmen in 20 trades (under 21).	(d) Miscellaneous (soldiers, schoolboys, waiters, etc.) (under 21).
1,454	1,208 or 83·7 per cent.	110 or 7·5 per cent.	136 or 8·8 per cent.

Yet the total number of boys under twenty-one employed in (c), of course, far exceeds those employed in (b).

20. The preponderance of shiftless, inefficient, casual workers among applicants to distress committees gives rise to the view that unemployment is caused by personal, not by industrial, reasons, and to the plausible statement that "any man can get work if he wants it." In reality, whatever may be true of others, the precise opposite is true of these boys, and of the men into whom they grow. They are the victims of a system over which they have no control: in the words of a workman who has exceptional opportunities for judging, "they are ruined before they are twenty," and at the present moment they are probably the most neglected class in the community. To poor parents they are often commercial assets to be realised as soon as the law allows. Organised workers, with left-handed kindness, prevent them from overcrowding some trades, and indirectly intensify the struggle in

* Of course the higher the better.

Mr. Richard H. Tawney.
16 Mar. 1908.
The only remedy is to make their labour scarce and dear by law.

The evil is worse in Dundee and London than in Glasgow.

Treatment of the unemployed in Strassburg.

Constitution of the Arbeitsamt or labour exchange.

Its objects and methods. Four divisions.

Exchanges managed by trade unions superseded.

others.* Employers, with the best intentions in the world, cannot possibly be expected to point out to lads who are clamouring to sweep their shops, clean their machines, and run their messages, that their service will cease to be acceptable as soon as they demand a man's wage. The only way of preventing them from recruiting the ranks of low-paid, irregularly employed adult workers is to make their labour scarce and dear by law, and to insist on those who are still employed on specialised unprogressive work obtaining at the same time an all-round industrial education in a trade school. The evils which call for interference are not much less serious, though less sensational, than those which led to the regulation of children's work in factories.

21. In conclusion, it may be pointed out that in all probability the evils outlined above are far more serious in Dundee and London than in Glasgow, where the presence of the engineering industry offers good prospects to nearly half—21,000 out of 48,000—of the male occupied population under twenty-one years of age.

2. LABOUR EXCHANGES AND RELIEF WORK IN STRASSBURG.

22. The following information as to the methods of treating the unemployed in the town of Strassburg in Els. was obtained partly from printed reports, partly by personal interviews with the chief officials. It is submitted as throwing light on the possible uses which may be made of labour exchanges, and on the regulation of relief works or other kinds of outdoor relief. Part I. is a description of the means used to prevent or diminish unemployment. Part II. deals with the relief of those who are actually unemployed. These two branches react upon one another because, as will be shown later, the machinery which is designed to prevent unemployment has also the effect of making possible certain kinds of relief which, in its absence, would either be less effectual, or actually harmful. For the sake of convenience, however, they will be treated separately.

PART I.

Arbeitsamt, Management and Constitution.

23. The machinery for preventing unemployment consists of the *Arbeitsamt*, labour office, or labour exchange. This is a municipal department working separately from, though in close touch with, the poor office. It is supported by the rates, and is ultimately responsible to the town council, the chief burgermeister being its chairman. The committee which actually manages it consists of twenty persons, ten workmen and ten employers of labour. Five of each are selected by the council; five of each are appointed by the trades unions of Strassburg, and by the employers' associations. Great importance is attached to this system of delegated management, as it is held that the office cannot command the confidence of employers and employed, which is indispensable to its success, unless it is to some extent under the control of their representatives.

Object and Method.

24. The office is divided into four departments, one for skilled workmen, one for unskilled workmen, one for clerks, and one for women. Its object is to act as an intermediary between employers in need of workmen and workmen in need of employment. With this object it registers all workmen applying to it, and keeps on a card index a record of their age, character, and previous occupations, in the same way as is done by the labour exchanges which have recently been started in London. Owing to the large number of applications made to it, it has at the present day, twelve years after its inauguration, a very complete record of the industrial classes in Strassburg.

Relations to Unions.

25. The labour office has gradually taken the place of the exchanges which were formerly managed by the separate trade unions, and all these societies, with the exception of two, have formerly advised their members to apply for all information as to employment to the city labour office. The favour with which it is regarded by the working classes may be judged from the fact that

* An official of the Weavers' Union states that weavers like to have as many loom-boys as possible in the factory. Being piece-workers, they make higher wages the quicker they are attended by the boys.

certain societies which gave travelling money to those of their members who are on the tramp, are in the habit of handing it over to the labour office, on the understanding that it shall be paid out to members who apply. This makes it certain that the office will be used by all members of the unions concerned.

Relation to Employers.

26. It is stated that the majority of employers are in the habit of applying to the office for workmen, and that as far as can be estimated the majority of workmen employed in Strassburg have been engaged through the office. The means of bringing it to their notice are personal interviews by the officers with employers and employers' federations, and advertisements inserted daily in the local papers. The town council has given a great impetus to the movement by adopting among its standing orders a rule that all departments of the municipality, and all contractors executing work for the municipality, shall be compelled to engage all their workmen through the labour office, under a penalty of 10s. for every man engaged otherwise—an extension to regularity of employment of the principle of the "fair wages clause."

Relation to other Exchanges.

27. The labour office in Strassburg is the centre of a system of similar offices in Elsass-Lothringen, which exchange lists, are in telephonic communication with it and each other, and which form with it a kind of federation. Similar federations of labour offices exist in the states of Baden and Bayern, and (I believe) elsewhere. The Strassburg office claims further to be able to obtain information as to the state of the labour market in any part of Germany, Eastern France, and the north of Switzerland.

Extent of Operations.

28. The magnitude of the work done by the Strassburg labour office, and its growth, in the last few years, may be judged from the following figures taken from the Report for 1906:—

	1901.	1906.
Total population - - - -	—	167,678
Number of wage-earners (as estimated by town council) - -	—	20,034
Applications from workmen (exclusive of women and apprentices)	5,178	23,282
Applications from employers	1,814	18,956
Places found for workmen - -	1,494	12,436
Vacancies filled for employers -	1,494	12,171

29. What is the value ascribed to the system by those who are responsible for managing it, and what assistance does it give in dealing with such unemployment as exists in normal times? The labour office does not pretend to make work when no work is to be had through the ordinary channels, or to increase the total amount of employment. What it does claim to do, is, in the words of the secretary, "to regulate unemployment." The German view of unemployment as an industrial disease, not primarily an affair of individual character, prevents the community from leaving the workless individual to himself, in the expectation that as soon as he starts to look for work he will find it, and leads it to insist that he shall, at all events, be saved from deteriorating through involuntary want of work. In doing this, however, it has a choice of two alternative methods. It may either make work for the unemployed, or find work for the unemployed. It may either support some of its members through the Poor Law, and through relief work, or create an organisation to overlook, as far as possible, the whole field of industry, and so ensure that no one shall go without work through ignorance of where it exists, or want of the means to get to it. In times of bad trade these two methods are no longer alternative but supplementary to each other. When there is no demand for labour, it is necessary to fall back upon the Poor Law or relief works as a second best. But every extension of the area with which the organisation of labour exchanges is operative narrows the field which remains for relief, because it saves workmen from being thrown into distress by depressions

Relation of the exchange to employers.

The exchange of the central labour-exchange through Alsace-Lorraine.

Magnitude of the work done by the Strassburg labour office.

The labour office organises employment.

Alternative methods of making or finding work for the unemployed.

which are merely local. So long, the officials argue, as there is a demand for labour, even though it be at a considerable distance from Strassburg, it is much cheaper and less demoralising to send the unemployed workman to it, than to maintain him at home in idleness at the public expense. To organise this movement of labour by means of printed lists of places where trade is busy and places where it is slack, by advertisements inserted every two or three days in the local papers, by circulars sent to trade union officials, by gratuitous information and a reduction of 50 per cent. in the railway fares of all men who are sent from the office in search of work, is the primary function of the labour office. Are the country districts in want of labour? It is in a position to help men who have drifted into the city back to country life. Are the mines of Westphalia exceptionally busy while its own trades are slack? The labour office supplies the temporary demand and relieves the town market. By keeping in close touch with the school teachers it is able to influence boys to qualify themselves for future employment on leaving the elementary school, to give them information as to the occupations in which there are likely to be the best prospects of regular work, and above all, to diminish at its source the stream of lads who in this country are employed in specialised non-educative labour between fourteen and nineteen and are then dismissed to stock the overstocked unskilled labour market. In view of the statement continually made by employers of unskilled labour in this country that they have no need to go to an office for their workmen, as they can get as many as they want outside their gates, the importance of the latter service can hardly be overestimated. The utility of centralising the demand and supply of labour is perhaps most clearly seen in the case of a temporary and unforeseen diminution of employment, such as takes place through the failure of a large firm. Some time ago an engineering firm's factory was burned down and 160 men were thrown out of work, without any prospect of finding it in Strassburg. Unassisted by any organisation they would probably have lived on their savings, the benefits of their unions, and their wives' earnings, until gradually absorbed in the course of a few weeks or months. Through the mediation of the labour office they were at once brought into touch with employers in different parts of Germany, France, and Switzerland, and in the course of five days more offers of work were received than there were men to accept them. Such an example shows the utility of an exchange in normal times, when there is no general depression; it consists in giving labour the mobility which, at the time when the English Poor Law took shape, it was assumed that it would possess of itself if only it were freed from artificial restrictions. While both systems aim at creating conditions under which the temptation to apply to the Poor Law shall be reduced to a minimum, the English does so by making it hard to get relief, the German by making it easy to find work.

PART II.

Relief of the Unemployed.

30. The use of the labour office as an intermediary between employers and employed is familiar from the similar exchanges which have been established in England, and needs no special explanation. An equally important side of its work consists, however, in acting as a "test" of the character of able-bodied applicants for poor relief, or unemployed relief. It supervises the relief which is given to able-bodied men, decides whether they are to receive it or not, and performs the work of discrimination which, in this country, is carried out (in theory) by the workhouse test. Without it the methods by which the unemployed are at present assisted could not continue for a week, as it would become impossible to distinguish between those who are out of work because they cannot get it, and those who are out of work because they do not want it. With it, it is possible to give temporary outdoor relief without a labour test, to open relief work in winter for the unemployed, to assist unions to relieve their unemployed members, without the danger of sustaining workmen at the public expense long after they could find an opening in independent industry.

31. There is no workhouse in Strassburg, and all persons relieved are relieved in their own homes. The relief which is given to the unemployed takes three forms—a contribution to the funds of those trade societies which

pay out-of-work benefit, temporary outdoor relief, and the provision of relief work. All trade unions which submit a copy of their rules to the town council, and agree by the conditions laid down, are entitled to receive through the labour office a monthly contribution equivalent to 50 per cent. of the sum paid in benefits to their members, provided the town's contributions do not amount to more than 1 mark per day for each member unemployed, or aggregate more than 6,000 marks—an experimental limit in a single year. In order to obtain this contribution members must be registered at the labour office and present themselves there regularly during the time they are out of work. This system, which is of recent introduction in Strassburg, affects only the organised workers, who number about 4,500, or 25 per cent. of the adult male working-class population. Outside it stand those who at present suffer most severely from unemployment, the unskilled workers who do not earn sufficient high wages to save either individually, or collectively through a union, against seasons of unemployment. The assistance provided by them takes the form of work, which may be one of three kinds. The first is really not relief work at all, but necessary work which would be executed in any case, but which the council holds back to the winter season in order to steady the labour market, a commonsense arrangement which might be imitated with advantage by British municipalities. The second class of work is relief work proper provided by the town council, consists of street cleaning, repairing the fortifications, or working for the municipal forestry department in the town forests, and is allotted to unemployed who have families to support, and who have been in regular work during the previous summer. The maximum pay for this employment, which does not count as poor relief, and therefore does not entail disenfranchisement, is 2·20 a day, a sum slightly below the local rate for unskilled labour. For persons who are suspected of loafing, or who have broken the rules laid down for relief employment, a third kind of work is opened, under the supervision of the Poor Law authority. It carries with it disenfranchisement, is paid only with relief in kind, and is regarded in the light of a punishment—an attitude which becomes intelligible when it is remembered that since begging is not tolerated, those who cannot support themselves must get some kind of public relief, the only question being which class of relief they shall get.

32. The system of paying a contribution to trade unions which allow out-of-work benefit has been in existence too short a time for its results to be certain. It has, however, three great advantages. The first is that it reaches a class of highly-skilled workmen who though in need of help cannot be offered any relief works suitable for general labourers, and whose skill might, it is urged, even be injured by rough labouring work. The second is that it places the administration of relief in the hands of a body which has the greatest interest in preventing fraud and the best means of checking it; the third and most important is that it encourages collective insurance against unemployment among workmen who cannot afford to establish it without assistance. The relief works are more open to criticism. Like the system of giving out-relief to able-bodied men, relief works unattended by any special disabilities seem at first sight to embody all the errors against which the orthodox Poor Law administrator is accustomed to protest. What test of destitution is established? How is it possible to discriminate between those who cannot find employment and those who do not want to find it? In the practical answer which the Strassburg system gives to this question consists the fundamental difference between its Poor Law system and that of England. Instead of seeking to make relief so unattractive through the disabilities it entails that none but those on the verge of starvation will accept it, the practice of Strassburg is to ascertain what the demand for those only for labour really is, and to give relief only to those for whom there is no work. It does not ask whether a man is so badly off that he will consent to see his home broken up rather than continue long without assistance, but whether he is willing to take the employment when it is offered him. In short, its test consists not in the workhouse but in the labour office, which thus becomes not only, like English employment exchanges, an intermediary between employers and employed, but the pivot upon which the whole Poor Law system turns. In accordance with the principle that

Mr. Richard H. Tawney.

16 Mar. 1908.

(1) Contributions to the funds of societies paying out-of-work benefit.

(2) Work provided for the unemployed by—
(a) Necessary works held back till the winter to steady the market.

(b) Relief work proper not disenfranchising.

(c) Work by way of punishment for loafing, etc., which disenfranchises.

Advantages of contributions to trade unions which allow out-of-work benefit.

The relief works.

The principle is to relieve those only for whom there is no work.

The labour office is the pivot of the whole Poor Law system.

Mr. Richard relief is only given when the authorities are certain there is no work to be had, no able-bodied workman receives assistance from the Poor Law, or from the public relief work, unless he calls first at the labour office and receives from its superintendent a card stating that there is no work for him within a reasonable distance of the city. Armed with this card, which may be periodically renewed by personal application, an unemployed workman can get relief either from the Poor Law authority or at the town relief works. As soon as trade revives applications for workmen begin to pour in at the labour office, and as these applications are received, cards entitling the unemployed to relief cease to be issued, and men have the option of either doing without work and without public assistance, or of taking the jobs (at their own trade) which are offered them through the office. In short, the public relief given to men in distress, like the unemployed benefit paid by trade societies in this country, is contingent upon the individual assisted accepting the first offer of employment which is made to him. A man is not expected to work at anything except his own trade; if the trade is organised he is not expected to work on other than the conditions agreed upon between his union and the masters' association, and if he refuses a place because it pays less than the standard rate, he continues to receive from the labour office the card which qualifies him for relief. But when once a job under the customary conditions is vacant, he must either accept it or surrender his claim to public assistance.

When applications for workmen come in relief is withdrawn.

Essence of the Strassburg system.

Summary.

33. The essence of the Strassburg system is *that the agency which tests the applicant for relief, and deters the idle, is quite separate from the agency which confers relief.* Whereas in England relief is designed not only to relieve but also to deter, in Strassburg the task of preventing undue reliance on the Poor Law is in the hands of a special body, the labour office, and the relief given is given simply with a view to its being adapted to the ascertained needs of the recipient. There are three effects of this system which deserve notice:—

(i.) An absolutely reliable test is provided of whether the unemployment of an applicant for relief is due to personal or individual causes, and it can therefore be judged accurately when relief work should be opened, and when it should be closed.

(ii.) Since there is no danger of any man being relieved after he could get work, if willing to take it, the relief can be given in the home instead of in an institution, and in an amount fixed, not by the minimum needed to support physical existence, but by the amount needed to keep the recipient and his family in full efficiency.

(iii.) The idea that the receipt of legal relief attaches a permanent stigma to the recipient, which brands him as a social failure, and which may even disqualify him for future employment, is almost entirely absent. On the contrary it is argued that in certain circumstances it may be much less socially harmful that a man should sacrifice his independence, and apply for relief, than that he should struggle on without assistance. This is well put in a report drawn up by the chief burgermeister. "It is urgently to be desired that the necessitous person, when he finds an independent existence practically impossible, should not make his position worse by useless delay, but should apply for relief *immediately*." It is argued that to make public relief so unattractive as only to be accepted by men upon the verge of starvation, is not to get rid of "pauperism," but merely to drive it underground. Hence the Strassburg system of relief, unlike the English, aims not at having as little as possible, but at having as much as possible, to do with persons who cannot maintain themselves, for the same reason that the law wants to have as much as possible to do with the criminals, or a health department as much as possible to do with infectious persons. The reason alleged for this (according to English notions) rather paradoxical point of view, is that, when refused relief, the majority of persons in destitution do not, as a matter of fact, immediately find a place in the ordinary industrial system, but are frequently driven to live in one way or another upon other persons, an undesirable method of existence, from which, as long as they stand beyond the reach of the law, there is on

Absolutely reliable test whether unemployment is due to personal causes. Relief is given in the home and is enough to keep the recipient and his family efficient. The ideal of attaching a permanent stigma is absent.

Aims of the Strassburg system.

way of persuading, helping, or coercing them into independence. To avoid this unnoticed and unrecorded pauperism (which is none the less real because it does not appear in official statistics), relief institutions, permanent and temporary, must aim, it is argued, not at keeping people at a distance till they have lost their physical strength, and perhaps their desire for regular work, but at catching all persons as soon as they cease to be economically independent, with the object of discovering the cause of their position. To the famous principle that "the conditions of the pauper must in no case be so eligible as those of the independent labourer," the Strassburg system in effect adds "but more eligible than the prospect of living on doles from charity, the pawnshop, soup-kitchens, and shelters." On the one hand it does not emphasise the importance of relief being "deterrent" nearly so much as it emphasises the importance of relief being given without breaking up the home, and without impairing the recipient's physical efficiency. It therefore satisfies the public that it is humane, and so is almost the solitary relief agency of the city, instead of being supplemented by the existence of a large number of charities to provide for those who will starve rather than apply to it. On the other hand, it has in the labour office a barometer which measures exactly the state of the labour market, and which enables it to know whether any individual who applies for relief applies because he is unwilling to accept work when it is offered. It therefore also satisfies the critics who fear (with good reason) that relief unaccompanied by special disabilities may create the class which it aims at assisting. Experience of its working suggests that to combine a high scale of out-relief (preferably in the form of a grant to trade societies where such exist, and otherwise in the form of a grant to individuals) with an efficiently organised labour office, solves the problem of uniting a treatment of the unemployed which is sufficiently strict to avoid all danger of "pauperisation," and sufficiently humane to be recognised as just by the working classes who will, in the future, be more and more responsible for its administration. But the necessary condition of such a system is the establishment of labour exchanges.

The importance of relief being given without breaking up the home, and without impairing the recipient's physical efficiency.

A treatment of the unemployed problem without pauperisation.

96611. (Chairman.) In the preliminary part of your Statement you point out that the problem of the unemployed is, to a large extent, caused by a drifting of boys into the unskilled labour market; but you express also the opinion that that is not caused by the absence of the demand for them in more highly paid or better organised occupations?—That is so.

Attraction of unskilled occupations for boys.

96612. You use the term "more highly paid"; would they be more highly paid in the initial stage?—They would not be more highly paid in the initial stage as apprentices, but as men their prospects would be better.

96613. I assume one of the inducements is the high wage at the initial stage?—Yes. An apprentice fitter, for example, in Glasgow, gets 5s. to 13s., while a boy working a screw-making machine would get about 8s. to 16s.—he would start 3s. higher

96614. The evil results of this drifting of the boys into unskilled labour is, you think, well exemplified by an analysis of the figures of the different distress committees?—I think they are suggestive, but I do not put forward those figures as to ages as conclusive at all. There were much fuller figures put forward by Professor Sadler, in a letter which he wrote to the *Morning Post* last December, in which he dealt with the distress committees all over England.

Conclusion of Professor Sadler in letter to *Morning Post*.

96615. Did he arrive at much the same conclusion?—He arrived at the same conclusion.

96616. You point out a disquieting feature of the situation which is the extremely high proportion of comparatively young men who constitute so large a number of the applicants to the distress committees?—That is what I was mentioning just now; I thought that was what you were alluding to.

96617. You go on to say that you are fully confident it would be shown that the average age of the unemployed in unskilled industries is lower than it is in the skilled industries?—Yes. I have since seen the Report of the Distress Committee of Glasgow which was not published

Report of Distress Committee of Glasgow

when I completed this statement, and the Report bears out what I say.

96618. Then you draw another comparison from your locality. Partick and Govan, I assume, would be looked upon generally as less well-to-do districts than Glasgow?—They are more well-to-do.

96619. There is more wealth, there are more well-to-do houses and well-to-do people living in Glasgow than in those places, surely?—Not working-class wealth. Govan and Partick are mainly shipbuilding and engineering, and therefore employ more highly paid labour than Glasgow.

96620. You are speaking there as regards the working-class then?—Yes. They are boiler-makers and engineers down there.

96621. And the proportion of men over forty-five among the unemployed is much higher than in Glasgow?—Yes. What I mean is that in the shipbuilding districts, the men who are out of work are mainly old men; but in a large transporting centre like Glasgow, where fewer skilled artisans and more unskilled labourers are employed, the men who are out of work are mostly young men. This difference in age suggests that one cause of unemployment among unskilled labourers is the drift of displaced youths into their ranks.

96622. The result is that there is a large surplus of this mass of low-paid unskilled labour?—Yes.

96623. And that tends to short engagements?—That means casual labour. Every employer can get as many men as he wants in his neighbourhood, and consequently when a job is ended in one part of the town the unskilled labourers on that job do not pass to a new job beginning at the other end of the town, but a fresh gang altogether is taken on. The employer has only got to lift his finger and he can get as many men as he wants.

96624. That would be so if you took a trade like the building trade, but that would not be the case as regards more skilled labour, would it?—Not so much. Of course, skilled labour is not perfectly fluid, normally casual employment among skilled artisans is less. In Glasgow there is, at present, a considerable over-supply of bricklayers and carpenters owing to temporary causes; but in general, the over-supply of unskilled labour is much greater.

96625. As regards the building trades, that unskilled unemployed surplus would remain in the locality, I suppose?—Yes. My impression is that it is very immobile indeed. I have known men, not in Glasgow but in London, stay in the same neighbourhood in Limehouse from one year's end to another, hardly getting a month's work in the interval.

96626. Men connected with the building trade?—Yes.

96627. That seems to be rather characteristic of the building trade?—I think it is characteristic of all trades where much unskilled labour is employed.

96628. In Paragraph 8 you make an examination which is very interesting, of 150 labourers and 100 tradesmen, showing what were their occupations immediately on leaving school, and what were their occupations at the age of sixteen. In Table A., as I gather, the tendency is for the messenger boys and the lorry boys to drift into the grade of labourers, that is to say, at sixteen they were going down-hill?—What those tables are meant to bring out are these two points: First, that boys when they leave the elementary schools enter into occupations which are not a direct preparation for future industrial life, that is to say, they become message boys, van boys, trace boys, etc. That happens to all boys, whether they are going to be apprentices or not in my experience; but there are certain classes of occupations which I put down under "Boys in Factories or Works," which are more disastrous than being message boys or van boys, because the boys stay in them till they are eighteen. So if you compare the occupations of boys immediately on leaving school in factories and works, and their occupation at the age of sixteen in factories and works, you will see that the number is not diminished at sixteen, as it is in the case of van boys and message boys, but that it has increased, that is to say, they stay on till they are too old to get any other occupations.

96629. Now take Table B.?—B. shows the same thing, namely, that all boys start, whether they are going to be apprenticed or not in these stop-gap occupations.

96630. But the boys in this table are graded upwards?—Yes. That is to say the position of message boy or of van boy is not so bad for a boy's future as is the position of a boy who is doing unskilled work in factories or works, for example, boys like doffers or boys working screwing machines or loom-boys.

96631. Two years after leaving school is, in your judgment, a very critical period for these boys?—Yes, it is very critical.

96632. A number of these occupations would be such that they would take up much of the boy's time and would not probably bring him into contact with any healthy or educative influence?—Yes. I think some of the occupations are neutral, that is to say, they do not teach a boy anything; and some of them are positively harmful—for example, the occupation of a newspaper boy, of which there are a large number in Glasgow, or the occupation of a lorry boy. Of course, any occupation which is not interesting a boy or teaching him anything at all is harmful in itself. These boys who are put on machines directly they leave school have a lot of superabundant energy which goes in rioting in the streets, and so on.

96633. Has the parent a voice in the selection of these occupations, or is the boy's rather the dominant will?—I should not like to say anything about that; but I do know as a matter of fact that the poor parents bring pressure on their boys to go into occupations which are immediately highly paid. On the other hand, I have known parents take great trouble to apprentice their sons. But in the poorest class of all my impression is that the temptation to the parents of immediately high earnings is almost overwhelming.

96634. It is what I might call necessitous pressure?—Yes.

96635. In Paragraph 10 you give various figures to show that many of these occupations offer small prospects of retention or advance of the boy, as the number of boys is excessive compared to the number of men?—Yes.

96636. Take your first example, the weaving factory, is that an average factory, or is it an exceptional one?—It is a carpet-weaving factory. The conditions vary very much in the different branches of the trade. I should not like to say what they are in the cotton industry in Lancashire, but I am told that girls are employed there to do what boys do in the weaving industry in Glasgow. In carpet-weaving I think the usual practice is to use these loom-boys or creelers, as they are called, as unskilled labourers in the way described in my statement.

96637. I assume a textile factory would be one in which boys would get a chance of retention and promotion?—That is certainly not the case in the only textile factories I have seen; but as I have said, I do not know the cotton industry except by repute.

96638. What textile factories have you seen?—I have seen jute and wire-weaving, and I have seen carpet-weaving. This is a carpet-weaving place.

96639. But you have no experience of Lancashire?—No, I have not, except by hearsay.

96640. Are these carpet factories in Glasgow?—Yes.

96641. Another illustration that you give is a soap works, and there I see the boys are in excess?—Yes.

96642. There is a great variety in your third illustration, a bakery?—Yes. The two branches of the trade, bread-making and biscuit-making, are quite distinct. In bread-making the number of apprentices is strictly regulated. In biscuit-making there is an enormous surplus of boy labourers who receive no training.

96643. Does your experience confirm a statement which has been made to us by various witnesses that these boys can obtain a fresh place with such comparative ease that they are apt to break away on very small provocation?—Yes. They are continually leaving; they are simply nomadic in their habits. At the end of my statement I have given you specimens. They throw up a job on the smallest provocation, and can easily get a job elsewhere up to a certain age.

Mr. Richard H. Towney.
16 Mar. 1908.

Voice of the parent in selecting employment.

Excessive number of boys employed in some occupations.

Conditions of the textile trade.

Excess of boys in soap works.

Conditions in bakeries.

Nomadic habits of boys.

Mr. Richard 96644. There is one boy who is said to have been
H. Tawney to fifty or sixty different jobs?—Yes. It is simply
casual labour among boys.

16 Mar. 1908.

Conditions in
Dundee and
London.

96645. Your investigations have been largely confined
to Glasgow and Dundee, have they not?—Mainly to
Glasgow. I have not investigated this problem in Dundee,
but I have investigated others there, and I know the
circumstances roughly.

96646. The conclusions you have drawn from Glasgow
you think would be not only applicable to London and
Dundee, but probably in both places the conditions would
be worse?—Much worse I should take it. Glasgow is
exceptionally well off owing to the presence of the
engineering and shipbuilding industry.

Moral and
physical
effects on the
boys of
present
conditions.

96647. We have spoken of the industrial disadvan-
tages of this system; now what should you say as regards
the physical effect and the moral effect on the boys?—
I have not got any practical experience of a large number
of boys except the experience which everybody has who
keeps his eye open in a town. I know that the boys
engaged in street selling and in the selling of newspapers,
lead lives which are extremely demoralising and which
do harm to their physique. As to the question of morals,
you will see in Paragraph 19 some figures which I got
from the Chief Constable of Glasgow, which throw some
light upon the point, I think.

96648. Those figures are very remarkable; 83 per
cent. of the number of youths between the ages of
fourteen and twenty-one charged with theft and other
offences inferring dishonesty came from the class of
messengers, street-traders, hawkers, and others, as against
7·5 per cent. from tradesmen, and 8·8 per cent. from
soldiers, schoolboys, waiters and others?—Yes.

Impracti-
cability of
apprentice-
ship owing
to specialisa-
tion of
labour.
Point of
view of
employers.

96649. As regards your suggested remedies, I suppose
apprenticeship cannot be put back on the old footing
that it occupied?—No; apprenticeship is quite hopeless
at present in all the trades I investigated. It is frequently
a fraud upon the boy, and is sometimes, I am afraid, a
fraud upon the employer. The specialisation of labour
has proceeded so far that employers do not want to give
a boy an all-round training; they want to put him on a
valuable machine and to make that machine turn out
as much as possible in the shortest possible time. I have
had quantities of evidence about that, both from em-
ployers and from employed. For example, take a boy
who is learning engineering. Formerly he learnt to be
both a fitter and a turner: now fitting and turning are
often separate. Again, a boy went into the machine depart-
ment of an engineer's shop and he learnt to be a qualified
turner, but now he is put upon some particular class of
machine, a boring machine, a planing machine, or a slot-
ting machine, and he is kept at that, and directly he falls
out of that niche he cannot get into any other, because
he is not suited to any other.

96650. In the old days I suppose it was to the interest
of the employer that he should promote apprenticeship?
—Yes—or it was not to his interest that he should not.

96651. Now he has no need to do so?—That is so.
What he wants is cheap production for a wide market;
and that means sub-dividing labour. If you take a loco-
motive shop making one engine a day, as some of them
do in Glasgow, what they want is to put a boy on a process
that he can do and make him turn out as much as possible.
It is simply waste of money to put an apprentice as a
learner on a valuable machine.

96652. There are two suggestions that you make, one
of them being to raise the school age; that would be
whole-time, I suppose?—Yes. I make these suggestions
very tentatively because I have no experience of the ad-
ministration of education, and I daresay the same result
might be brought about by different methods.

96653. Your second suggestion is that the boy should
attend a trade school after fifteen?—Yes.

96654. How long would you make that attendance
compulsory?—I should make it compulsory as long as
the British public would stand—I imagine up to seventeen.
That is what is done in Germany, I believe.

96655. Would you make him a sort of half-timer then?
—Yes.

96656. If you make him a half-timer at school, and you
want the boy to benefit by the instruction, you must put
a limit on his working hours?—Yes. It is quite impossible
to send some of these boys to school after full-time.

Sugge-tions
to raise the
school age.

Compulsory
trade schools
after 15 till
about 17.

Working
hours to be
limited.

96657. Of course, any proposal of that kind would
raise a number of objections; there would be the parents the poorer
for instance?—The poorer parents would object, but parent
I am certain that the better-to-do work-people would not
object, because I frequently talk to them about it. They
would only object if they thought the boy was going to be
sweated and overworked, as he would be unless there was
a reduction of the hours. It is true that the poorer
parents would object, but then they must not be allowed
to use their children simply as instruments of production,
as they do at present.

96658. Supposing you are right in your conclusions, in
the course of a few years the improvement in the physique
of the boys would become manifest?—I think they would
improve in character and physique.

96659. Then coming to the employer, what do you
think industrially would be the effect of raising the school
age, and then on the top of that attaching the half-time
system?—Employers who employ learners and apprentices
are very keen, I think, to get some satisfactory trade
education, because of course it puts money into an em-
ployer's pocket. On the other hand those employers who
employ a large number of boys as labourers do not care
about it at all, because it never occurs to them that a boy
who is a mere labourer ought to receive a trade education,
whereas he is precisely the boy who ought to receive it,
because when he leaves his present employment without
it he will not get any other. As to the effect of com-
pulsion, the effect would be in my opinion that the em-
ployer would have to find substitutes. As a matter of
fact he has found substitutes in a great many cases. For
example, formerly boys were employed as operative
printers' assistants, laying on and taking off paper, but
a union of operative printers' assistants was formed and
now men are employed at 23s. a week, I think. Again
in the boilermaking and shipbuilding the rivet boys are
engaged by the riveters, and sometimes rivet boys are
quite old men; they might just as well be men throughout
the whole industry, that is to say, you could substitute
men for boys there.

96660. (Mr. Loch.) At the wage of the rivet boy?—
Yes. These rivet boys are on piece-work and they make
a high wage, sometimes over 20s. a week. They are paid
out of the riveters' money. Then again you could sub-
stitute machines. Take, for example, the wire-weaving
trade. The boys in the wire-weaving trade are pulling
by hand a beam which closes the threads after the shuttle
has gone through. That is a process which in all other
kinds of weaving is, I understand, done by machinery.
It is not done by machinery in this trade, simply because
it is an old-fashioned trade, and because employers will
not go to the capital outlay of putting in a machine.
Again you can substitute girls for boys. There is a
large supply of girls who are not at present employed in
industry, and it does not matter employing girls in occupa-
tions which have got no future, because the girls have got
a future in marriage, and so you can employ them instead
of boys. Then again you can work boys double shifts.

96661. It would rather rouse the mind of the public
to substitute girls for boys, would it not?—I make the
suggestion because there are processes which in the jute
industry are done by boys and which leave boys with no
future at eighteen or nineteen years of age, but which in
the cotton industry are done by girls. I do not put it
forward as an ideal solution, but it certainly is a better one
than the present situation. Machinery and double shifts of
boys would solve the problem. It has been solved in
Germany.

96662. Now, take the case of the lorry boys which you
refer to; you could not put a man to that work, could you?
—The lorries would go without. A great many employers
do not employ lorry boys because they cannot get them
cheaply enough. It means then that the lorry man has to
be a little more careful in looking after his goods. I
knew a lorry man who employed a dog instead of a boy,
and that dog looked after the cart very effectively.

96663. Do you think that the suggestions you make
could be carried out without any real or permanent damage
to the industries or occupations in which these boys
would be so employed?—Yes, that is my opinion.

96664. Now will you go on to the expense of it?—
Do you mean the expense of the education or of the
increase in the cost of production?

Objects of
the poorer
parent
Effect
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96665. I was thinking of the actual increase in the cost of education?—I have no information about that, I am afraid, but of course it would vary a great deal in different districts.

96666. If you had the accommodation there would be only the teachers to provide for?—I suppose so; but I have not gone into the question and my opinion is not worth anything.

96667. Have you anything reliable about the increased cost of production; can you make any estimate at all of that?—I think what would happen would be exactly what has happened in the case of the Factory Acts. When employers are cut off by competition in one direction they reorganise their workshop and lay the further cost on some other factor, that is to say, they introduce improvements and substitute adults or machines for boys.

96668. Looking at it both economically and industrially, do you say it is distinctly disadvantageous that the employer should always have available this enormous mass of boy labour?—It is a distinct disadvantage. I think it is the most serious evil there is at present.

96669. In the latter part of your Statement you give us a very interesting account of the Strassburg system of public aid. We will take first the labour exchanges. We have had some evidence before us from persons of experience who believe that a very great deal can be done if there is a proper system of labour exchanges linked up and established right throughout Great Britain; do you agree with that?—I do agree, but with this qualification that I think the use of the labour exchange would have to be made compulsory upon employers.

96670. Is it compulsory now in Strassburg?—No, it is not. It is compulsory on all the municipal departments and on all contractors doing work for the town; but the pressure which a German municipality can bring upon private employers is much greater than an English one can.

96671. Your idea would be to bring pressure on the employer to use the bureau, and you would contemplate this labour bureau or exchange being managed by a joint committee of masters and workmen?—It ought to be under some public authority, but I think that public authority ought to delegate its powers to a representative committee reserving only the ultimate control.

96672. (*Mr. Nunn.*) Is it your idea that you should substitute legislation for the pressure which German municipalities would be able to exercise on the employer. You would have to make use of legislation, would you not?—I think you would. Otherwise why should employers deal with a labour exchange? There is absolutely no reason whatever for it, as they have got a large mass of unskilled labour standing outside their gates. The case is exactly analogous to that of a trade union amongst unskilled labourers. You cannot form a successful trade union amongst unskilled labourers, because there is too large a number of potential blacklegs who would not conform to the trade union rules; and so you cannot get the employers voluntarily to come to an exchange, because they can get plenty of unskilled labour not through the exchange.

96673. (*Chairman.*) Is there not another difficulty about unskilled labour, namely, the difficulty in obtaining the contributions?—That is so, but the question of the over-supply is the root one.

96674. During your visit to Strassburg you were pleased with the system there?—Yes, I was very much impressed with it.

96675. In Paragraph 24 you say the exchange there is divided into four departments, one for skilled workmen, one for unskilled workmen, one for clerks, and one for women?—Yes.

96676. The idea is that they should keep the applicants in the actual sphere or occupation in life in which they have been engaged; for instance, they do not expect a clerk, say, to do heavy manual labour?—No.

96677. Would he be entitled to relief if he could not get work in his particular occupation?—Yes.

96678. You refer to the pressure which has been brought by the town council upon certain employers, but I assume that employers now have recourse to it, because they have found that it answers their purpose?—Yes, that is so. I am informed by the officials that there is not such an over-supply of unskilled labourers in a town like Strassburg as there is in some English towns.

96679. Is the system in Strassburg, do you know, common to all Elsass, or is it confined to Strassburg?—It is common to all Elsass. Strassburg is the head office, the central exchange of Elsass.

96680. You give us some very interesting facts about it, showing the utility of the office, for instance, in obtaining information as to the state of the labour market in other parts of Germany or Switzerland. A part of the scheme which I think is not quite clear is the method in which they deal with the unemployed. I understand that any able-bodied workman who has registered his name and cannot get employment is entitled to get a ticket and to go to the Poor Law; is he?—Yes; that is to say, nobody can get relief of any kind unless the labour exchanges have found out that the state of the labour market is such that there is no employment going.

96681. Then assuming that they have satisfied themselves that he cannot get employment, he is entitled to go to the Poor Law?—Yes.

96682. And the relief he gets may partake of different characters, may it not?—Yes. Poor relief, I should say, is simply one of several different kinds of relief. He may get relief work, he may get relief from his union, and he may get ordinary out-relief through the Poor Law.

96683. Assuming the man who got relief belonged to a union, would he not get something from them to keep him?—He would get unemployed benefit from his union, but, unless he registered at the Municipal Labour Exchange, the town would not pay the 50 per cent. contribution to the union's funds which it now does.

96684. That is part of the bargain?—Yes; otherwise the town would have no check.

96685. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) What about a man who is not in a union?—He has to get Poor Law relief, or in times of exceptional distress he gets work on relief works as in England, but I think they are better managed there. Of course, the payment of the 50 per cent. contribution to the trade unions promotes the formation of trade unions.

96686. (*Chairman.*) The local authority has got a certain check over the operations of the unions in other ways, has it not?—Yes; a union has to comply with certain other forms and rules laid down by the town, of course.

96687. What are those rules?—They simply mean opening the union's books and observing them. I need not go into them. There are certain prescribed schedules, and so on. The object is merely to secure that the town has got the necessary information.

96688. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Does the trade union man never have to go on relief work; does he always get paid without that, and does the other man have to do the relief work?—I cannot answer that. When a trade union card has run out it is for the union to decide, and not for the town to decide whether they will continue to pay out-of-work benefit; but as long as the union pays out-of-work benefit the town continues to supplement the union's payment.

96689. Does that mean that the town pays half of what the man receives weekly?—Every month the union sends its total bill for unemployed donation, and the town adds to that 50 per cent. of the total sum.

96690. So that the man pays for half of his benefit, and the town pays the other half?—Yes, the man pays in the shape of his contribution.

96691. (*Chairman.*) The contribution from the town is not made in the beginning of the year, but it is made monthly according to the actual disbursements?—Yes. There is a maximum limit at present. I should say that this is a new system, and that it is purely experimental.

Mr. Richard H. Tawney.
16 Mar. 1908.

Conditions on which relief is granted.

Varieties of relief given

Conditions on which the town contributes to the funds of a union.

Relief works for those not on a union.

Rules laid down by the town for the unions.

The union, and not the town, decides on paying out-of-work benefit.

System of payment by the town.

Mr. Richard H. Tawney. 16 Mar. 1908. 96692. (*Mr. Nunn.*) The term "contribution" is a little ambiguous, is it not? The municipality has nothing to do with the contributions of the men at all; it simply has to do with the benefits?—It simply has to do with the actual payment made by the union. The municipality pays half the lump sum disbursed by the union.

96693. (*Chairman.*) Assuming the man runs out of his benefit relief, would he then be able to go back to the exchange committee and get a fresh ticket not for relief but for the Poor Law?—He would have to get a fresh ticket before he could get Poor Law relief.

Relief is all out-relief; payments higher than England.

96694. As I understand it, no man who is not a member of the union can get relief otherwise than through this Poor Law ticket?—Through the Poor Law, or through the relief works such as exists in England; but Poor Law relief in Strassburg is very different from Poor Law relief in England, because it is all out-relief, and because the payment is much higher.

The Poor Law starts relief works and gives out-relief.

96695. Is there another authority besides the Poor Law authority, namely, the superintendent of relief?—No. The Poor Law office is the authority which starts relief works in times of exceptional distress, and in ordinary times gives out-relief.

Out-relief does not carry disfranchisement, except penal relief work

96696. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Does that out-relief carry with it disfranchisement? I cannot gather from your Statement whether it does? No, it does not.

96697. It is only the relief work that does, then, is that it?—It is only certain classes of relief work—what they call penal relief work—which differs from the other in carrying disfranchisement.

How this is awarded.

96698. (*Mr. Loch.*) Is that penal relief work on a sentence?—No. There are two classes of relief work in Strassburg; one is much more agreeable than the other, and does not carry disfranchisement, but the other does carry disfranchisement.

96699. Is that simply done by reference to the applicant? In other words is the man sent to this penal work by the Poor Law authority?—He is sent by the town office if he is a man who is suspected of idling.

96700. Without any police intervention?—This has nothing to do with penal labour colonies.

96701. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) Would the local authority determine to which class he shall go?—Yes.

96702. Without any intervention of the police authority?—Yes.

96703. (*Prebendary Russell Wakefield.*) On their knowledge of him?—On their knowledge of his previous work.

Out-relief and relief works.

96704. (*Chairman.*) A man gets his card and goes to the Poor Law and gets out-relief; but that out-relief, I assume, would only be for a certain time?—I am afraid I cannot tell you that; I do not remember.

96705. Would the out-relief be considered an easier and pleasanter form of relief than to get relieved on relief works?—No, certainly not; the payment would be less.

96706. The payment on relief works, I assume, would be somewhat under the standard wage?—Yes. In Paragraph 31 I state that it is "2 marks 20 pfennigs a day, a sum slightly below the local rate for unskilled labour."

Penal colonies—a species of reformatory for all Elsass-Lothringen.

96707. The Poor Law authority would decide if a man was to go to a penal colony you say; is that colony one that is maintained by Strassburg only, or is it an institution to which a number of other municipalities send their people?—I did not investigate the penal colonies. I think there is one workhouse, that is to say, as I understand it, a species of reformatory for the whole of Elsass-Lothringen to which all towns in Elsass-Lothringen can send persons who have committed some kind of offence—but I do not know much about that offence.

Features of the Strassburg Poor Law system.

96708. Then the Strassburg Poor Law system is the ordinary Poor Law, and, in addition, if there is distress or the number of unemployed gets beyond a certain standard, then relief works are opened?—Yes, but the feature of it is using the labour exchange to ascertain whether a man is out of work through industrial or through personal causes.

96709. These relief works are not always going?—No; they are only started in winters of exceptional distress.

96710. This bureau is under the municipality, is it?—Yes. The chief bürgermeister is the chairman, but the municipality delegates the authority to a body of workmen and a body of employers. I have described how they are selected.

96711. It works, I suppose, in very close relation with the Poor Law?—Yes.

96712. Are the people who get relief through the Poor Law considered to have fallen in the social scale?—Not to anything like the same extent that they are in this country, that is to say, the municipal authority in Strassburg encourage persons to apply for relief when they cannot otherwise keep themselves. They argue that if you attempt to use the Poor Law in order to make the Poor Law so unpleasant that men will not apply for relief, you are not curing pauperism, but you are simply concealing pauperism; if that happens the official statistics of relief are absolutely no measure of real pauperism. Official statistics may show an increase in the number of persons relieved when there may be a diminution in the real amount of pauperism; and *vice versa*.

96713. Has this system of the labour exchange been long in operation there?—Twelve years.

96714. (*Prebendary Russell Wakefield.*) But not the whole system of relief works?—I could not say, I am afraid, how long the relief works have been going on.

96715. (*Chairman.*) You say that when trade revives the workmen flock back to their ordinary employment; the inducement is, I suppose the higher wage?—When trade revives, employers begin to apply to the exchange, and for every employer who applies, the exchange cancels a ticket issued to a workman.

96716. Has the exchange the power of making those whom it has on these relief works or in receipt of out-relief take up this employment?—It says: "Either you must take a job or else you must keep yourself."

96717. (*Mr. Loch.*) That is said by the labour authority?—By the labour exchange.

96718. (*Chairman.*) Then the system really does depend on bringing the employers in?—It entirely depends on getting the co-operation of the workpeople and the employers.

96719. I suppose one of the reasons why you recommend some compulsion is that, unless the employers come in, you cannot work your labour exchange successfully?—It is entirely useless unless the employers come in.

96720. Did you talk to people there; and, if so, what was the general impression as to the results of the labour exchange?—I only talked to officials and to philanthropic persons who are interested in it. I did not see any employers or any workpeople, I am sorry to say. The general impression was extremely favourable to it. I was told that the workpeople approved it strongly; and that is shown by the fact that unions pay their travelling benefit through this labour exchange in order to attract men to it. I was told that the employers started by being rather hostile to it, but that they have come to approve of it. The officials asserted that most of the men at work in Strassburg had been engaged through the exchange.

96721. It is rather remarkable that the system which you describe is the solitary relieving agency in the town, and is not supplemented by charity?—That may be an exaggeration; but there is much less of private charity and private institutions for dealing with distress there than there is in this country, because the charitable public in Strassburg and Freiberg are confident that the municipality will not lay down too stringent a standard of relief. The cause of indiscriminate philanthropy in England is the knowledge that a man has got nothing to fall back upon except the workhouse.

96722. You have spoken about the unions; I suppose one of the difficulties that this exchange has to encounter is that the unskilled labourer has no union?—That is so.

96723. Are there many of the others in unions?—About 25 per cent. of the adult manual workers are in unions.

96724. Have any attempts been made to establish any kind of union among the unskilled, or is any encouragement given to the unskilled to save?—I am afraid I have not any information about that.

96725. Did you visit any other institutions of a similar character abroad?—I visited the institutions at Freiberg, which is a small town in the neighbourhood of Strassburg, but is too small a town to be of any significance. The same system of labour exchanges is in use there; it resembles Strassburg exactly, except that no system of supplementing trade unions benefit does not obtain there.

96726. You are clearly of opinion that if labour bureaux could be established, and still more if they could be established all over England, and you could bring employers in, they could play a very great part in diminishing unemployment?—Yes; if you could make them compulsory, and I am quite sure that it would be necessary to make them compulsory.

96727. In what sense would you make them compulsory?—I should say that employers must engage all their men through a central office.

96728. (*Mr. Nunn.*) Regular or casual?—Regular and casual. There is not any hard and fast line between them. As a matter of fact, in a great many trades, the employers do engage all their regular men through the offices of the unions—for example, the Typographical Association in Scotland.

96729. (*Chairman.*) If you did that in this country, where we are not accustomed to such drastic measures in such matters, and you declined to allow the employer to employ anybody except through a labour exchange, you would put it on the local authority which had a labour exchange to find work for all the people who wanted it, or at any rate that might be contended?—I do not quite see why.

96730. You will then be saying that it is not legal to get employment except in one particular way, that is, through the bureau, which is a Government or municipal office?—Yes.

96731. A man goes there and he cannot get employment; what then?—If the exchange is working properly as in Strassburg, that is a proof that there is no employment to be had. A man has got a much better chance of getting it there than he has by walking about the streets.

96732. Still, the pressure on the Government or the local authority to provide work for a considerable number of persons, it seems to me, would be very great?—If it is the case that there is really no work to be had, the pressure ought to be applied, I think. It is not desirable that the municipality should escape it.

96733. Your answer would be that it is a test of distress?—It is an absolute test whether distress is due to industrial or personal reasons.

96734. And therefore, being a test, the local authority must be responsible for it?—Certainly.

96735. (*Prebendary Russell Wakefield.*) Can you imagine the reverse case, in which there are not sufficient people to go round, and an employer is obliged to apply to an exchange, and he does not get what he wants; what is to happen then?—He does not get what he wants because what he wants is not to be had in that case.

96736. He would have to do without it?—Yes.

96737. (*Mr. Gardiner.*) Could they not telephone to other parts?—It would have to be in touch with exchanges all over the country. It really increases their choice of men, because it brings them into touch with all the available workmen everywhere.

96738. If highly skilled workmen are required and there are only six on the list at the exchange and the employer does not like any of them, the exchange could telephone to some other towns?—Certainly.

96739. The men would not object to that, you think?—No.

96740. (*Mr. Loch.*) Would they not object to other men coming in?—It happens continually.

96741. (*Mr. Gardiner.*) That is to say, these six local men who are not so highly skilled are kept out of employment whilst the seventh man is imported?—If he was a better man.

96742. Or because he suits the employer better?—Yes.

96743. (*Chairman.*) Have the people who are registered at the exchange got to qualify by residence?—No.

96744. Then there is nothing analogous to our settlement?—No. The object is to make labour as mobile as possible and a man registers at the exchange directly he enters the town.

96745. And *vice versa*, a man going away from there to get employment would not have to qualify in the other town by residence?—No.

96746. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) Is the labour exchange limited to Strassburg itself?—There are several exchanges in Elsass-Lothringen.

96747. Are they all linked up?—Yes.

96748. Supposing there was an insufficiency of employment in Strassburg, would they communicate with the other exchanges?—Yes, they are doing that continually. In the rooms I saw hanging on the walls printed lists of the places in other parts of Germany where there is a demand for labour.

96749. In that case do they render any assistance in moving a man from one place to another?—Yes, the State railways give a reduction of 50 per cent.

96750. Does the labour exchange itself pay any part of that?—They may have an arrangement with the railway, but I cannot say who bears the ultimate charges.

96751. Referring to your tables in Paragraph 8 it seems that according to Table A. there were eight lads becoming apprentices immediately on leaving school, and at the age of sixteen there were twenty?—Yes.

96752. Therefore it does follow that although a certain number of boys go into casual employment to start with, they ultimately become apprentices?—Certainly. The normal thing when a boy leaves school now is not to become an apprentice. The age of apprenticeship is rising. There are only about four trades—painting, printing, plumbing, and iron-moulding—where boys become apprentices in Glasgow when they leave school. The employers do not want them till fifteen or sixteen, and some unions will not let them be apprenticed till they are fifteen or sixteen. So they all go into these occupations to begin with, and some of them pass on into apprenticeship.

96753. In the case of Table B. the proportion is very high; at the age of sixteen there are eighty-seven?—Of course—because they were tradesmen.

96754. They went into the trades?—Yes.

96755. There were eighty-seven of them at sixteen, although there were only twenty-three immediately on leaving school?—Yes.

96756. (*Chairman.*) The boys in Table B. would be of a different class to those in Table A., would they not; they would be a good deal above the social standard of the labourer?—Yes; they are joiners, engineers, masons, and so on.

96757. In receipt of good wages?—Yes.

96758. (*Mr. Loch.*) With regard to your suggestion about girls' work, you do not think that by the time they have had work of the type mentioned for some years they would, on their side, be rather uprooted and put into a different frame of mind as to their own futures?—I suggested the girls as a possible substitute, but I do not want to emphasise that. However, I think it would be a better arrangement than the present arrangement. The advantage is that it does not matter if a girl has no industrial future because she has a future otherwise.

96759. I take it you would think that it is on the whole not good that women should be working in factories, and so on, when they are married?—Certainly; but it does not do girls any harm provided the factory is fit to work in.

96760. Would you be in favour of saying it is desirable that married women should not work in factories?—I think it is desirable, but I do not know how it could be brought about. It would kill Dundee, for example.

96761. Would the economic result be so serious as to make the proposal impossible?—That is a matter on which I have not any evidence. The work-people in Lancashire say it would not, because the women there work and are paid the same piece-rate as men, and some earn as much as 27s. a week. They are not any cheaper than the men there, and what keeps them employed is simply custom. But I have not got any direct information about that.

Mr. Richard H. Tawney.
16 Mar. 1908.

Labour exchanges in Elsass-Lothringen linked up.

Reduction on State railways to help move a man from one place to another.

Figures in Table A. referred to.

The age of apprentice-ship is rising.

Figures in Table B.

Advantage of girls as a substitute for boys.

Serious results of married women working in factories.

Mr. Richard H. Tawney. 96762. You use the argument as to Dundee; the Dundee jute-working women are drawing higher wages than the men, are they not?—No; they are drawing much lower wages.

16 Mar. 1908. In Dundee 96763. Even in the weaving part of the jute?—Yes; theirs is very low-paid work in Dundee.

the women draw much lower wages than the men. 96764. As compared with what the men who are doing the same work are getting?—Yes.

96765. If that is so, this argument as to Lancashire would not apply to Dundee?—That is so. I have no personal knowledge of Lancashire.

Trade schools should supply general knowledge of a trade. 96766. You make the suggestion that there should be trade schools; trade schools, I presume, would be schools that would give men just that sufficient knowledge which would enable them when they came to the age of starting in life for themselves to do the specialised work which they now require in industry?—No. I do not want them to have specialised knowledge. I want them to have general knowledge, that is to say, ability to make openings for themselves and to adapt themselves to a number of different circumstances. Let me take an example. A boy in a particular kind of works is set down to a machine turning out screws or bolts; he could not take any other niche or any other job because he does not know how to do it; what you want is that he shall get, out of the workshop, the general knowledge that he does not get in it.

96767. And so be able, in his turn when the time comes, to take special work?—Be able to take work of a different kind. An engineer ought not to be a fitter only; he ought to be a turner as well, because that doubles his chance of employment.

96768. You would generalise his education industrially in order that he might specialise afterwards?—The employer will specialise it afterwards.

Proper education for unskilled labourers. 96769. Coming to the unskilled or general sort of labour, your trade schools would hardly serve in that case?—Perhaps the term trade school suggests the wrong thing. The boy is being employed on something which offers no industrial or moral training; he sometimes becomes utterly demoralised and irresponsible. What I want to do is to exercise moral discipline and to give him the self-restraint that come from education, and the adaptability as well.

What is expected from a half-time school. 96770. Do you think you will get that from a half-time school of any sort?—I think so.

96771. Have you found it so actually? Is it the case that the half-time system will apply to this type of boy we are speaking of?—The fact of the system being a half-time one does not alter the quality of the education, does it?

96772. No, but it alters the quality of the control over the boy?—Because it halves it; but even then it is better than it is at present.

96773. But you have no home control over him, unless you work it in connection with the home. It is said in some of these papers that we are dealing with boys who are on the verge of homelessness, in the sense that their home is not much to them?—I should not like to say that always, but it is true in a great many cases.

96774. I am thinking of those cases, rather, where the tendency is in that direction; do you think that half-time would suffice for those cases?—I should rather have the whole-time system, of course; but that is impossible.

96775. You do not think this bit of work could be accomplished in other ways than by an alteration in our education plans?—No, I do not.

96776. Did you see anything of this sort abroad?—No, I have merely read the literature on the subject.

A combination of trade teaching and moral discipline wanted. 96777. Do you think our sixth form teaching pushed into two years further would suffice for the purpose?—I want to see some sort of combination of trade teaching, with moral discipline, that is, teaching the boys the principles of trades and giving them an interest in life.

Few facilities for sports in Glasgow. 96778. Do you find in Glasgow that these boys form clubs or anything of that kind, and do much in the way of sports?—Not much in the way of sports; there are very few facilities for sport among the boys.

96779. And you want something really in that direction?—That would be desirable, no doubt, but it was not what I was thinking of.

96780. Would it not be necessary to have that as well?—I dare say it would be better to do it as well, but if you could not do it it would not alter the merits of this proposal.

96781. Do you think that the half-time education which you propose would teach the boy all round as you desire?—I think it would do him a great deal of good.

96782. With regard to the unions in Germany which you have referred to, may I take it that the method of giving half the relief money, if I may so call it, to the union leads practically to the creation of what I may call out-of-work benefit in the unions, of which the municipalities pay half?—It does not lead to its creation; it leads to its extension. Unless the fund already exists the municipality does not pay half. In Germany The extension of out-of-work benefit by the municipality giving it

96783. If the municipalities did not pay half it could hardly be a public service to the extent that it now is?—That is so. Of course, if we paid half the £100,000 which the Amalgamated Society of Engineers spends in two or three years it would immensely increase their resources.

96784. Do you find that owing to this payment any lower class of men are organised in Germany?—I did not get any information about that; I asked the officials, but they could not tell me. I should think that it was a bounty on trade unions.

96785. Has it at all suggested to you any method of forming a quasi-public fund as an insurance against want of work?—Yes. I think if this system were adopted it would be desirable not to confine it to unions, but to extend it to any association which performed the functions now performed by trade unions with regard to unemployment. I think it would create a lot of ill-feeling to confine it to unionist workmen. I think the example of putting the administration of unemployed relief not into the hands of distress committees, but into the hands of the workmen themselves, and of throwing the obligation of ascertaining whether a man was malingering or not on themselves, is the only principle that can succeed. I should suggest the creation of "Unemployment Insurance Associations," to which a grant should be paid from public funds. Possible extension of this system

96786. In England, amongst our unskilled labourers, it is generally said there can be no union; but could there not be a union if a large grant like this were available, and the union existed simply to put £50 down to another £50?—Yes, I think that is quite possible.

96787. So it would not be a combination on the lines of the trade itself, so much as on the lines of qualifying themselves for a particular benefit?—Yes.

96788. With regard to the relations of these unions to the municipality, does that relation affect their union trade union spirit adversely?—No; they are just as much trade union organisations as they are in England. Effect on the union trade union spirit.

96789. They are not made too pliant?—No. I did not gather so in conversation.

96790. I understand that the labour exchange, as used in this way, acts as a first line of defence against the troubles and distress that may follow an unemployment?—It minimises the need for relief by seeing that the men get whatever employment is to be got at once; and it also acts as a test for relief when there is no employment to be had. Work of the labour exchange

96791. Suppose we had a system like that working in West Ham, would the pressure for employment be so great that in most of the cases it would simply have to be recorded that the men wanted relief?—I think that would be probable, but then we should for the first time know the real extent of unemployment. The information as to extent of unemployment and necessity for relief is wanted.

96792. The result would be that until some sort of balance was reached, as there is, perhaps, in Strassburg and the surrounding districts, between the amount of work available and the number of people applying for it, you would throw a great mass of people on to relief in some form?—You would not throw them on to relief, but you would show that they were in need of relief. The State would be under no more obligation than it is at present, if it is under any, to provide relief; it would simply know how much relief was actually wanted.

96793. Each of these cases would be applications, I understand, that is to say, the men would have applied in the same way and have been tested by the labour exchange itself, and so would be qualified to that extent for becoming applicants for relief?—The labour exchange need not undertake the functions of a test in this country unless it wants to. When a man applies to a labour exchange he does not apply for relief; he asks: "Is there any work in ordinary employment?"

96794. If he chooses to go there the testimony of the labour exchange is for him if he wants relief?—If the State wants to organise relief works the labour exchange provides it with the machinery for knowing what the causes of distress are.

96795. You would bring these labour exchanges into force on the plan that is adopted in Strassburg?—Using them as a test?

96796. Using them as a test?—Yes, I think that is what we ought to work for.

96797. But prior to that it is essential that the representative trades of the district should become partial administrators?—Yes; I think that is essential, to get confidence.

96798. With regard to the relief work, I understand that relief work is not provided by the poor authority?—That is so.

96799. I presume that the authority would get its information about the individuals who applied at the labour test?—Yes; they have a very complete record.

96800. And then the man's *dossier* all through is available?—Yes.

96801. Granting that we might get a labour exchange test working as you suggest, do you think that their possession of a *dossier* in Strassburg enables them to carry the test out in a way that we could not?—Yes, I do. That is very important.

96802. Does it not follow, therefore, that unless you have the *dossier* system you cannot carry this out?—The *dossier* system is simply a note as to a man's qualifications for employment and his previous record.

96803. And there, to a certain extent, all the references to a man's past career are down?—Yes.

96804. We have nothing like that here, I think?—We have it in the labour exchanges in London, I think.

96805. The *dossier*, I think, if I am right, in Germany, really carries you back to the man's past, so that practically from the time of his confirmation almost you have particulars?—I do not think there is anything like that. I saw their *dossiers* and I did not gather that.

96806. Did they use the police for making inquiries?—Not that I know of, especially in connection with the labour exchange. Of course, the police know much more about people in Germany than they do in England.

96807. (*Prebendary Russell Wakefield.*) The police *dossier* and the *dossier* you are speaking of now are two different things, are they not?—Quite different things. This is merely an industrial record.

96808. (*Mr. Lock.*) The system in Strassburg and other German towns is relief without working?—Yes.

96809. Have you found practically that there is a poorhouse somewhere near in which such cases as drink cases and other ineligible cases are kept?—There is not a poorhouse for Strassburg, but there is for the whole State or Province.

96810. Did you go into one?—No, I did not; but how they qualify for it I am not quite certain.

96811. You draw a distinction between that and the *arbeitshaus*?—There is not an *arbeitshaus* in Strassburg.

96812. But there is for the area?—Yes. The *arbeits-haus* is what I was speaking of.

96813. Are they sent to the *arbeitshaus* by sentence of a magistrate?—I am not sure about that.

96814. Would those cases which we in England would refer to the house, unless they were suitable for the poorhouse or the *arbeitshaus* be relieved by way of allowance?—Yes—by the ordinary method of relief.

96815. The ordinary definition of relief, I think, runs something in this form in Germany—that the person has relief if it is absolutely necessary, provided that no one is able to furnish him with what he needs, and that he will do whatever work he is required to do?—I did not see any formula of that kind, but they do get relief without working.

96816. That is given in a little booklet, like the Elberfeld booklet, showing what the conditions of relief are: you do not remember the definition there?—No.

96817. You say the destitution is not in existence there as it is in England?—A man gets relieved before he has got destitute, and he gets relief in order to prevent his becoming destitute.

96818. Is there not a common rule that all he can claim is what may be called the absolute necessities of life?—Yes.

96819. Is that not very near, technically, to our definition of destitution?—I do not think so. I think it is interpreted in a much more liberal sense as to what the necessities of life are.

96820. That is to say the interpretation is different, but the principle is common?—It is rather hard to distinguish them.

96821. Will you take it for granted for the moment that what I put to you as the general rule in almost all their regulations is fairly correct; would you in that case say that he had only a claim for necessities?—The necessities of existence are much more liberally interpreted in Germany than in this country, or rather I would say the necessities not of existence but of efficiency—that is the difference.

96822. Is it relief by scale? Do they say so much is required for existence, and we will give that amount?—There is a very elaborate scale drawn up for all conceivable persons, such as for widows with families from any number down to one.

96823. Do you think that the scale system which they adopt is better than our system—you know that I think—for giving relief?—I do not think I am personally familiar with our system to answer. What feature do you mean?

96824. I mean the way we deal with our widows?—It is infinitely better, because in England we give an allowance to the widow just sufficient to keep her alive if she goes out to work; but in Germany they give her an allowance to keep her and her family, provided she does not go out to work, so that she should bring up her children. We keep the home together by sending the woman to a factory.

96825. That is to say they provide a scale of what is necessary for relief in a different way?—Quite different.

96826. (*Mr. Bentham.*) Could we have that scale?—I have not got it here, but I will send it in. (*See Appendix No. XVI. (A).*)

96827. (*Mr. Lock.*) Did you come across the visiting part of their relief?—I heard a great deal about it, and I saw persons who were engaged in it. The reason why the out-relief is so efficient there is that they have got a staff of 600 visitors in Strassburg who keep in touch with the cases.

96828. Apart from their 600 visitors they have the ordinary committees of the town and district committees under them?—Yes.

96829. What aids have they for making inquiries apart from the police?—They have what we should call relieving officers, but the difference is that they are investigating officers. A paid officer investigates in the first place in order to get the facts right; then if the case is going to be a case for permanent relief it is given over to a voluntary visitor.

96830. Did you see the decisions in those cases, and did you go through any number of them?—No, I did not go through any cases.

96831. Did it strike you at all that in any way they were mostly allowance cases, and that very little was done in the way of getting a person off relief?—I did not see the cases, but my impression is exactly the opposite, and that a great deal of personal influence and enthusiasm was brought to bear in administering the law.

Mr. Richard H. Tawney.
16 Mar. 1908.

In Germany a man is relieved before he is destitute.

A man has a claim for the requisites of efficiency.

An elaborate scale is drawn up.

Advantages of German scheme.

A staff of 600 visitors in Strassburg.

Paid relieving officers and voluntary visitors.

Mr. Richard H. Tawney. 96832. You have not got any evidence taken down by you, then or since, that you can lay your hand on showing actual results?—No, I have not.

16 Mar. 1908. 96833. This system is a municipal system entirely, and it is not connected with any other form of local government, if one may say so?—No, it is a municipal system.

Strassburg has not got the Elberfeld system. 96834. So that there may be the greatest possible variety as to the methods if the localities each desire to have a different method?—Yes there might. Most localities have the Elberfeld system, but Strassburg has not.

96835. You do not call it Elberfeld there?—I do not call it the Elberfeld system; there is not the same minute sub-division or specialisation.

How the Strassburg system would work in West Ham. 96836. (*Miss Hill.*) Supposing that this plan were adopted in a place like West Ham where there might be conceivably a great number of unskilled labourers for whom it would not be easy immediately to find work, then there would be no test whatever in their applying, and it would soon become known that they had only to apply to get immediately on what we should call the Poor Law?—No, I do not think so. The labour office would show for the first time how many people could not get work in private employment. We do not know that at present. The State could then say whether it is going to deal with them or not. At present the State decides without adequate information as to their real numbers or the cause of distress.

96837. We should know nothing about the circumstances of the people, nor their relations—whether they were able to help, for instance—nor their characters—whether, for instance, they would spend well what was given them?—The labour office would not tell you that, of course.

The labour office establishes a *prima facie* case. 96838. I gather that the application to the labour office is to be sufficient to give a certificate for outdoor poor relief?—The labour office establishes a *prima facie* case, that is to say, it shows that, if a man cannot get work through the labour office, it is not his fault that he cannot get work.

96839. But you mean that there would be nothing to prevent the Poor Law in a large poor district from following up the enquiry, because the labour bureau would only establish one fact, namely, the fact of the absence of employment, and it would not establish any other fact?—Yes.

The preponderance of casual workers caused by the industrial system, not by personal reasons. 96840. I was a little puzzled by a sentence in Paragraph 20: "The preponderance of shiftless, inefficient, casual workers among applicants to distress committees gives rise to the view that unemployment is caused by personal, not by industrial reasons, and to the plausible statement that 'any man can get work if he wants it.' In reality, whatever may be true of others, the precise opposite is true of these boys and of the men into whom they grow." Surely it is a personal thing as illustrated by these cases that you quote just above?—No, it is caused by the industrial system.

96841. He leaves a place because he is tired of the job, or because he could not get on with the foreman or because he wanted more money?—Certainly. The employer offers him work of a kind that is absolutely uneducative, and done under purely monotonous and mechanical conditions. It is often the best boys and not the worst who leave jobs because they are enterprising.

96842. It is not very often the want of discipline in the boy? It may be increased by the system, but surely it is the want of steady work very often that prevents them from rising into better places?—The majority of them cannot rise in the industries I am speaking of, because the number of better places is so small that all the boys are not wanted to recruit them, as my figures show. You cannot expect boys to rise above the average boy nature.

96843. But you cannot say it is not personal, can you? It seems to me that it is due to the personal characteristics of the boy, even if he cannot be very much to blame for that?—It no doubt depends upon that, which boy is the first to go and which boy suffers most. The general system degrades the whole class of boys, and puts an incentive in the way of all boys, good and bad, to make a mess of their lives.

96844. I do not see the distinction between the man and the boy that you make here—I do not know that it very much matters, but it seems to me that what these boys want is not so much industrial training as moral training?—I agree that they want both.

96845. If we had a loyal boy, a punctual boy, an obedient boy, a good tempered boy and an industrious boy, he would get on?—Certainly, but I say the present conditions of work-shop life tend to produce precisely the opposite type.

96846. And you think the half-time school would not?—Certainly.

96847. (*Mr. Gardiner.*) Would you kindly indicate the kind of pressure exercised by the council or municipality in Strassburg to induce employers to seek the aid of the exchange?—They wrote round to them and visited them. Then the public opinion behind a German municipality is much stronger than the public opinion behind English municipalities—the public interest is much more powerful.

96848. In Table A, Paragraph 8, you put down the number of boys as four immediately on leaving school, and when they become sixteen the number has grown to five?—That merely means that somebody else has become a seaman.

96849. (*Dr. Downes.*) You investigated their lives backwards?—Yes.

96850. In Paragraph 19, you give us the number of youths between the ages of fourteen and twenty-one charged with theft and other offences under the headings (a) (b) (c) (d); have you got any figures of the total numbers employed?—I can give you the census figures for 1901, which indirectly throw light on the subject. The total boys occupied in Glasgow then, between ten and twenty years of age, was 42,990, this being divided as follows:—In the conveyance of goods and messages, 9,411, or 21 per cent.; on metals, machines, implements and conveyances, 9,336 or 21 per cent.; in commercial occupations, 4,115; on food, tobacco and drink, 3,710; on buildings and works of construction, 3,682; on wood, furniture, fittings and decoration, 1,802; on textile fabrics, 1,556; on other trades, 1,236; on paper, prints, books and stationery, 1,063; on precious metals, watches, etc., 853; in and about mines and quarries, 420; on chemicals, oils, grease and soap, 359; and other occupations undefined, 3,870.

96851. Thank you; I was rather under the impression that (b) would exceed (c)?—What makes the difference is the existence of the engineering and ship-building trade in Glasgow.

96852. Could you tell us how the town council of Strassburg is composed, and how it is elected?—I am afraid I cannot. I think there is a high property qualification, but I am not certain.

96853. Do you know whether the Chief Bürgermeister is a paid official?—Yes he is.

96854. How is he elected?—He is elected by the council.

96855. Do you know what his salary is?—I do not, I am afraid.

96856. What is the tenure of his office?—I think it is nine years in Strassburg, but I am not absolutely positive about that.

96857. I notice that the applications from the employers have risen in a greater proportion than the other figures given in Paragraph 28; does that mean that there has been a shortage of labour in Strassburg, or what is the cause?—I cannot say. I imagine the employers started by being very distrustful of the system, and are now beginning to adopt it.

96858. The applications from the workmen represent almost an equal number to the total number of wage-earners?—Yes.

96859. Have you any information as to how long each place is filled?—No.

96860. What is the attitude of the labour office in time of strike?—It does not take any attitude. It simply closes as far as that trade is concerned, and it will not find employers for men or men for employers.

96861. Have you any statistics as to Part II., the Relief of the Unemployed in Strassburg?—I think I could supply you with the number relieved at different periods.

96862. (*Prebendary Russell Wakefield.*) On that subject in regard to the number of wage-earners as compared with the population, is that not much smaller in Strassburg—namely, 20,000 as compared with 167,000—in proportion, than it is with us in London?—I have not compared the figures, but I should not have said that it was. It may be.

96863. (*Dr. Downes.*) I see that one class of work provided by the Town Council of Strassburg is repairing fortifications?—Yes.

96864. Is that done by the town council?—Yes; the men get work on that.

96865. It is not done by the military authorities?—They do it as well. But repairing the fortifications merely means working on the ramparts.

96866. You speak of the Poor Law authority, but what is the Poor Law authority in Strassburg?—It is an elected body like the Poor Law authority in this country.

96867. Is the town council represented on it?—No, not that I know of.

96868. Do you know what franchise it is elected on?—I cannot tell you that.

96869. Relief, apparently, is contingent on the individual accepting the first offer of employment under certain conditions?—Yes.

96870. If he does not accept the offer of employment, what happens to him?—He does not get his card which qualifies for relief, and he must keep himself if he chooses to stay out of work.

96871. Is the alternative that he has to starve if he cannot keep himself?—If he refuses to work when there is work going of course the municipality does not provide for him.

96872. That is the logical result?—Yes.

96873. To what extent does that occur in practice?—I could not tell you that; I imagine it does not occur at all.

96874. (*Miss Hill.*) What about his dependants—his wife and children, in such a case?—If he is a drunkard or something like that?

96875. Yes; is he sent to a labour colony?—Yes; he would be if he neglected his family. He would come under the police regulations.

96876. (*Dr. Downes.*) Do they prosecute men for not maintaining their families?—Yes.

96877. Do you know to what extent those prosecutions are carried out?—No, I cannot tell.

96878. (*Mr. Bentham.*) In Strassburg, does the labour exchange attempt to provide any work as a test?—No.

96879. Are all cases which need relief for which the labour exchange cannot find employment through the ordinary channels referred to the Poor Law?—The labour exchange gives them a ticket stating that there is no work in private employment for such and such men; that ticket qualifies a man for relief unless there is something else against him.

96880. It is really referring him to the relief department?—Yes.

96881. Would there be any further investigation of the case by the relief authority as to its qualifications for relief?—Yes.

96882. Then it may accept the case, or it may not?—Yes.

96883. What becomes of the class that Miss Hill has referred to, who are known to be drunkards, and who neglect their families: what do they do with those?—I cannot tell you, I am afraid; I did not investigate that subject.

96884. When you said that the relief was on a higher scale and there was a higher standard of relief in Germany, what would you take as your measure of quantity here?—I was thinking of the relief which was given to widows in the Scottish towns with which I am acquainted. The relief there is usually about 2s. 6d., sometimes it is 5s., sometimes 6s., but usually it is much less than that.

96885. The expectation in many cases is that the widow herself would be able to supplement that by her own earnings?—In a place like Dundee—it is not so much so in Glasgow—the policy is sometimes to drive a woman out to work in a factory, and leave her children to be looked after at home.

96886. That would vary in different towns in Scotland with the number of children, and the age of the children, and the ability of the women to work?—Yes.

96887. And would not the same thing apply in Strassburg? They would not say that a widow with two children would need full relief where both her children were going to school and she was an able-bodied woman, and besides managing her two children could very well manage to get her own livelihood? Would they give her the same as they would a widow with four children?—The relief they give is such as to enable the woman to bring up her children. What I did was to draw a distinction between that and the usual system in Scotland, which is to assume that the woman ought to go out to work, however young her family may be, and to base the amount of relief on that. The Strassburg system gives her enough relief to stay at home and look after her young children without going out to work herself.

96888. Could you really say that without giving a typical case, showing how that would be done in Scotland, and the way in which it would be done in Strassburg? Really the judgment of the relief authority must come in in both cases, and must be exercised in both cases, and it need not necessarily follow in Scotland, or under the Scottish system, that they would drive a woman out to work who needed to spend all her time on the children?—It does not legally follow, but that was the practice in the towns I visited, Dundee, for example. It is also the practice in certain London unions, e.g., Woolwich. It is not so much the case in Glasgow. In Glasgow they have recently started a new experiment for specially supervising widows with young children, and are giving them a higher scale of relief.

96889. What you mean is that that is already done in Strassburg, and is done more perfectly than anything that is done in Scotland?—In the towns with which I am acquainted in Scotland.

96890. I think you said in answer to a previous question that you would prefer to see all men tested as to their ability to work before they are referred to the relieving agency, that is, before you know whether a case is an ineligible case or not you want to offer employment of the kind that will be accepted?—I did not mean to say that.

96891. I must have misunderstood the answer to the Visitation of question. Do you know whether the Poor Law Committee persons get at Strassburg divides itself up for visitation purposes?—The visitation of the persons who are getting relief is mainly done by the 600 voluntary workers.

96892. That is really the Elberfeld system?—Yes; but the difference which prevents Strassburg from being a perfect example of the Elberfeld system is that more work is done by paid officials in Strassburg, that is to say, the preliminary work of investigation; and, secondly, that the areas under each local committee are much larger.

96893. You did not examine carefully into the working of the system, I understand?—How would you test the working?

96894. You did not inquire into the working of the Poor Law as to how it worked, the number of people in receipt of relief, the amount of relief given to the various classes, and so on?—I can give you the amount of relief given to the various classes, and I can give you the number of persons in receipt of relief—not for the last year, because there is not a report for the last year, but for two or three years back.

96895. Will you put those in?—Yes. (*See Appendix No. XVI. (B).*)

96896. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) First of all, supposing your proposal for raising the age limit comes about, it is only going one step further than we went when the Factory Acts came in and we abolished children working in mines?—Precisely.

Mr. Richard H. Tawney.
16 Mar. 1908.

Mr. Richard H. Tawney. 96897. People had to organise their businesses differently then?—Yes, certainly.

16 Mar. 1908. 96898. This would be a smaller thing even than that was, because we dealt with women as well as children at that time?—Yes; the interference would be much less by the half-time system.

96899. So that there is quite a good precedent for taking some action in this matter?—Yes, certainly.

96900. After all, that was not taken out of sheer pig-headedness, but simply because it was felt that it was not good for the community that children should work in that sort of way?—This step is exactly in series with that, but it is not quite so dramatic or so sensational.

96901. But the effect of it on the people concerned is just as bad?—The effect of employing boys merely as labourers is to create a class who are not fit for employment after the age of twenty.

96902. Therefore if industry could adapt itself, as it did adapt itself, to the Factory Acts, that is good evidence that industry could adapt itself to meet these new conditions if they come about?—Yes.

Increase to the productive power of the community hoped for. 96903. About the cost to the State in doing this, the thing the State gets for it is an improved number of citizens who at present are of no use to them, but who would be useful if dealt with in this way?—Exactly. The productive power of the community would be infinitely increased exactly as it is by elementary education.

Trade unions for unskilled workers and out-of-work pay. 96904. Then with regard to the Strassburg system, of course there are trade unions in this country for unskilled workers?—Yes.

96905. But they are not at present able to pay out-of-work pay?—That is so.

96906. I do not know whether you have got any opinion or whether you have been able to form any opinion on this subject, but do you think it would be possible for the unskilled workers to form a union and pay a sufficient contribution to get a small amount of out-of-work pay which might be subsidised as it is in Strassburg?—I think if you pay 50 per cent. on any contribution you would offer incentives to the formation of unions who give unemployed donations, and that I should regard as one of the advantages of the proposal. At the same time by decasualising labour by means of labour exchanges you make the ability of individuals to contribute to a union much greater.

96907. Supposing that is done, you do not make the statement, do you, that there is work for everybody?—No.

The State to be supplied with materials to form a judgment. 96908. It has been put to you that if you register a man and woman and there is not enough work to go round you will strengthen the demand for the right to work?—In so far as you supply the knowledge on which that demand is based, of course you strengthen it, but you do not strengthen the case. You merely strengthen the case which persons are able to make out, but which persons are not able at present to make out because they do not possess the knowledge. You do not place any greater obligation on the State. You simply supply the State with materials for forming a judgment.

96909. Except that the State has already undertaken certain obligations to people in regard to want of work, sickness, and old age; I mean that through the Poor Law, for instance, it has undertaken certain respon-

sibilities for citizens who are not able to take care of themselves?—That is quite true. Are you asking me whether I approve of the right to work?

96910. No. What has been put to you is something which is not quite correct. What I am really wanting to get out of you is this: supposing people are asking for the right to work, the State has already said that no person shall starve in the country because he cannot get work. Therefore the State having said that already—since the time of Elizabeth—all that we are asking is a change in the method of meeting the need of the people?—It is a change in the method, but it is such a considerable change that I do not think you can argue from one to the other, or from the rightness of the one to the rightness of the other. The State has never admitted the duty of providing employment for all persons at trade union rates, which I understand is asked for by those who advocate the right to work.

96911. But the State has taken on itself the responsibility for dealing with those whom individual people cannot employ?—The State has said: "We will not let anybody starve."

96912. And so far it has taken on the responsibility for dealing with the problem of unemployment?—Yes, it has taken on the minimum responsibility and limited it very carefully.

96913. That has brought me to the point: Are you of opinion that the Strassburg method of meeting that disability on the part of the individual is a much better one than has been in vogue in England?—Very much.

96914. (*Mr. Bentham.*) But the Strassburg system does not provide work?—The labour exchange does not provide work. It simply ascertains the state of the labour market. But that knowledge is a necessary condition to the State making up its mind whether it will or will not provide work. It does not increase or diminish the obligation; it simply enables the State to form a judgment.

96915. (*Prebendary Russell Wakefield.*) I suppose your contention with regard to the State here would be that the State has not made the alternative to dealing with destitution, the provision of work, but has determined to deal with destitution by various means not exactly by providing work for the individual?—In England, yes.

96916. In reference to the term "destitution," I rather gathered from one answer which you gave that the definition of destitution is quite different in Strassburg from what it is here?—They do not enquire in Strassburg whether a person is destitute; they enquire whether he is in need of relief to maintain himself in efficiency.

96917. To maintain himself adequately?—To maintain himself adequately. Of course they do not give these people enough to keep them in their ordinary comforts.

96918. With regard to the provision of relief works, that is comparatively speaking easy on a large scale in Strassburg and the surrounding neighbourhood, is it not; that is a great deal of possibility of work there?—The fact that the town owns extensive forests in the neighbourhood offers a large source of employment.

96919. Of course, you can realise that is quite a different thing to the provision of relief work in this metropolis?—Quite.

ONE HUNDRED AND FIFTY-SECOND DAY.

Tuesday, 17th March, 1908.

AT SCOTLAND HOUSE, WESTMINSTER, S.W.

PRESENT.

The Right Hon. Lord GEORGE HAMILTON, G.C.S.I.,
etc., etc., etc. (*Chairman*).
Sir SAMUEL B. PROVIS, K.C.B.
Mr. F. H. BENTHAM.
The Rev. T. GAGE GARDINER.
Mr. GEORGE LANSBURY.
Mr. C. S. LOCH.

Mr. J. PATTEN-MACDOUGALL, C.B.
Mr. T. HANCOCK NUNN.
The Rev. L. R. PHELPS.
Miss OCTAVIA HILL.

Mr. R. H. A. G. DUFF (*Secretary*).
Mr. J. JEFFREY (*Assistant Secretary*).

Mr. EDWARD J. URWICK, called; and Examined.

Mr. Edward
J. Urwick.
17 Mar. 1908.

96920. (*Sir Samuel Provis*.) I believe you are President of the Morley College for Working Men and Women; Lecturer to the School of Sociology and Social Economics; and you were Sub-Warden of Toynbee Hall, Whitechapel?—Yes.

96921. You have been good enough to send in a Statement which we propose to take as your Evidence-in-chief, if you will kindly hand it in?—Certainly. (*The Witness handed in the following Statement.*)

1. In the following memorandum no attempt is made to show in detail that a direct connection exists between the unemployment of adult men and the kind and amount of labour among boys. It is assumed that such a connection exists in certain industrial centres, and is due mainly to two facts; first, that an increasing number of boys are employed in occupations which are either uneducative (in the sense of producing no increase of efficiency or of intelligence), or unpromising (in the sense of leading to no permanent occupation during adult life); secondly, that there is a constant tendency for certain industrial functions to be transferred from men to boys, especially when changes in the processes of manufacture or in the organisation of industry are taking place rapidly.

2. The resulting difficulty is the double one of the over-employment of boys and the under-employment of men. It is maintained that the causes of this difficulty may be reduced to two, of which the second is much more important than the first. These are:—
I. The quickly-rising standard of living (or scale of wants) of the family in all the working classes in excess of the satisfactions procurable by the father's earnings alone.

3. This leads to (a) The employment of boys of school age in occupations which react unfavourably both on their capacity and on their choice of subsequent occupations.

This is not now a factor of much importance, owing to the stricter limitation of work of school children. But so far as it exists it affects adversely the prospects of some of the most intelligent boys and those whose industrial character is above the average.

(b) The employment of boys immediately on leaving school in occupations relatively well paid, but unlikely to lead to permanent work or to fit the boys for well-paid work as men.

4. It is unnecessary to dwell upon this factor. It is, however, usual to connect with it another factor, namely, the carelessness or apathy or ignorance of the parents in regard to the industrial prospects of their sons. I believe that this factor is somewhat exaggerated, so far, at least, as indifference as to their sons' future prospects is imputed to the parents. The latter are certainly ignorant as to the best occupations in which to place their boys; but this ignorance is, on the whole, an inevitable consequence of the industrial complexities and changes by which they are faced.

The desire of the boys themselves to earn a high wage quickly is, of course, a contributory cause. And when the wage earned is high it has a bad effect upon the character and energy of the boy. (Boys of 16 are occasionally found earning a piece-work wage of 14s. or 15s. a week in London at simple labouring work, entirely to the detriment of their future prospects.)

5. II.—The requirements of industry, dependent upon changes in industrial process and organisation. Second cause of over-employment of boys.

These changes appear to be at present in the direction of simplification of manual processes, leading to greater demand for what is called unskilled work; and in the direction of an increase of unspecialised labour (*e.g.*, in connection with transport, etc.), resulting from the growth of commerce.

At any given moment the relative proportions of skilled and unskilled workers required in actual industry may be regarded as fixed; but the proportions are constantly changing, and, on the whole, the change appears to be continually towards increase in the numbers of unskilled and decrease in the numbers of skilled workers. (See note below as to the meaning of the terms "skilled" and "unskilled.")

From this results a tendency towards the employment of a disproportionate number of boys and youths. The demand for boys as against men increases, and the wage offered to the former tends to be fairly high.

6. It is important to notice that this result is not confined to industries or industrial centres in which (as in London) "labouring" work predominates. It appears to be found in an artisan city such as Coventry, and in a specialised industry such as the jewellery trade in Birmingham. In the Coventry metal and machine trades 41 per cent. of the males employed are under 25; and the percentage of wage-earning boys of 15 is far in excess of that of London. This preponderance of the youthful element may be partly due to the comparative newness of the industries; but it is evident that if the industries can be carried on successfully with so much dependence upon youthful labour, they will tend to be so carried on in future, for the sake of cheapness alone. It is to be noted that the young workers are not apprentices, apprenticeship being practically unknown in these industries.

Large proportion of boy labour not confined to industries or industrial centres in which "labouring" work predominates.

NOTE.—It is impossible to give satisfactory definitions of the terms "skilled" and "unskilled." As the argument is concerned with the connection between skilled work and training for work, I have adopted the following definitions:—
Skilled work, or a "trade," is any manual industrial occupation or process, the performance of which requires that the workman shall have had a definite training extending over a term of years. Unskilled work is any manual industrial occupation or process the performance of which requires that the workman shall possess some degree of strength, dexterity and knowledge, which may be obtained by practice and without a definite training (apart from an elementary education).

Mr. Edward J. Urwick.

17 Mar. 1908.

Proportion of young persons engaged does not differ greatly in skilled and unskilled trades.

Evils resulting from excessive employment of boy labour traceable chiefly to natural forces operative in development of industry.

Artificial attempts to counteract these tendencies unlikely to produce much result. Meaning of contention that supply of specially trained labour is insufficient.

7. It is significant also that the proportion of young persons engaged does not differ greatly in what are commonly regarded as the skilled and the unskilled trades. Sometimes the relatively greater numbers of employees under 18 are found in the trades in which more skill is needed, though, on the whole, the reverse is the case, and it is doubtless true that the smallest proportion of boys is found in the definite trades the entrance to which is by apprenticeship, as in the watch-making industry in Coventry.

8. It would thus appear that the evils resulting from the excessive employment of boys in industry without regard to their prospects as men are traceable chiefly to natural forces operative in the development of industry, which tend to increase the relative importance of the boy or youth as an industrial factor by comparison with the importance of adult males. And the rising standard of living on the part of the family unit tends to make parents acquiesce in or assist this change, in spite of its ill-effects upon the occupation or remuneration of men.

9. It would seem, further, that artificial attempts to counteract these tendencies by diverting increased numbers of boys into skilled trades (as defined above) cannot be expected to produce much result. It is hardly possible, nor is it desirable, that employers should be induced by these efforts to drop the cheaper methods of production which lead to the great demand for boys' labour; and it is so far impossible to increase the demand for specially trained adults. The argument put forward by some employers that such a demand now exists and is not satisfied is often found to mean merely that they do not get good enough workmen—a complaint common to all employers at all times. If it means that they cannot get workmen who have learned a particular set of manual processes which must be performed in their industries, it would seem to imply that the employers have either failed to provide for the needs of their own industries, or that the industries do not or cannot offer sufficient inducements in the way of wage, etc., to attract learners or workers. In either case there is a presumption that the industries in question are not qualified to compete successfully with other processes or trades; and it is doubtful whether in the circumstances it is the function of philanthropic effort to endeavour to persuade the young workers to accept the employers' terms or choose such industries for their life work. In any case, the operations of committees for encouraging apprenticeship or skilled employment seem likely to be limited to the selection, on behalf of the employers, of suitable boys for existing openings in certain occupations, and to the safeguarding of the boys' interests and furthering of their chances of efficient training as learners in the occupations chosen.

10. But in a different way the tendency of industrial development may be checked more effectually, namely, by the legal restrictions of the employment of young persons. The extent to which this is desirable depends upon the extent to which longer education is necessary to produce the greater intelligence, the general manual efficiency, the adaptability, and the habits of steadiness, which are undoubtedly required in increasing degree in all industries. Some limitation of the hours of labour of young persons in all occupations, coupled with a system of compulsory continuation classes, might be expected both to improve the industrial character of the young workers, and to react upon industry in the direction of checking the excessive use of boys and youths. This is, of course, an interference with the normal tendency of all industry towards the use of the cheapest agents and instruments of production. But it may be held to be a less dangerous interference than one which (like most attempts to revive or extend apprenticeship) runs the risk of introducing fixity of process or of industrial ability, to the detriment both of production and of the earning power of the workers.

96922. (Sir Samuel Provis.) You deal with the difficulties that arise in connection with boy labour, and the amount of employment of boys as compared with that of men. You think there are two points to which the cause of difficulty may be chiefly referred?—Yes.

96923. Namely, to the quickness in the rising of the standard of living; and the requirements of industry dependent upon changes in industrial processes: that, I think, is your argument?—Yes.

96924. Upon the first point, would you wish to add anything to what you have already said in your Statement?—I think not.

96925. How far do you think that the parents exercise control over the boys in the selection of their employment?—In London, which is the only place that I know at all well, it varies a great deal according to the class of the parents; a great many parents that I have known have taken a great deal of trouble, and control the boys extremely well; in others, especially where there is no father, I have found an absence of control; and the boys have just gone out and looked for work and chosen it without regard to the parents' wishes.

96926. It was suggested yesterday that the father is much occupied, and rather leaves it to the boy; you think that is only partially true?—I think it is only partly true; I have known a good many fathers who have certainly talked it over a great deal, and discussed it with the boys, and the boys have deferred to their fathers' wishes. I should be inclined to modify that a good deal.

96927. Do you think that turns at all on whether a father thinks he can get the boy into his own occupation?—Sometimes it does; sometimes I think the father thinks he can get the boy into the particular yard, or particular house or trade in the neighbourhood where he knows some of the workmen. Usually by some special knowledge of his own.

96928. Then we come to the second point; namely, the changes in industrial process and in organisation, you are of opinion, and it has been supported by other witnesses, that there is a tendency to employ boys for one particular piece of work, and not give them a general instruction in the work in which they are engaged; is that so?—Certainly.

96929. That tendency is increasing?—I think the tendency is for that to increase.

96930. Have particular classes of work in which that is so come under your notice?—Not particular classes of work that I am familiar with; but particular instances of many different kinds of work.

96931. To what extent would you think that increases?—I do not think I could estimate it at all.

96932. You point out that the proportion of young persons engaged does not differ greatly in what are commonly regarded as skilled and unskilled trades?—Yes.

96933. Is that new, or has that always been so, do you think?—I think it has always been so; except that I believe the line between the skilled and the unskilled trades was quite different when you go back, say, half a century—more than it is to-day. I am taking in that statement the definition that I have given of trades from different parts of the country, and the figures as supplied of the proportion of young persons engaged in them as compared with nondescript trades; and the proportions in these I find vary rather, and the variations are very peculiar sometimes; because in London in some of the skilled trades with apprenticeship you find the highest percentage of boys, and in skilled trades elsewhere you will find the lowest percentage of boys in the town or particular place; so that I am only putting together generally the figures from different places and different trades, showing that there is not any significance in the figures taken as a whole.

96934. You do not think that the evils which result from this state of things are easily remedied, because you say they are due to natural causes which cannot very well be interfered with?—I believe so; it is difficult to interfere with them.

96935. It has been suggested whether something might be done to encourage apprenticeship, which seems to have fallen somewhat into disuse?—Yes.

96936. Do you think that is practicable?—I think it is practicable only to a very small extent indeed.

96937. You would agree that it has fallen into disuse?—Certainly.

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Limit of operations of committees for encouraging apprenticeship or skilled employment.

Legal restrictions on the employment of young persons.

Limitation of hours, with compulsory continuation classes.

Less dangerous than most attempts to revive or extend apprenticeship.

Boy labour.

96938. To what do you attribute that?—To the changes in industries primarily which modify the processes in such a way as to alter the actual skill required in particular industries, alter the range of processes, and further to the movements in industry which with competition brings grown-up men from one part of the country to another appearing as qualified workmen, whether they have been through an apprenticeship or not, and being engaged necessarily in the centre they have come to on a par with those who have passed through an apprenticeship in that place.

96939. That being so, you do not think it is practicable to do much in the way of encouraging apprenticeship. Do you think anything can be done?—I think that a modified form of apprenticeship at the dictate, really of the employer, as is the case to-day in certain big employers' works, such as, say Thorneycroft's, where they have their own system of apprenticeship, is possible; and probably could be extended among certain other employers in certain trades; they might lay down their own apprenticeship of so many years, according to the processes required in their own industry, as they understand them. I think more could be done in that way, but not taking trade as a whole: engineering, carpentry, saddle-making, and so on.

96940. What are the trades chiefly in which the process you are describing exists?—It exists in the engineering yards of certain employers; although apprenticeship has very largely gone out in engineering as a whole, in certain yards, like Thorneycroft's, and Yarrow's in London, for instance, that particular sort of specialised apprenticeship, on the lines laid down by the firm, exists, and I believe in some other industries too.

96941. In that case do they only take boys for a length of time, except perhaps casually; do they insist on them being apprentices?—They insist on that, they apprentice the boys, and keep them as apprentices.

96942. For how long?—I think five years in these cases.

96943. Beginning when?—I think the age is fourteen, though I am not sure of the limit of age.

96944. The point is whether they take them direct from school, or whether they have some other occupation in the first instance?—I believe they do take them from school.

96945. Do they retain them afterwards?—In most cases I think so.

96946. So they can pass their lives practically in working under the same firm?—Subject, of course, to fluctuations in the trade which may occur.

96947. Are there any remedies, other than that, which you would like to see in the nature of compulsion?—I have referred to the general remedy, which I believe is a possible one, to some extent, of the compulsory education of boys in continuation classes up to the age of seventeen or eighteen.

96948. Would you do that as half-timers?—I am not sure whether they would be classed as half-timers at all. I am only contemplating the education in the evening, with a compulsory limit of hours during the day, to enable the boys to gain by the teaching in the evening.

96949. And compulsory instruction?—Yes, for all boys under seventeen or eighteen.

96950. Do you think if it was made compulsory, and you had it in the evening, the boys would be sometimes too tired to derive much benefit from the instruction?—Very seldom, I believe, if the hours were at all limited on those days. I have had experience of teaching those boys who are now working longer hours than would be contemplated; and it is only occasionally they are really too tired to learn.

96951. In the case of which you have had experience, what sort of hours do they have?—Very long hours many of them. I am speaking now of the East End of London, and boys who have been employed in every sort of rough occupation, such as errand boys, van-boys, yard boys, and boys employed in the docks—very rough work: long hours from six or seven o'clock in the morning in many cases till six in the evening, and sometimes even later.

96952. The boys that came to you, of course, came voluntarily?—Yes,

96953. Therefore I suppose they were somewhat keen to improve themselves?—I do not honestly think they were. I think they came through other inducements, in almost all cases the inducement of club amusement.

Mr. Edward J. Urwick.
17 Mar. 1908.

96954. Why I asked was to know whether, although you find under the voluntary system boys do work after long hours, you think that would be equally true if it was a compulsory system?—I could not say; I think there would be more who would either be too tired, or claim to be too tired, unless the hours were shortened during the day on which the instruction took place.

96955. You prefer that system of continuation schools to a system of half-time employment in which a portion of the day, morning or afternoon, as the case might be, was devoted to industrial training?—I have so little experience of the half-time system that I could not speak on the matter. I have heard that there are so many disadvantages connected with it in the general organisations of the industries that I have found a certain prejudice against it; but I have no experience of it, and could not compare it.

96956. What do you say to some alteration of the Manual system of instruction in the elementary schools?—I believe that a little more might be introduced, after the age of twelve or so, in the way of general manual training. I do not believe at all in the specialising or specialised manual training before the age of fourteen.

96957. Do you mind stating your reason?—Certainly. The specialised manual training ties the boys down to a particular form of occupation in most cases, which usually has an uncertain future, which tends to stereotype both his ability and his choice of occupation, his range of occupation, and at such an early age it is inadvisable to fix that in the present very changeable conditions of industry.

96958. You must have seen a great deal of the particular class of boy in the East End. Did you find that they were to a certain extent demoralised by getting employment as newspaper boys, or work of that kind, directly they left school?—Yes, though I am not sure that the demoralisation of the newspaper boy appears at the age at which I have come across him, I mean between fourteen and seventeen particularly. I think it probably appears at a later age. I have not noticed it in the boys who have been employed as newspaper boys or scavenger boys, or any occupation of that sort; I have not noticed the demoralisation in them up to the age I have been dealing with them particularly.

96959. During the age that you were dealing with them they were in continuous employment probably?—Usually.

96960. The difficulty of their getting employment when they were adult showed itself at a later date?—Yes.

96961. Is there any other suggestion in the way of remedies that you would like to mention?—No, I have none to suggest.

96962. Or anything else you would like to say by way of expansion of your statement?—I do not think so, unless I might add a suggestion which for the moment I had forgotten, of the possibility of influence through an extension of the labour exchanges. I believe there is a possibility of the labour exchanges having to do with the offering of employment to boys, or registering the boys as well as men; if so, I believe they might be used as a selective influence also, which probably would be very valuable from the point of view of the boy.

96963. How would that work exactly?—It would bring the good and the bad jobs equally into competition. At present boys seem to fall into good and bad jobs almost by chance. If they were in any way brought into competition, that competition would tend slowly to starve out the bad jobs, or at any rate make boys eager to get the good job rather than the bad one. The bad ones would wait rather longer to be filled, and there would be a tendency towards making them less popular, and making boys think it worth while to wait longer to get the good job.

96964. In other words, the labour exchange should rather select the boys?—I think they might have to.

96965. And give the better boys the better jobs?—Yes, though I think the boys would select themselves

Mr. Edward J. Urwick. to some extent, if they insisted on waiting a little for a better job to come in.

17 Mar. 1908. 96966. Meanwhile, while they were waiting for something to come in, they would have to be kept by their parents?—Yes, by their parents, I presume.

96967. There might be difficulty in some cases in that way, might there not?—Yes, there would be difficulty in some cases.

96968. Still you think on the whole that plan would work?—I think it would probably have a tendency in the direction of rendering the boys themselves and their parents a little more averse to taking the bad jobs.

Extension of increase in school age. 96969. (*Mr. Nunn.*) With regard to the extension of education, have you any definite suggestion to make as to any increase in the actual school age for children in elementary schools?—The increase of school age above fourteen?

96970. Yes?—I should very much like to see it raised to fifteen, but I do not think it is practicable at once.

96971. Why do you not think it practicable?—Although the public opinion stood the rise to fourteen, I think the parents are very much on the look out now for a further raising of the age, and would be inclined to resent it a good deal more than they have done in the past.

Extension of school age; effect on employment generally. 96972. Do you not think a considerable economic saving might result in the extension of the school age? We have been confronted by a considerable mass of evidence as to the number of young married men who are out of work from the cause which you have touched upon in your statement. Would not the extension of the school age have this economic effect, that it would give considerable employment to other classes who are above the age of sixteen? It would have to have that effect to a certain extent, would it not?—It would have to have to a certain extent.

96973. Have you formed any opinion of the direction which that shifting of the employment would take? Would it effect the young men or the old men?—I have formed an opinion, but I think it is impossible to be dogmatic about it at all. I think it would probably affect all ages almost equally.

Public opinion on extension of school age. 96974. Do you think that could be represented sufficiently clearly to demonstrate the value of an extension of the school age to the public generally?—I am afraid it could not be, because it would imply a reference to what the public I am myself considering, the poor public, think so badly of; I mean, it would imply a certain amount of re-organisation, and the distribution of the work which is done, and a change in the processes by which it is done. That would involve the introduction of various kinds of economical machinery for doing the work which is now done by these young boys; although that work would fall into the hands of the men it would at first fall into the hands of a smaller number of men comparatively.

Independence of parental control. 96975. Is there not a back thrust felt a good deal in the families of the working classes by the increased independence of the boys who are earning high wages? Would that not help to reconcile the parents, at any rate of the working classes, to an extension of the school age? It is true that they help the family income to a certain extent, but to a certain extent also the increased independence of the elder sons of the family rather tends to break it up, does it not?—Yes; it is a disadvantage to set against the wages they earn, of course. I am afraid in my experience I have not found that the parents feel that very acutely.

96976. They do not realise it?—No; and they have, I am sorry to say, discovered the independence even during the school age; they have felt the assertion of the independence to a certain extent before the boy has left school.

96977. With regard to the extent to which manhood is at present being wasted in the employments, you do yourself believe that the extension of the school age during which boys would be trained to be industrial citizens would be a means of creating a most emphatic saving after a few years?—Especially when the effect of the increased education was felt.

96978. It has been suggested to us, rather tentatively Girl labour, it is true, that girl labour might to a certain extent take the place of the boy labour without all the disadvantages that attend boy labour, (because girls have a future in marriage and boys have a future in unemployment), if they are dealt with by unskilled employment after they leave school. Would you have any belief in that at all?—I think not. Most of the employments that I have noticed as being bad for a boy, the bad jobs, I should say would be bad industries to put girls into, and would have none of the effects we want to produce, but rather the reverse, on the absorption of the young men in employment.

96979. Supposing one could get an increase of the Manual years of a boy's life devoted to elementary education, training have you any suggestion to make as to the way in which that time should be occupied?—The Chairman has partly raised that question, and I expressed my own very strong feeling that up to the age of fourteen (and I would increase it to fifteen) specialised manual training which is sometimes advocated should not be introduced, but after the age of twelve more general manual training by which I mean manual training associated with the educational point of view, should be introduced into the curriculum for all boys.

96980. The training of the eye and the hand by drawing, and so on?—And also actual woodwork, and so on; manual dexterity of a general kind.

96981. Of course, you would advocate the same extension of age for girls?—I have not really considered what the effect would be, or how far it is necessary, or how far the same arguments apply. I suppose it would be necessary.

96982. To a very inappreciable extent girls are trained in cooking, nursing, and housewives' work generally?—Very little indeed at present.

96983. The increased years of elementary education might be very valuably employed in teaching them some of those things, I suppose?—I am not sure how far the teaching of those things before the age of fourteen or fifteen has much effect afterwards.

96984. I am thinking of the extension between fourteen and sixteen?—I certainly agree it is equally necessary for the girls.

96985. Have you at all considered the question of the extent to which London boys might be utilised on the land; might receive a technical education in the direction of agriculture?—Very little. I have always found an aversion on the part of the boys to leave a town like London, or any other town.

96986. Is it not the fact that boys who are between the ages of, say, twelve and sixteen are more likely to take to a country life than men whose lives have rather been wrecked by want of employment being turned out on farm colonies at ages between twenty-five and forty-five?—Certainly.

96987. There would be a much better chance for habituating boys to the life of the country than there is in wrecked unemployed men later in life?—Certainly, it has been tried in a few instances in Devonshire with a few successful results.

96988. (*Mr. Gardiner.*) Can you tell us where?—I cannot. It has been done in connection with one of the committees of the Children's Country Holiday Fund, for the last few years in conjunction with some people who are interested in the experiment of boarding out boys of school age on the land and leaving them there and getting them to learn agricultural pursuits. I have been informed that the boys have subsequently gone back to work on the land. I do not know the name of the place exactly.

96989. Could you get us that information?—I could get it for you: I could get a *precis* of it from the Secretary of the Children's Country Holiday Fund. (*See Appendix No. XVII.*)

96990. (*Mr. Nunn.*) The state of things appears to be somewhat like this: that all the towns are subject to the influx of fairly well-trained men who take the better posts in the towns and that the less well-trained city lads after the age of twenty-five or thirty gradually fall into unemployment and become subjects for farm colonies, or some such treatment. Might not elementary education

Training of
London boys
for
agriculture.

during those later stages be used in connection with the present development of agriculture that is going on, organisations of small holdings in the country, in order to get the boys out on to the land before their lives have been muddled away, as it were?—I should think so. I do not know how it would work or what the effect would be.

96991. Have you had any experience of industrial schools and the training the boys get there in country life?—None directly.

96992. You have not come across the figures at all?—No.

96993. With regard to what we may call the more moral aspects of the case, the boys do receive a greater physical training if they follow the land, they would get some kind of manual dexterity, some kind of alertness of mind, and they would be turned out better neighbours?—Certainly.

Raising of
intelligence
of unskilled
worker
necessary.

96994. I suppose a good deal could be done during the later stages of the elementary school life to turn out a man who even was not intended for any industry that involves special skill as a stronger and more alert and capable labourer?—That is very strong in my opinion: that is what is needed, it is not the alteration of labour into skilled work but the raising of the intelligence and capacity of the unskilled worker which is needed.

96995. Then besides the physical and manual aspects of the case, there are the moral aspects of the case. I suppose a good deal could be done in the way of education to illustrate to the older boys' minds some of the main civil aspects of industrial life such as trade unionism and benefit societies?—You are speaking now of educating up to seventeen or eighteen, continuation classes or something of that kind.

96996. I am still considering the ages from sixteen downwards gradually to impregnate those years of school life with something of physical training to turn out powerful and alert labourers, something that would give them manual dexterity or train them for the more skilled occupations, but something might be done to the moral and intellectual side to prepare them for the industrial life in its moral and intellectual aspects in the way of trade unionism, benefit societies and labour exchanges. When I came in you were discussing the proposed introduction of the superintendent of the labour exchange into the school at a later stage when the parent was beginning to consider what the child should do in after life?—The Chairman was discussing the effect that would have upon the possible starving out of certain jobs.

Interest of
boys in trades
unions and
friendly
societies.

96997. Do you think that the ordinary boy of sixteen has much idea of what trade unions and benefit societies can do for him in after life?—Very little, but from the age of sixteen onwards they begin to take a great deal more interest in it than they might do before.

96998. Might not you begin their interest in these matters, at any rate in friendly societies, by forming the actual habits of thrift and mutual help in them before they leave school?—Certainly, I think it can be done. It is done to some extent: the higher the age limit the more effectually it would be done.

96999. And the more permanent the results would be probably?—Certainly.

Lack of
organised
games.

97000. Do you attach much importance to games in the latter stages of boy life at school?—As part of the education and training?

97001. Yes, as being organised and supervised to a large extent by those who are conducting their education, but being managed of course by themselves?—Yes, I think one of the defects of the discipline of the London boy is the absence of the organised games to a great extent at school, and the want of the discipline that comes from organised play.

97002. You do not feel yourself that agriculture is a sufficiently interesting organised game for a boy, if I may put it in that way? It seems rather a pity that we should turn away the wasted lives on to the land in the shape of farm colonies when young boys might take an interest in animals, and a good many other departments of agricultural life, and grow up real agricultural citizens of a good type. Have you had any experience of getting

boys into the country and ascertaining whether they take a natural interest in agricultural pursuits and the management of animals?—Only in two cases of older boys, boys over eighteen, none at all of young boys, no direct experience. I do not know how it might appeal to them or some of them as an interesting occupation.

Mr. Edward
J. Urwick.

17 Mar. 1908.

Placing boys
on the land.

97003. It would be a case of directing more an enquiry to take a step to interest boys in something that would be really useful to them in future life?—I think so certainly if it could be done: if it would appeal to the boys it would be very valuable indeed: they would take it up as their interest and become workers on the land.

97004. Do you see any practical difficulty?—I cannot say that I do, except there is one practical difficulty really, and that is the rather poor future that is offered at present by the land for men.

97005 I suppose the prospects are brightening a little in England with regard to the labourers on the land owing to the Small Holdings Act and the examples we have had from abroad of what agricultural organisation can do? Evidently prospects are altering and might improve still further, but the prejudice to the London boy's mind is very strong indeed that there is not a future for him there.

Prejudice of
London boy
against going
on the land.

97006. I suppose the great attraction to the London boy is the excitement of the street and the music-hall and other entertainments of that kind. If you could get the boy before he reaches that stage and lead him to take an interest in country life, country occupations and the care of animals, do you think it would be useful?—I think it is an experiment that might be tried to a greater extent. I cannot say how far it would be successful. It seems to be the general opinion of those who know better that there is more chance with those who are already born on the land than there is with anybody born in the town—even a boy born in the town.

Placing
London boys
on the land.

97007. The experience of those men is that they come up to the towns in increasing numbers?—They might be kept there.

97008. They might be kept there if these same advantages were offered them?—There is more hope of keeping them than getting the London boy to settle down there.

97009. (Mr. Lansbury.) Have you had experience of country boys?—I have not at all, except a very few who have moved up into London. I have had no experience of boys living in the country at all.

97010. You would not say they were more alert than London boys?—I certainly should not.

97011. What really is the advantage of tempting the London boy into the country?—Only this I think, that if the country will give him an opportunity for both a healthier life and a sufficient wage earning life when he becomes a man as compared with what he has in London, the advantage is clear in the gain in health and his earning capacity.

97012. It is not there at present?—I fear it is not there at present. It depends on the prospects which, as Mr. Nunn says, are now opening out, or appear to be.

97013. It depends on something that will be done in the future rather than something which is being done now?—I think it does.

97014. With regard to the number of boys employed, are there more boys employed now in industries in London than previously? We have had some difference of opinion among some witnesses as to whether there are more boys now proportionately than previously. Have you any information on that point?—I do not know whether any accurate information is available. I have none.

97015. In your experience do you think that the class of work that boys in the East End are being put to is improving or getting worse? That is to say from the point of view of the development either of physical or mental powers?—On that point I could not say either. I think it is an extremely complicated question whether the work they now do as compared with the past is worse for them that it was, or better for them than it was.

Class of work
on which
boys are
engaged.

97016. Do you think it is good for them on the whole?—In the majority of cases at present I think not.

97017. Are you in favour of raising the age at which a boy shall be allowed to leave school?—Yes, I am quite in favour of raising the age to fifteen if it is practicable, and as soon as it is practicable.

Extension of
school age.

Mr. Edward J. Urwick. 97018. You would go higher if you could get it?—Eventually.

17 Mar. 1908. 97019. That would be for the purpose of using the later years in teaching him some trade, I suppose, or not a particular trade, but teaching him the use of his hands?—I have already explained that it would be for the purpose of teaching him the use of all his faculties, including his hands.

Military drill. 97020. Would you be in favour of military drill, to make him a soldier for a year?—No, I am not in favour of it. I have no experience of the way it would work though.

Effect of military service. 97021. Have you any experience of young men who join the army quite young and come back after a short period to civil life?—Yes, one or two, and it is not a particularly favourable one.

97022. What is your opinion of the effect upon the character and morale of the men who come back?—I have known so few that I hardly like to express an opinion in general terms, but in the one or two I have seen the effect has not been in any marked degree a good one. They have not come back more capable of taking to ordinary occupations.

Parental influence and boy labour. 97023. It is not sheer cussedness that makes the parent turn the child out to work, is it?—Not at all, I believe.

97024. It is an economic necessity?—I think it is first and foremost an economic necessity, or at any rate an economic need which is felt as a necessity by them, and after all the choice is determined a good deal by chance, in their inability to know what is best.

Lack of information as to, and difficulty of finding, employment for boys. 97025. And also the fact that there is very little information available?—Very little indeed.

97026. Even if the parent is desirous of apprenticing his boy the openings for apprenticing are very much more limited now than previously, are they not?—Undoubtedly.

97027. Therefore the poor person, the family where the breadwinner is earning 25s. or 30s. a week, is surrounded with difficulties that are almost insuperable in placing out his boy to work that really is going to be of permanent use to him?—He is surrounded by very great difficulties indeed.

97028. Take the carman, for instance, whose hours are fairly long on the average in London. He has not much chance of going out and searching out to see which is the industry, which will lead on to something, in which he can place his boy?—No, he has a chance of course, and does discuss with his mates, and men in other occupations, as to what is likely to be good and what is good, but he has no bureau of information to go to, and no chance of knowing in the complex state of industry, what is going to be best for the boy.

97029. In your experience, and you have means of knowing, have you not found great difficulty yourself in placing out your boys?—Extreme difficulty.

97030. Do you think that is a growing difficulty?—Certainly I do.

97031. That is in being able to fix on a particular trade or industry that offers some prospect of permanent good for the boy?—I think it is a growing difficulty.

97032. (*Mr. Bentham.*) Do you say it is a growing difficulty to place boys? Do you mean in occupations which would be a training-ground for skilled employment in later life?—I mean in a wider sense. With regard to the last question from Mr. Lansbury, I thought his meaning was that there was a greater growing difficulty on the part of myself, or anybody else, to know which is the best occupation, as well as to put a boy into it when known.

97033. You mean which is the best occupation so far as the future of the boy is concerned?—Yes, so far as future prospects are concerned.

Information bureau. 97034. What would help you in that respect? What change in method would assist you to deal with a boy?—To a certain extent any bureau or committee which could collect information of the actual prospects of particular industries, and so on, would be of help, but I believe nothing at the present day would be a sufficient help to justify me in saying to somebody else's boy: You should choose this occupation for your life's work.

97035. Is not the rate of wages paid in certain occupations to a certain extent a guide?—Not, I am afraid, wages not a guide to the security for the future at all.

97036. The rate of wages are usually high either because of the extraordinary skill that is required in the trade, or because of the scarcity of men in the particular employment. Either of those things indicate a good occupation for a boy?—Of course, they would if there were no other factors to take into account. I would be inclined to suggest there is another influence always at work in the wages of any grade, and that is partly the custom and partly the standard which has been set up in the past for it, not merely the two causes you mention; but even taking those two causes my point is there are changes going on in industries both in processes and demand which may at any moment, and do perpetually, affect in one direction or another certain processes and certain occupations, as, for instance, the reaction of the motor car industry upon the saddle and harness makers. There are many other instances of the same kind that one could quote, so that the highness of the wage earned by the skilled artisan or skilled tradesman in a particular industry to-day is not, I think, an index of the security of that trade ten or twenty years hence.

97037. The rate of wage in a particular industry may be kept up by the combination of men, even though the industry may be a dying one?—Yes.

97038. The introduction of the motor car industry has caused an extraordinary development in the engineering trades?—Certainly.

97039. Are there not more openings now for boys in connection with engineering than ever there were, or is it merely a change from one occupation to another?—I think it is probably so. There are many more openings now in certain metal trades connected with machinery and so on for boys than there were.

97040. It is not difficult to foresee that the employment is growing in that direction and decreasing in the occupation you mention?—I think it is easy to see that now.

97041. You think a labour exchange would help you by giving you an indication of the number of people unemployed in the different trades?—Yes, I think it would be a help to a certain extent.

97042. But the labour exchanges would principally deal with unskilled men, the more highly skilled and organised man is not expected to go to the labour exchange?—Not to the same extent certainly.

97043. That would not be an indication as to the state of the organised trades, would it?—I was assuming that the labour exchange would have a bureau of information in connection with it that would receive information from all trade unions and all skilled employments as well as its own figures.

97044. Have you thought of a bureau in connection with the schools; there is such a thing as adaptability of the boy for a particular trade, and sometimes the parents do not know this: they do not know what the boy is fitted for, but the school master might have a much better idea. Bureaux in connection with schools have been suggested. Do you see any hope on those lines?—I am afraid I do not much, because I do not see any possibility of the bureaux, however, they are formed in connection with the schools, being able to avoid the disastrous results of giving bad advice, as the school masters have in some cases done already where they have taken it on themselves to advise boys.

97045. (*Mr. Nunn.*) Where do you suggest that any purpose in life should be suggested to the boy: surely you could not depend on the parent alone, could you?—No, certainly there is the boy as well.

97046. There is the parent, the boy, the school master and the managers. I suppose they all take an equal interest in it?—Not an equal interest perhaps.

97047. But they all have an equal legitimate interest in it?—Yes.

97048. They are all equally bound to consider the matter?—Yes.

97049. Is not the suggestion that a labour exchange superintendent, who was qualified by having sources of knowledge which these others might not possess, would

be a useful adjunct in fitting the later years of the boy's life for the purposes of his future life?—Yes, I think he might.

97050. He only adds his fifth to the total?—Yes, with more expert knowledge than the others possess.

97051. He brings in the expert knowledge?—Yes, the pros and cons of particular occupations he would only be asked to decide upon.

97052. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Have you been a guardian?—Yes.

97053. Did you have anything to do with placing out boys then?—Not that way. I had but very little: I was the representative of the guardians on the East End Apprenticeship Fund which apprenticed boys, and in a general way I had a little to do with the advising of occupations, but they took up but very little.

97054. I wondered whether you found any difficulty there. Where the guardians and the school master and everybody concerned were taking an interest in the individual boy, was there not a difficulty to find a place for which the boy was suitable: was not the difficulty to find a place where you could put him?—There was that difficulty certainly.

97055. (*Mr. Benthams.*) Did you find any difficulty raised by the organised trades with regard to getting apprentices in?—I think the secretaries and so on I have spoken to vary a good deal. I do not think the organised trades have made up their minds on the subject as to how far interference from outside as to apprentices would affect them.

97056. In most trades there are restrictive rules as to the ratio of apprentices to journeymen?—Yes, in the strict trade unions they have that distinctly.

97057. Have you found that against your placing boys?—Yes, decidedly that is so, a limit to numbers. If you take the pattern makers or boiler makers in London, where they have strict apprenticeship rules, it is difficult to find a place at all, because the position is generally filled.

97058. Do you think a rule of that kind acts prejudicially against the putting of boys into the skilled trades?—In a way it does, because it obviously prevents an increase in the number of boys you may have training at the same moment. It does not follow that it would be to the prejudice of those boys when they were men that there should be that restriction.

97059. But if the boy does not get in it makes a difference to him now?—Obviously it limits the chances of a boy.

97060. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) You might lower the whole standard?—The effects might be extremely bad if you had an inrush of boys to the boiler-making without any check; you might have a large number of unemployed ten years hence.

97061. (*Mr. Benthams.*) You do not think the skill of the trade is a sufficient safeguard against a wholesale modification of wages in that particular industry? If the wages came down to such a point that it was only on the level of casual labour, people would not care to put their boys into that trade, because there is no need to put them to the particular trade unless with the object of getting good wages?—Of course not.

97062. So that it would regulate itself very soon?—It is found that the wages fall in a skilled trade in that way, is it not, because the competition takes place between the numbers rather than on the wage?

97063. If there were a large number seeking employment the wage would fall; you could not keep it up by a trade union even?—It would fall, but not to the extent you expect, for a number of years; it would not fall in the way that the weavers' wages fell from 40s. to 14s. a century ago; it would not fall in that way owing to competition.

97064. But it would fall?—Yes, in the long run.

97065. If certain employers found that they could fill their works with men not connected with the union, without any interference on the part of the union, some would do it at a low rate of wages; so it would operate as it does in some trades now?—I only meant it would operate to keep it up to a standard.

97066. Your experiments with regard to boy labour are with the object of reducing the number of people who might be unemployed in after life?—Yes.

Mr. Edward Urwick.

17 Mar. 1908.

97067. You recognise as a decreasing quantity the number of boys employed up to fifteen, and even up to eighteen?—Up to the age of fifteen certainly; up to eighteen, that is between fourteen and eighteen, I do not know. I have not any figures, and I do not know how it compares with different periods in the past.

Decreasing number of boys employed up to fifteen.

97068. When you say that an increasing number of boys are employed in occupations which are either uneducative in the sense of producing no increase of efficiency or of intelligence, or unpromising in the sense of leading to no permanent occupation during adult life, you really mean there is an increasing number of boys who are now working in occupations which would not lead to a permanent occupation in after life, not that there is an increasing number of boys employed?—No, I do not mean that; I do not know whether that is so or not to any great extent.

97069. The kind of work young people are put to now is not educative in the sense of fitting them for their calling in after life?—That is so.

Non-educative boy labour.

97070. You say there is a constant tendency for certain industrial functions to be transferred from men to boys? Is that really true?—I should say most certainly it is. I have come across it in various industries where work that was done (I have not the instances with me, but I could get instances) a few years ago at 35s. a week by a man is now transferred to a boy at 15s. or 16s. a week with a greater output.

Effect of boy labour on employment.

97071. By the introduction of machinery for the purpose?—Yes, by a change in the machinery.

Boy labour increased by introduction of machinery.

97072. (*Mr. Patten-MacDougall.*) The work is not the same then?—No, I am afraid one would have to admit that; it is not the same process, though it is the same production. The article produced is the same, the process is changed.

97073. (*Mr. Benthams.*) That has not called into existence an increasing number of boys employed, it has only changed the occupation from an occupation where the boy might have been learning a trade, which might have been a proper trade for him, and instead of that he is minding a machine?—As I have said once or twice, I have not figures, and cannot judge the proportion of boys of the young person age who are actually employed now compared with the past. In certain places I believe it has called an increasing number of actual boys as compared with the past into existence. I think Coventry is a case in point where the number of boys and young persons employed is in excess of that in the whole country.

Proportion of boys now employed compared with the past.

97074. You say in the Coventry metal and machine trades 41 per cent. of the males employed are under twenty-five; but twenty-five is the age of manhood?—That is true.

97075. Have you the figures between fifteen and eighteen?—I have the figures at the age of fifteen, and they compare in this way; 79.5 per cent. of the boys of fifteen are employed in Coventry as compared with 60.1 per cent. in London. Those are the figures of boys actually at the age of fifteen. I have not the figures between fifteen and eighteen; but I think it is arguable that the same relative increase would be shown at the different ages.

Percentage of boys of fifteen employed in Coventry and London.

97076. That is due to the rapid growth of the motor car industry, I suppose?—Yes, chiefly, and to the fact that there is probably a very large young population there, as there is, on the whole, an older population in London.

97077. Taking the skilled trades of London they are not, as a matter of fact, particularly the building trade, recruited from London boys, are they?—I believe not.

Skilled trades of London not recruited from London boys.

97078. Do you see any way in which a change could be made in that respect? Builders have a prejudice against taking boys into the building trade from London for some reason or other?—Yes.

97079. Do you know why?—No, I do not know what the causes are beyond the prejudice.

Mr. Edward J. Urwick. 97080. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Is that an established fact that builders will not take London boys?—I could not say whether it is an established fact; I have heard from various sources that they prefer men from the country.

17 Mar. 1908. Building trade and London boys. 97081. Boys, I mean; apprentices, for instance?—I could not say.

97082. (*Mr. Bentham.*) It is not that they have a prejudice against boys as apprentices, but a prejudice against boys of any kind?—I think at any rate it is true that they take on a very small number of boys comparatively.

97083. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) I think the argument was that the London boy was displaced by the country boy?—I think that was not suggested.

97084. (*Mr. Bentham.*) The trade is not recruited really in London, but it is recruited from the men who have learned their trade in the country?—So I have always understood.

97085. That points to an increasing number of boys, probably between the ages of fifteen and twenty, who have not openings for learning a skilled trade?—Yes.

97086. You have no explanation of that?—Probably because there are more openings in connection with the nondescript occupations in London, such, for instance, as the transport service.

97087. Whether these boys between fifteen and twenty are in better-paid occupations than going into a contractor's yard or not is a question, the call for these boys in transport service may be the cause for their not going into other trades; and the contractors found it difficult to get suitable boys to train in their particular trade for that reason?—I think that probably is so in London.

97088. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Might I suggest that another reason is that the London contractors carry out so very many big works outside London that that may be a reason why a good many of their staff are people who are not actually born in London or known as London people?—Yes, I suppose that is so.

97089. (*Mr. Bentham.*) Would that really be so? Would a London contractor who has work outside London take London men to do the work, the scale of wages in the country is lower?

97090. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) I am suggesting the reverse: that the contractor takes country men?—And brings them to London.

97091. (*Mr. Bentham.*) When he has finished his country job and gets a London contract?—He keeps some of the country men on.

97092. That cannot go on to any great extent; they cannot all be coming in and none going out, or you would get the market overstocked in those particular trades and wages would fall. Surely he does not stop his London men and stick to his country men?—I should think in some case he does, does he not?

97093. Do you think that is the process that is going on?—I do not know how far it is, but I should say to a certain extent that process is going on; the substitution of the country men for the London men.

97094. (*Mr. Nunn.*) You do not say it is peculiar to the building trade, do you; it is the same with the police and the carmen?—Certainly, very much so with the police; and also, I believe, with compositors and printers; and perhaps several other trades.

97095. (*Mr. Bentham.*) You cannot devise any means of turning the stream of these men that are left out back to the country somehow?—No, I have no suggestion to make there at all.

97096. (*Mr. Gardiner.*) In Paragraph 2 (1) you speak of the quickly-rising standard of living or scale of wants, etc. Could you give us the evidence on which that statement is based? It is often stated, but I want to know what the evidence is?—There is the evidence of the actual rise of wages, of course, and the actual amount of satisfactions which the wage would buy on the whole in the last fifty years. Of other evidence of the actual rising scale of wants, I am afraid there is none whatever, except the impression of almost everybody that I have known who who has had much to do with the people, poor people, in their lives, which seems to point to general agreement on the fact that they are perpetually demanding more

owing to the example of others, and owing to the suggested possibility of getting more satisfactions.

97097. There is no evidence really, except the opinion or impression?—No.

97098. In answer to the Chairman you spoke of the compulsory limitation of the hours of boy labour as a possible remedy. Could you tell us how you could get that?—I think it is to some extent done already in Germany, where they insist on the boy attending six hours, or whatever number is fixed, per week at the continuation classes; and insist also on the employer limiting the number of hours during which he works on those days, letting him cease work at four o'clock in the afternoon, or whatever time is fixed.

97099. Have you ever thought of the plan of having in a place where they employed many boys, two shifts?—No, I have not thought of that. I do not know how it would work.

97100. Have you ever considered the possibility of making that arrangement?—No.

97101. And extending the Factory Acts in that direction?—No.

97102. (*Miss Hill.*) With regard to the evidence of a raised standard of living, I suppose there would be evidence that a great many families now occupy more rooms than they used to long ago? There were more one-roomed tenements in years gone by than there are now?—Yes, I think the census figures show that clearly.

97103. And on the whole, the hours of labour would be shorter, would they not?—Yes, on the whole.

97104. And Saturday half holidays more general?—Yes.

97105. And the holidays given at the periodical holidays, such as Bank Holidays, longer?—Yes.

97106. I should think very few people who are familiar with the homes of working people would have any question that there was more food and more clothes, than in the old days, would they?—I believe not, from those who can judge of the past.

97107. In fact, you would consider there was evidence, although it might not be easily brought out in a statistical form, that the standard had risen?—Yes, that the standard of satisfactions has risen certainly. I was rather thinking of a different thing, the scale of demand for more satisfactions in excess of the existing standard.

97108. I should think there is very good evidence of that, is there not?—Of the same kind.

97109. Would you not say that the standard is steadily rising?—Certainly; I think the general agreement is so now; but I am afraid it is difficult to point to any statistics in the form of figures, or anything of that sort.

97110. Have you any evidence with regard to the various registration and apprenticeship committees, and voluntary bodies, which have sprung up in London of late years, as to whether they have been successful in their working? I know it has been on a very small scale, Have they been successful and beneficial?—I think they have been distinctly beneficial within certain limits. I mean distinctly beneficial within limits which I believe are definitely fixed by the condition of the industries of London. Within those, I think they have, both in the more careful selection of the right boys and girls for the openings that are offered, and still more, as I think I have stated, in safeguarding the interests of boys and girls in the apprenticeship.

97111. Do you know a large reformatory near Norwich from which the boys have been placed out on farms?—I do not know of it.

97112. You are not aware that that has been done?—No.

97113. Rather with a view of keeping them away from London—that has been done?—I do not know of it.

97114. (*Mr. Loch.*) With regard to these classes after the period of school age, I understand that you would limit the day's work of young persons up to the age of sixteen or eighteen?—Yes.

Comptrol limitation of hours of boy labour.

Rising standard of living.

London contractors and country trained employees.

Influx of country men into London employments.

Rising standard of living and scale of wants.

Practicality of compulsory limitation of hours of boy labour.

ability 97115. Do you think that is feasible in view of the broken kind of work in the various shops, grocers' shops, and so on, where these young people are working? Does not the business of the employer require the services extended or restricted according to the business of the day?—Yes, certainly.

97116. Would it not be very difficult to fix the hours of a day's work for a boy of that age?—I think it would be difficult to enforce a fixed limit, but it is done to some extent at all events at present under the by-laws as to working during school age, although it is difficult always to see that they are not broken.

97117. That is up to fourteen?—Yes.

97118. I was under the impression that the difficulty would be very much greater after fourteen, because the boy himself is then an earner, and it is of great importance to him to keep his place?—I am assuming always, which I think would be the case, that the boy would be engaged almost wholly for time wages by the week, and the employer would probably lower the time wage, to a slight extent at first, if this compulsory limit of work was put on; at any rate, after that, having lowered it from 6s. to 5s. a week for a certain class of work, there would be no inducement to the boy to go beyond hours, although there might be an inducement for the employer to work him overtime; that might be stopped.

97119. I am thinking of the extreme difficulty that the employer would find himself in. It is in the day hours, the later hours, that the pressure comes in?—I see that. I think the employer would have to find some way of getting over the inconvenience; he would have to settle it as I believe he always has done with regard to the limitation of boy work.

97120. You think somehow or other the difficulty can be met?—Yes, I think so in the case of shop-boys, or errand boys, on Saturday night or the early closing evenings.

97121. Would you penalise the employer if the boy were working over hours?—Yes.

97122. Just as under the Factory Acts?—Yes.

97123. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) I would like to suggest that a way out would be to give the employer the choice of whether the time off was at the beginning of the day, the middle of the day or the end of the day. It might be, as Mr. Loch suggests, that it is just at the certain hour which might be fixed that you get the hour when the boy is most needed, but there would be no reason why you should arbitrarily fix it in every trade at a given hour?—No; I take it it would be done under by-laws in nearly all cases, allowing certain days longer work, according to the particular trade; a longer day on Saturday for all shop work.

97124. (*Mr. Loch.*) Mr. Lansbury's question goes further and suggests that the employer might have an hour or two hours given up in the morning rather than the evening?—I do not know how that would be practicable with regard to the education which presumably would have to take place all together at some given time in the day.

97125. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) I suggest again there would be a considerable number, and some classes might be fixed at some time and some at another?—A variation might be made in the time that was fixed; I do not know whether your suggestion is easy to carry out.

97126. (*Mr. Nunn.*) Have you considered the possibility of using up not old men, but men in rather more advanced life than middle age to do a good deal of the errand work, less rapid, but perhaps more steady, instead of boys?—That would happen probably if no change took place in the process, but as far as one can judge at present, if you starved out the messenger boy there would be an increased motor carriage of all kinds of goods, which would only probably necessitate the work of one man to do the work of, say, five boys; it would probably mean the employment of a motor van with a middle-aged man in charge of it.

97127. You think that would come?—It is coming in, and it would come more quickly if such a provision with regard to errand boys was strictly enforced.

97128. (*Mr. Loch.*) With regard to education, do you propose there should be a new and separate staff for the teaching of these boys in the extra time?—I think that a certain part of the staff would have to be a new one. I think part of the general manual training I am suggesting could be done by the staff that now teaches in the continuation schools, for instance.

97129. How many less hours of work would these boys have because of the extra time at school in a week?—At first I am only contemplating our fixing six or eight hours in the week.

97130. Does that include all physical education as well as the rest?—That includes all the compulsory education that he would be obliged to attend.

97131. You spoke about military work or teaching. Have you seen anything of cadet corps?—I have a little, but I have had no direct personal experience of them.

97132. You are quite of opinion that the kind of education the present system could give, with assistance, is the kind of education the boys want for the practical purposes of life, as a preliminary for the practical purposes of life?—With a certain amount of supplementing.

97133. Supposing a boy joined a cadet corps or some quite legitimate outlet for an interest of that sort, would you take it into account, or would you say that that is a breach of the law—it would take him, say, one night a week?—I have not really thought whether that could be included in the curriculum, or whether it would have to be treated as an extra like an amusement.

97134. It might be that the physical opportunities of good for a boy would be cut off by the system?—In that case it would be well to include it in the system and recognise cadet corps or physical training as part of the system.

97135. Apart from the educational method, you see no method of meeting this difficulty of the boy after he leaves school before he joins the regular fixed adult class of labour?—No, I see no general remedy.

97136. You are not inclined to think that a labour bureau, well organised, might place a boy at the start under better conditions, and so avoid altogether the necessity for this?—I cannot see how it would, because, as far as I can see, it would not alter the proportion of bad jobs to good jobs that exists.

97137. You are of opinion also that this refers particularly to the particular class of boy, the less capable, who might be picked out as less capable before the age of fourteen, and who might at that time be differently handled altogether?—They might be differently handled, but I cannot see myself that there is any less need for prolonged education in the one case than the other; the necessity with regard to both the stupid, slow boy and the quick boy appears to me to be equally great.

97138. You are of opinion that the education a boy gets now between thirteen and fourteen or thereabouts is the best for him at that time, considering his future life?—No, I cannot say that it is. I think, as I have said once or twice this morning, there is desirability of putting in more general manual training between the ages of twelve and fifteen.

97139. Is it not possible in framing a curriculum at that time to modify your proposals for the later age?—In what direction?

97140. In this direction, that the boy would start fair for better work than he now does.—At the age of fourteen?

97141. Yes.—A little, but I cannot say still that it would be enough to produce an effect; he would be a little better when he was twenty or twenty-five, but not so much as he should be.

97142. (*Mr. Patten-MacDougall.*) You are speaking chiefly for London?—Yes.

97143. Have you considered the possibility or the practicability of extending your proposals to the rest of the country, the rural districts?—I do not know enough of the rural districts and their needs to say what modifications would be required. I have not thought of or discussed the advisability of extending it to other parts.

97144. Nor the expediency or the advisability of having continuation classes in all the elementary schools of the country, have you?—I am assuming that would follow

Mr. Edward J. Urwick. probably, that it would be adopted universally if adopted for London, but I have not considered the modifications necessary in the different parts.

17 Mar. 1908.

Club
amusements
as the
inducement
to attend
voluntary
continuation
schools.

97145. Have you considered the cost at all?—No.

97146. I do not know whether I rightly understood you; I think you said that the inducement at present to boys to attend these continuation schools is the inducement of club amusement; was that what you said?—That was only in the case of those I had to deal with.

97147. What do you mean by club amusement?—Such as the provision of amusement, of games, both in the evenings and on Saturdays, such as billiards and so on, and physical drill.

97148. How are these provided by attendance at continuation schools?—Not that I know of in continuation schools. I am speaking of the boys whose education I have directly had to deal with, who have been members of a club. I am speaking of those in Limehouse particularly, where two or three clubs have been founded, where the club and continuation school have been combined under private management; it does not apply to continuation schools as such, but continuation schools have been carried on in connection with club amusement.

*Mr.
Archibald
Campbell.*

Mr. ARCHIBALD CAMPBELL, called; and Examined.

17 Mar. 1908. *(Sir Samuel Provis.)* You are a Justice of the Peace, a Solicitor in the Supreme Courts of Scotland and Clerk and Law Agent to the Distress Committee of the City of Edinburgh?—I am.

Experience of
witness.

97154. You have prepared a Statement which we will treat as your Evidence-in-chief if you will kindly hand it in?—Certainly.

(The Witness handed in the following document.)

EXTENT OF UNEMPLOYMENT.

Extent of
unemploy-
ment in
Edinburgh.

1. The extent of unemployment in Edinburgh in recent years has been very great.

(a) On 2nd January, 1906, the Distress Committee opened a Labour Exchange, where, since that date, 4,837 individuals have enrolled.

Since 15th May, 1907, 2,133 individuals have enrolled. Of these 797 were new cases, and 1,336 persons who had previously applied.

The number on the roll as unemployed at this date is 1,801.

Character of
unemployed.

Of the number of those who have enrolled, about 15 per cent. may be taken as habitually out of employment, working only when driven to it by great need, or when they desire money for dissipation, and content for the most part to live upon the earnings of wives and children, or in any other way which does not entail labour. This class now enrolls in reduced numbers, since they have found that they must work for any money received from the Distress Committee.

About 25 per cent. appear to be casual workers, often out of employment. The work secured by them is generally for a month or two at a time, and even for shorter periods.

There, however, remain about 60 per cent. who appear eminently deserving of assistance, anxious and willing to work, but unable to procure it.

Seasonal
trades.

(b) There are trades which are termed "seasonal trades," such as painters and tailors, where the men are busy for several months of each year, but at other times of the year do not expect to be fully employed. The winter also stops many outdoor employments.

Chronic un-
employment
in building
trade.

2. In Edinburgh there is at the present time chronic unemployment in the building and allied trades. About one-fourth of our present roll of unemployed belong to these trades. In addition, there is a surplus of men over and above the required supply in many trades. In our public rubber works many hands have been paid off recently. By the closing of the Scottish Vulcanite Co.'s Works, which at one time employed 500 hands, many workers, after long periods of steady employment, have been thrown idle.

97149. Are those club amusements provided in order to induce the boys to attend the schools?—That is a good reason, though they are available themselves as an amusement, they are really a draw to the boys to come to the class.

97150. You do not think very much of the advice that the school-masters give as to the future of the boy who is under his care?—I am afraid I do not.

Adv. of
school-
masters
as to
future of
boys

97151. Do you not think the schoolmaster is as well able to judge of the boy's capacity as anyone else, because the boy is more under his care, when he has had him in charge for years?—I would like the schoolmaster to continue as part of the advisory body, but you are compelled to go further as to the state of the industry in the choice of an occupation as well as what the boy is fitted for. The schoolmaster would not know what is likely to continue a good opening in the future, and what is not.

97152. Do they generally take an interest in the boy's future?—Some headmasters I have known have taken an interest to a great extent and have given advice to the boys and to the parents in cases when they have come to them. Certain of them take a very great interest, but others I know do not take much.

3. The number mentioned as having enrolled at the Labour Exchange in no way represents the total number of unemployed in Edinburgh. It has been found that the best class of tradesmen do not care to register at the Labour Exchange, as relief work is also given there. Recognising this, the Distress Committee have opened a Municipal Labour Exchange where persons may register who desire only employment at their own occupations. More reliable statistics as to the state of unemployment will thus, it is believed, be procured. Since the opening of this Exchange, about nine months ago, 1,575 persons have registered there. If an applicant does not renew his registration each month, his name is removed from the roll. At present 654 names stand upon the roll. By the medium of this Exchange situations have been found for 406 persons.

Best class of
workmen do
not register
with distress
committee.

Municipal
labour
exchange.

CAUSES OF UNEMPLOYMENT.

4. One of the most fruitful causes of unemployment is the constant displacement of labour in all industries by the introduction of labour-saving machinery and new processes of production. Such machinery enables a partially-skilled man to do work formerly done only by a highly-skilled man. In many cases the machines are even of such a type that women or boys or girls can attend to them, and do the work formerly done by adult male labour.

Machinery.

5. The skilled workman is thus in many instances, by the introduction of machinery, forced into the ranks of the unskilled, as his previous training becomes valueless.

6. Mechanical appliances are also displacing the labourer as well as the skilled tradesman.

7. The smaller trader is being crushed out by the consolidation of businesses, which permits of work being done in a large establishment with fewer hands than when it was distributed over a large number of small men. This also helps to create unemployment.

Consolidation
of business.

8. The Workmen's Compensation Act has thrown a great many thoroughly decent older men out of employment, as employers are afraid to retain their services, as the risk of accident increases with men as they grow older.

Workmen's
Compensation
Act.

9. In Edinburgh there was some years ago a very great amount of building. Two large new hotels were built, our municipal chambers were extended, the North Bridge Street was rebuilt, and a great deal of speculative building took place. During that period a great number of builders, joiners, etc., were attracted to the town. When the employment which had brought them here ceased, these men, having taken houses and settled in Edinburgh, remained on, hoping to see a revival in trade, and now are not in a position, owing to lack of means, to move elsewhere.

Depression
in building
trade.

EFFECTS OF UNEMPLOYMENT.

10. The effect upon the workmen is to make those who are unemployed in course of time become unemployable. The habit of work is very readily lost; and when men have lost their self-respect by having to sell their furniture, to leave a decent neighbourhood for a poorer one, and to associate with undesirable neighbours, they very naturally deteriorate. It thus becomes of great importance to make it impossible for any men who are willing to work to be without work.

11. Further, the very best class of young men, those who have shown thrift and saved money, are leaving the country in large numbers; and as they pay their own way, little is heard of this emigration.

REMEDIES FOR UNEMPLOYMENT.

12. The problem of unemployment should be dealt with as a national question, as practically the same causes operate throughout the whole country. The organisation of labour under a State Department might be tried. Such a Department could consider as to the shortening of the hours of labour, and also as to how overtime work could be prevented.

13. The Department might also take up the question of preventing boys drifting into the ranks of unskilled labour. The Boys' Brigade, through its officers, who are in close touch with about 60,000 lads in this country between the ages of twelve and seventeen, might be made use of in this matter. At present much is done by the individual officers of the Boys' Brigade to induce their lads to qualify for trades, but much opposition is raised to this by parents who desire large wages immediately, without regard to the boys' future.

14. The Unemployed Workmen's Act should be amended so as to confer upon committees power to pay wages out of the rates, and also to compulsorily acquire land.

15. The word "Distress" should be dispensed with, as it gives unnecessary offence to self-respecting tradesmen, and the committees might be termed "Employment Committees."

16. Municipal Labour Exchanges should be made compulsory in all towns of any size.

17. One would also suggest the establishment of penal colonies, where those not willing to work would be compelled to do so. If the unemployed and those not desirous of working were separated from those deserving of assistance and anxious to work, the problem would be much simplified.

18. To justify the establishment of penal colonies, one would first require to be in a position to offer employment to all, and this could perhaps be best brought about by the establishment of works on a national scale for the purposes of, say, the reclamation of moss lands, foreshores, etc., or other works of national utility, to which men could be drafted in periods of depression in their own trades. The Distress Committee in Edinburgh have acquired the estate of Murieston, and are there employing 400 men in improving the land by incorporating with it city refuse. A scheme of this kind on a larger scale might be tried.

19. If the works so instituted were on a sufficiently large scale, there would be, in connection with them, employment for men of skill, and such works might also be used as a training school, fitting men for skilled labour when opportunity for such labour occurred.

97155. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) The subject which you wish to give evidence upon is connected with the unemployed and the work of the Distress Committee in Edinburgh?—That is so.

97156. You tell us that in January, 1906, the Distress Committee in Edinburgh opened a labour exchange, and you give us certain figures. Are those figures made up to date?—To within the last week.

97157. The labour exchange which you refer to there is really a register of the applicants for relief work?—Yes. The first figures deal with the applicants for relief work: later on I give you those who apply for help to get work at their own occupations.

97158. The labour exchange referred to in the first paragraph is merely to register the applicants for work?—Yes, for relief work.

97159. The number at the present time is under 1,800. Is that an average number? Is the average pretty constant all the way through?—Except in summer that I may say is a fairly average figure. It is an increasing number, at the present time we have probably about fifty per day added to it. It has been going steadily up in the last three months, but in the summer time the figure is much lower.

97160. Do you keep the register open all the year round?—Yes.

97161. What sort of ages were these applicants: have you any figures in your mind?—I could have given you all these figures: I had them tabulated for a Report which I gave to the Local Government Board, but I am afraid I could not supply you with them from memory. One thing we were surprised at was the number of applicants who are comparatively young men. (*See Appendix No. XVIII. (A).*)

97162. You give the number as about 15 per cent. who are habitually out of employ?—Yes, that is the number that we consider really are not very deserving of help. We have deferred their cases to take up those of other people considered more deserving.

97163. As you keep that register open all the year round, do you review it from time to time. Do you close it and begin it again?—Yes, we purge it periodically. We take steps to satisfy ourselves that all those appearing on the roll are still desirous of obtaining work.

97164. Do you find the same people recurring?—Yes, you will find I have given you the figures: since May 15th, there were 2,133 individuals who have enrolled, of those 797 were new cases, that is something more than one-third, and 1,336 were persons who had come to us on previous occasions.

97165. There are about 60 per cent. who were apparently deserving of assistance as unable to procure work. How far were you able to meet those applications?—Until this year to a very limited extent. We were at first wholly dependent on work which we could procure from the Corporation of Edinburgh and also work which we were able to provide in a factory which we started for dealing with waste paper. We collect the waste paper of the city and get it sorted out and then sell it to paper manufacturers. There we have about 140 people steadily employed: we also make firewood, and we get old tins and take the solder from them: any sort of odd thing that might not pay an ordinary employer of labour but enables us to pay for the labour engaged in doing it and provides work, is taken up by us. This year we have at the present time about 1,000 men employed by the Committee. We have purchased an estate and have about 400 men there, and we have this 140 in the factory, and then we have various pieces of work for the Corporation in hand. We are better able to meet the applications this year, and I hope will be still better able to meet them in another year on account of the way we are working this estate.

97166. That is the one you refer to in Paragraph 18, I imagine?—It is.

97167. You say 400 men are employed there in improving the land by incorporating with it city refuse that is to say, you get the refuse from the city council, I suppose, and are putting it into the land?—Yes, we are trying to get the waste labour, the waste land and the waste material to produce something worth having by working the three waste products together. Our reason for hoping to be able to deal more efficiently with unemployment in another year is this: that now we are unable to put out as many men as we otherwise would, because we have only as yet a daily supply of refuse providing work for 300 or 400 men: we are using up the supply we can get out each day by digging that into the land. In the summer we hope to be able to put a much larger quantity of refuse on to the estate than we have men to work it into the land, so that when the winter comes we will be able to send out a large number of men and have the material there to work with.

97168. Do you have to house those men?—We are doing it both ways: we have so many housed, and then we have a special train running backwards and forwards morning and evening.

Mr.
Archibald
Campbell.

17 Mar. 1908.
Numbers on
register.

Ages of
applicants.

Percentage of
chronic
unemployed.

Periodical
review of
register.

Recurring
cases.

Number of
men to whom
employment
given and
nature of
work.

Improvement
of land.

Mr.
Archibald
Campbell.
17 Mar. 1908.
Economy
effected in
disposal of
city refuse.

97169. What distance is it from Edinburgh?—Twelve miles. We have been able to effect an economy in that way. The city was paying 1s. 4d. per ton merely for the purpose of getting their refuse disposed of, for getting other proprietors to take it off their hands in some cases, and in other cases they had to purchase old quarries or disused land in order to get rid of it. We are making use of this city refuse, and at the same time we have got a place so much nearer that we save 6d. per ton on railway carriage, which the city has given us the advantage of.

97170. Do you take all the refuse, or do they prepare it in any way?—We cannot take it all of course yet, but we take the refuse just as they get it, then we take out all hard material. Of course, the land is a clayey land which needed draining very badly, and a great deal of the refuse is cinder refuse, and that cinder refuse is providing drainage. They are trenching the land about 18 inches, putting in first a little of the cinder refuse, then a little of the clay and so on; the soil is being lightened in that way, and the process also helps to drain the soil, and then whatever is of manurial value also improves the land.

Municipal
Labour
Exchange.

97171. Coming back to the earlier part of your statement, I see you have a labour exchange apart from the applications made for relief work, that is to say a labour bureau from which employers and employees may find out where work is to be had, and who are willing to take it?—That is so.

Trades
unions and
labour
exchange.

97172. What class of people come to that exchange; all classes?—Practically every class. We have endeavoured to get the trade union people in Edinburgh associated with us so that we might make it the common meeting place of both employers and employees, and we are getting a few societies to keep their out-of-work books there, and the men are getting familiarised with the place in that way; they come and sign the societies books when they are out of work, and they get paid there by their own officials their out-of-work allowances. In that way we have practically every kind of tradesmen making use of it; as you will see we have had over 1,500 people registered there, and we have been able to put about 406 people into employment. I have a list of these different kinds of employment here which shows how varied they are. For instance, we found places for box-makers, brick-makers, cabinet-makers, cattlemen (one or two farmers have taken men out as cattlemen) clerks, engine keepers, farm labourers, gardeners, joiners, masons, painters, packers, pig men, pocket-book makers, port-manteau makers, sign-writers, slaters, stone polishers (lithographic), tinsmiths, upholsterers, van drivers, waiters, warehouse-men, window cleaners, and so on.

Numbers
registered.

Employments
found.

Employers
and labour
exchange.

97173. Perhaps you would put that list in?—I shall be very happy. (*See Appendix No. XVIII. (B)*). One satisfactory feature of the exchange has been that a number of men, the employers particularly, have come back again, and towards the end of the autumn when farmers had a great demand for labour for lifting potatoes which they could not meet, one or two farmers came to us, and then they sent others, and we having a big supply of labour were able to send men out at once to different places all round Edinburgh. We sent out quite a large number of men, 157 people, as farm labourers for temporary periods of four weeks up to perhaps eight weeks.

Nature and
locality of un-
employment.

97174. So that the employment you found was not merely in Edinburgh itself, but in the neighbourhood as well?—Yes. There is a brick work to which we have been able to send a number of men, and to these farms all round about, quite a large number.

97175. (*Mr. Patten-MacDougall.*) The farmers were very well satisfied?—Very well. After a man had served a period with one farmer he was passed on to another farmer in the neighbourhood if he had done well. Some of the men were quite useless men, they could not stand the strain of stooping so much, but a large number did extremely well. We had a card sent in by the employers giving a report as to how the men had done.

Advisory
committee of
members of
trades
unions for
labour
bureau.

97176. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) Was the employment exchange entirely worked by the distress committee or did you have any co-operation in managing it on the part of the men or the employers?—We instituted it,

and at the time of its institution in order to carry with us the trade unions of the city we invited each trade union to send a representative to a meeting at which we discussed the lines on which we proposed to establish the labour exchange. Then we asked them to appoint an advisory committee of seven; these men have no power to vote, but we take their opinion upon points in connection with the conduct of the Exchange if we think it advisable.

97177. Do they advise you on the allocation of men to particular classes of work?—No, that has not been necessary.

97178. They would only advise upon general questions?—Yes, just on general questions. They have circularised the various trade unions, and have offered to come and address trade unions upon the advantages of this central labour exchange. We have had favourable various expressions of opinion both from the men and from employers as to the convenience of this place, and the men have no feeling about coming there because the relief work is not particular given at this office.

97179. Now we come to the causes of unemployment. You have referred to several which have been brought to our notice before. You refer to the Workmen's Compensation Act as having thrown a good many men out of employment. Has that come under your personal notice, or are you referring to general knowledge?—It has come under my personal notice through my association with different employers, and it has also come under my notice from the fact that my firm happens to act as solicitors for a large accident insurance company, and I know the general feeling that there is amongst employers in that way.

97180. Do you go so far as to say that men have been got rid of because they are old?—Yes, I think you can go that length; men if they are wearing spectacles, or are getting at all up in years, are the first men to be asked to go whenever there is slackness.

97181. The building trade is bad in Edinburgh at the present time, is it not?—Very, it could not very well be worse. We have a large number of hewers; we are different from England in that respect; These men prepare stones for buildings; they have served a considerable apprenticeship and earned good wages, but to-day stones are mostly dressed by machines. Hewers consequently to-day are without a trade and practically are thrown back on unskilled labour. The building trade as a whole is in a deplorable condition in Edinburgh. We have a tremendous number of men who are associated with the building trade, who are on our rolls as applicants for relief.

97182. You mention one or two reasons why that is so, namely, that one or two large works have come to an end and the men have not gone away?—Yes.

97183. Do you find with regard to the building trade there is a recurring season of depression in Edinburgh in that trade?—Yes, but at very considerable intervals. I can recall perhaps twenty years ago that there was a very great depression and then property gradually mounted up and up; particularly there was a big boom in Edinburgh after the failure of the Australian Bank; people were very keen to put their money into property after that, but the thing has been over-done. When building was going up we had a district called Gorgie in Edinburgh which suddenly became the centre of a great deal of industry and tenements were built there for the occupation of men, working in the factories and the men employed in building those tenements wished for houses in the immediate neighbourhood. When trade became dull and there was no need for further building that emptied these houses to an extent, and then the dismissed workers in the factories left the houses in the neighbourhood of these works. In consequence you had tenements in that place practically standing empty, there was no there was no need for creating new property under those circumstances.

97184. That is to say that for the time being the place was rather over-built?—Very much so.

97185. You have pointed out the effects of unemployment, and you make certain suggestions as to remedies. Your chief remedy would be the establishment of a State Department, would it not?—I should fancy that that might help, to let us at least see how matters stand and see whether it could be regulated in some way.

97186. Do you mean by that the State should undertake a certain amount of employment itself?—Not necessarily; ultimately that might be so; Bigger schemes on similar lines to our Murieston estate might be tried, but at the same time the State might devise some way by which labour could be better spread out so that some men should not have long hours and overtime while other men were without work; if more wholesome distribution of labour in that way could be effected by such a Department it would be an advantage.

97187. Would your object be effected if you had a system of labour exchanges all over the country linked up together?—Yes. I am strongly in favour of such an arrangement. Even in our limited experience we have tried to work in with Glasgow. If a man were asked for in Edinburgh and we had not that particular class of man, by telephoning to Glasgow we have tried to get such a man. If we had an extended system we might be able to draft men to different places where there was a need for them.

97188. (*Mr. Patten-MacDougall*.) Has that been done in any case?—We have tried to do it, but the need has not arisen often. I do not think we have ever been actually successful, but we have put ourselves into communication and tried to get a man, but where a man was not to be got in Edinburgh he was not often to be got in Glasgow in the cases in which we tried it. From our labour exchange we have drafted a number of men to Linlithgowshire and other places outside Edinburgh.

97189. (*Sir Samuel Provis*.) You dwell upon the fact that boys drift into unskilled employment. I daresay you heard the evidence of the last witness?—I did

97190. Would you agree in his view about the extension of the age for education?—I would agree with it if practical, but I know how the parents of the boys regard it, and I should fancy it would be some little time before there came a practical way of dealing with it. In Edinburgh we are starting an apprenticeship committee working along with the School Board, and the Boys Brigade battalion officers are represented on that, as they have been elsewhere, to try and get a sort of guardian or curator appointed to each boy who will take an interest in them when they choose a trade and keep sight of them during their apprenticeship.

97191. Is the system of apprenticeship existing in Scotland to any large extent now?—Probably to a less extent to-day than formerly, but in our engineering works, and our bigger works, the system of apprenticeship still obtains.

97192. We are told that in England it is declining a good deal: would your opinion be that it is the same in Scotland?—I should think so; it is not a point on which I profess to have definite information, but that is my impression on the matter.

97193. You say the parents are anxious that the boys should get into employment: are not the boys themselves also rather keen upon that?—I fancy it is more the matter of the parents. I know we have had a great deal of difficulty in the cases of boys in whom one takes an interest, because if the boy was able to earn 6s. or 7s. a week instead of 2s. 6d. the parents have said they needed that 6s. or 7s., and they insisted on the boy taking that. I have known cases where in order to prevent that the difference between what the boy would earn as an apprentice and what he could earn for unskilled labour has been made up by persons interested so as to make the parents let the boy have a chance in life.

97194. You have a system of continuation schools in Scotland, have you not?—Yes.

97195. Is that largely made use of?—Not as largely as it ought to be, but it is made use of to some extent. A few years ago I took an interest in dealing with what they called a Fifteen Club School where it was attempted to give classes specially pertaining to the trades of the boys, and we had classes for policemen and all that sort of thing. That has been to some extent taken up by the

school board: they are making the combination classes appropriate to the different trades. There was nothing of that sort eight or ten years ago when this experiment was started.

97196. You would suggest one or two amendments of the Unemployed Workmen Act, but I gather you think that Act should be continued. You know it comes to an end this year?—Quite so. I think this problem of unemployment is with us and must be dealt with in some way or other.

97197. Do you make any suggestion as to the alteration in the constitution of distress committees?—In our case the Committee as constituted is working admirably. As far as Edinburgh is concerned, it has been rather a happy combination of representatives which was made by the Local Government Board.

97198. You suggest that the committee should have compulsory powers. Have you had any practical difficulty arising from the want of those powers?—Yes, very serious difficulty. We were fortunate at the end of the day but we sought quite a number of places which would have been admirably suited for our purpose, but the owners were not prepared to part with them, or only prepared to part with them at a price which was perfectly prohibitive, and we could not go any further forward. Within touch of Edinburgh certainly there is a lot of land suitable for our purposes. We have the foreshore further up in the Forth, where reclamation has been done on a limited scale by individual proprietors, and there were various places which, if we had had compulsory power to acquire at a reasonable price, we would have dealt with, but it was quite hopeless to deal without such powers.

97199. Do you think under compulsory powers you would get the land fairly cheaply?—If you were not going to do it in that way one would not exercise those powers—if you could deal reasonably without them, but it would give you a weapon to obtain your end with, if you thought fit to use it.

97200. (*Mr. Patten MacDougall*.) I think I understood from you that employers of all kinds of labour have been coming to the labour exchange as now constituted?—Yes.

97201. From the list you have given, it appears that you have sent men to all different kinds of trade?—That is so.

97202. I suppose that is the result of employers of labour in those trades being connected with it?—Yes.

97203. So there is a considerable co-operation between the employers and employees in working the labour exchange, as managed by the committee?—That is so.

97204. And it continues to grow?—Very much so.

97205. You are satisfied that, in order to make it a success, it must be altogether apart from the work of the distress committee; that it must not be associated with it in any way?—We have very clearly proved that, because we tried in the first instance working it along with the distress committee relief work, and we found the best men would not register in those circumstances. We hardly got a place for any man at his ordinary occupation at all, so long as we ran the two registers together. From the time we opened the separate office and kept a separate register at which we only ask a few special questions, mainly as to a man's capacity at his own work, the men have registered in numbers and we have been successful in finding them places.

97206. I suppose, as originally worked, not only employees but employers fought shy of it?—Yes, the employers thought they would only get wastrels if they came to the relief work department.

97207. I do not know whether you have had any experience, at any rate, you have knowledge, no doubt, of the relief work which was done by the town council prior to the Unemployment Act?—Yes, I have general knowledge of it.

97208. You are of opinion that the Unemployed Act must be continued in order to meet the situation?—I have no doubt of that.

97209. One amendment which you think is essential is that provision should be made for the payment of wages out of rates?—Yes.

Mr. Archibald Campbell.

17 Mar. 1908.

Unemployed Workmen Act.

Distress committees.

Compulsory powers of purchasing land.

Employers and labour exchange.

Labour exchange must be quite apart from work of distress committee.

Provision for payment of wages to unemployed out of rates.

Mr.
Archibald
Campbell.

17 Mar. 1908.

97210. Tell the Commission the difficulty that is found with regard to that in Edinburgh?—The first year we issued a very strongly worded appeal, and I think we succeeded in getting perhaps £900, that is all we got in voluntary subscriptions, and I think about £300 or £400 the next year. It is practically about £300 or £400 this year, although we have a very much better case. Upon that we could do practically nothing, because we are spending far more than that on wages each week at the present time. If we are to deal with the question and assist the unemployed, we must have some other means of getting the wages than by voluntary subscriptions. It is quite impossible to raise a reasonable sum to meet those wages by voluntary subscriptions. There are only a few who are paying twice over, both by taxation and voluntary subscriptions, and they resent it.

Voluntary
subscriptions
and Govern-
ment grant.

97211. Then I suppose you also find it a difficulty that the voluntary contributions are essential and necessary before you can get the Government grant?—Yes.

97212. That has been found a very great difficulty, has it not?—A serious difficulty.

97213. Accordingly your suggestion would be that in any future amendment of the law, that requisite should be done away with?—That is so. I would suggest that a limit be put to our expenditure; you might put the same limit in our case that was put in the Act, that is, a rate not exceeding a limit of $\frac{1}{2}$ d. in the £, or 1d. in the £, with the consent of the Local Government Board. We have already expressed an opinion which we sent to the Secretary for Scotland, that that would be a satisfactory arrangement as far as we are concerned, but we do not see how the Act can continue workable without some such power.

97214. Under existing conditions it is also the fact, is it not, that great inequalities result and great injustice is done, because in the case of some distress committees, the voluntary contributions are very small, and in the case of others they are very considerable, and accordingly one distress committee may get a much larger grant for a very small voluntary contribution, when the reverse may be the case with another. That has been the experience, has it not?—That has been our own experience, that we have got more than other committees in voluntary subscriptions, and less in Government grant.

97215. That should be redressed in any future legislation?—That is my belief.

Discipline.

97216. In the working of the Murieston Farm, you have had some trouble, have you not, with the men?—We have, but not through the men, it was practically by the interference of outsiders. The men who have engineered all the trouble are men who are receiving a regular wage themselves, they are in regular employment, and they have come in and made this agitation, but the agitation really extended to a very small number. A number were terrorised and afraid to go out, but a good many went out. The disaffection only extended to about 120 out of the 1,000 we had working.

97217. I think it was the case that when you sent fresh men out from those upon the list—you made some fresh selection—and when it was found that they were going to do the work that the others had done, the others asked to come back?—Yes.

97218. They had gone on strike?—So-called. We have had a request to reinstate those who did so, but in the meantime, unless a man has shown good reason for not turning out he has not been restored.

Remunera-
tive nature
of work.

97219. (*Miss Hill.*) Do I gather that the work on this Murieston farm is remunerative or not?—We have had no opportunity to test it so far. We are advised that by treating the land in the way we are treating it it will be worth at least 50 per cent. more in annual value afterwards. At the present moment, except the garden of the old mansion house, and in one field where we are treating it experimentally and planting various kinds of fruit trees and shrubs, we are reclaiming the land. Nothing has been done to it for a very long time; it grows very poor grass and that is all. We are told, supposing we do nothing else but deal with it in the way I have mentioned, it will produce in rental 50 per cent. more than it did in the past. If that proves to be the case, that will make it remunerative, but that is a matter of many years hence, so that we can hardly judge of that to-day.

97220. At present it is being done with funds either voluntarily subscribed or the Government grant?—Yes.

97221. How does the labour compare with independent labour?—Of course, it is not so highly paid, but we have been very satisfied with the efforts which the men, who never handled spades in their lives before, have made to do the work efficiently. We have painters and all kinds of men working there, and they have honestly tried to give a decent day's work for what is paid to them. Of course, they are not paid standard wages, they are paid at the rate, roughly, of $3\frac{1}{2}$ d. per hour; that means they are getting 14s. 8d. a week; then there is an allowance for children over and above that up to 4s., so that a man may get 18s. 9d., and he costs us £1 2s. 9d., because we have to pay 4s. for the train fare. The other men's conditions are practically the same, deducting what we estimate the cost of boarding them is.

Rate
wages

97222. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Will you put in the figures showing what the payments are?—I will be glad to. (*See Appendix No. XVIII. (C).*)

97223. (*Mr. Patten-MacDougall.*) The cost of the railway travelling is about £40 a week, is it not?—We pay 4s. a head, and we must run at least 200 men. If we are running 400 men it is more than the figure you mention.

97224. (*Miss Hill.*) Do you employ these men for an unlimited time, or are you limited to sixteen weeks or not?—We have no limit in Scotland as to the length of time we may employ them, but our intention is for the present time to do six or eight weeks. We do not pretend to have solved the question, but we have in particular helped a number of painters who are season tradesmen, and a most gratifying number of these men, after we have given them four or five weeks at Murieston, have gone back to their work just now. Every week we are sending back more and more of these painters who have been tided over the worst part of the year and are now back to their own trade when the brisk season comes on in their particular trade.

Length of
employment.

97225. You would consider it a very important point that the wages should be lower than the standard rate of wage, in order to give every impetus to the men to return to their work as soon as possible?—Undoubtedly.

Wages
lower
than
standa-
rate.

97226. Although you have been so successful in drafting these men to independent employment and have got these employers coming forward, and such an excellent labour exchange, you still think you ought to have power to throw the cost, up to a certain extent, upon the rates?—Yes. Just now we are in the unenviable position of having to face bankruptcy more or less if we are not well treated by the Local Government Board, because we are committed to expenditure which we are not able to meet. We trust to a proportion of this Government grant. We have no other way of doing it. We have only £300 or £400 of voluntary subscriptions and are paying out a great deal more than that every week.

Rate for
employment.

97227. In what way exactly did you think the boys' brigades throughout the country could help?—The officers of the boys' brigades are so closely in touch with the individual boy, they take a personal interest in that boy, not merely for drill purposes, but they have him at the recreation rooms, they have him probably a week at camp, and get to know that boy intimately, or should do so. They know that boy's inclinations and his possibilities to a certain extent. They would be willing, I am sure, to act as a sort of guardian or curator, as the suggestion is, and keep in touch with the boy. They are in touch already and would keep in touch, they do so now, but their hold might be strengthened in some way by co-operation.

Boys'
brigade and
boy labour.

97228. Have you any knowledge of the great increase in the physical capacity of the boys from such training as is given by the boys' brigade?—Yes, I have distinct knowledge of it. I happen to be Vice-President of the Edinburgh Battalion, and I have been associated with the movement for about twenty-one or twenty-two years, so that I know thoroughly the possibilities of the movement.

Physical
effect of
training
by boys'
brigade.

97229. You have found that the discipline gives the boys just that kind of education that makes them most valuable to themselves and other people?—Undoubtedly you can do with a little discipline such as they get what could not possibly be done without it. In Edinburgh we take over 500 boys down to camp; those boys are drawn from the poorest districts in Edinburgh. If you took a mob of 500 down there without discipline the thing would be hopeless, but the camp is worked like clockwork—absolute discipline.

97230. I suppose you find that they themselves learn to admire obedience instead of scorning it?—Undoubtedly.

97231. And also the power of endurance rather than indulgence?—Yes.

97232. They respect people who can endure and march well and keep up with their comrades?—Yes. We find that the officers who command the greatest amount of respect from these boys are exactly the men who, besides being their superiors in all other different directions, are their superiors in sports and various things of that sort, the men who can do that sort of thing better than they can.

97233. It puts rather a different standard before the boys of what they should admire and aspire to?—It gives them wholesome ideals in a way that nothing else has done so far as my knowledge goes.

97234. (*Mr. Phelps.*) You say that the people whom you have restored to their ordinary form of life were painters?—That was one trade that was particularly in my mind. In Edinburgh at the present moment that trade is just reviving.

97235. In painting in the ordinary course of things there are long periods of unemployment, are there not?—That is so, it is a season trade.

97236. Supposing that you enabled these painters to tide over the time of unemployment, what do you think would be the effect on painters' wages generally?—Of course, I suppose your suggestion is that it might reduce the standard of wages?

97237. Are not their wages calculated on the assumption that there are long periods of unemployment?—That might be. I think it is quite possible, but the fact remains that we have these men in the direst straits, absolutely starving.

97238. Is that due, do you think, to not treating their wages as having to cover the long periods but spending them as they come in?—I cannot say. The average painter is deluded by thinking to begin with that he is going to get a big wage, but there are very very few of these painters who have anything like a decent average wage; their average wage would not be a very good wage for ordinary purposes.

97239. You speak of a large number of people having been attracted into Edinburgh by the building of these hotels and so forth, and having settled there. Do you look forward in the future to there being sufficient employment in Edinburgh for all these people?—I do not. We have a famous Usher Hall, which is the only big building in contemplation, but it has been in contemplation so long I doubt whether it will ever be started.

97240. Do you think with regard to building houses there is likely to be a revival in that so as to employ all the people who have come in?—I cannot say I do. Property certainly is almost unsaleable.

97241. Do you think on the whole the congestion is normal or chronic?—This congestion in the building trade? We have ourselves helped some people out to Canada, but I think these men were not likely to find employment in Edinburgh at the present time, or in the near future.

97242. How do you propose to deal with that question?—It is very difficult to say. I know no other part of the country in Scotland where there is any demand for builders. The demand does not exist as far as we know.

97243. You do not do very much in the way of emigration to foreign countries?—We carried it out on a small scale; we sent out an experimental seventy-five people.

97244. Do you think on the whole that is a good remedy?—If one regards Canada as another part of our own Empire, perhaps it is; one does not like to see the

labour going out of our own country, but we may take that view of it. Those we have sent have done well.

97245. They have improved their position to what they were doing in Edinburgh?—We have had some very grateful letters from those that were sent. Their gratitude has not extended to the point of paying back the cost which we were put to, which we thought would be done, but perhaps we have waited too short a time to expect it.

97246. Do you think the form of employment you are giving these people at Murieston will give them a taste for country life and help you to migrate them to different parts of Scotland?—I doubt that because, while the men have expressed satisfaction with the labour they are getting there, what they are doing there is simply trenching the ground and incorporating city refuse, which is not a very savoury article. It is quite different from the ordinary land labour where they would have an interest in plants and animals and so on.

97247. You do not think you might be able to work it in connection with small holdings and so on?—It might be possible, because this site is well planted with trees, but we are not at that stage to-day; we are simply getting the estate improved.

97248. Do you look upon that as a possibility in the future?—It is a possibility.

97249. Have you gone into these plans for re-forestation in Scotland, which have been a good deal before us?—No, I have not.

97250. In the ultimate future, looking very far forward, do you think, if your system of labour exchanges was adopted and extended over the country, and also if the problem of boy labour was dealt with in the way you suggest, that unemployment would become a very rare phenomenon?—No, I cannot say that these are going to remedy it; you want something far more far-reaching than that. We have a greater supply of labour at the present time than we have work for.

97251. You think it is more than a question of re-adjustment?—I think it is obviously more than a question of readjustment.

97252. What would you suggest as the remedy?—National Take Scotland; we have great tracks of mossland which, in the course of our investigations we were advised could be made into crop-producing land, very much on the same lines as we are working at Murieston, taking what to-day is thrown away as useless, city refuse. If such work was done on a really large scale it is work that could be stopped for a few months and be taken up again, which is a great advantage. If you had some large scheme of that sort on hand where you could draft men whenever there was a period of depression in any particular trade, not waiting till the man has sold his furniture and got very low down, but when a man is in a state of unemployment, if he comes to you to-day you would say: You can at once go out to the farm, and you will at least have subsistence and will not need to part with your goods.

97253. That is assuming that unemployment will be a constantly recurring factor?—At the present time I do not think there can be any other assumption than that, at least to my mind.

97254. I am supposing that these various remedies that are suggested were put in force; you still feel that that would be a recurring feature in the industry of the country?—Yes, I say in my evidence also that I fancy that has got to be provided for.

97255. (*Mr. Bentham.*) I am not quite clear as to the division between your labour exchange and your distress committee, as to how far the names are kept separate?—They are kept separate, absolutely distinct. A man comes to us for relief work, and he is shown the schedule which is prescribed for any applicant for relief work, which contains a very large number of questions. The other man comes to another office altogether, what we call the municipal labour exchange, and says: I want to get work as an upholsterer or work as a joiner; then a few simple questions have to be replied to, such questions as would show his capacity for the work he desires, and probably his previous record with other employers, and a separate record of that man is kept altogether.

97256. Men are not selected from that register for employment relief?—No, they must register for employ-

*Mr.
Archibald
Campbell.*

17 Mar. 1908.

Effect of
labour
provided.

Surplus of
labour.

National
works.

Unemploy-
ment a
constantly
recurring
factor.

Labour
exchange
kept quite
distinct from
distress
committee's
register.

Mr.
Archibald
Campbell.

17 Mar. 1908.

Overlapping
of registers.

ment relief at the other place. In point of fact, we check the two registers and we know which men are on both. We do not tell the employers that. We have a private code which shows that a man has registered for relief work as well.

97257. How far do they overlap?—I could give you the actual figures of that, but I have not them here. We have just now, say, 600 or so on the municipal labour exchange, and of those probably 200 are also at our relief work department.

97258. And really may be doing relief work?—They may be doing relief work.

97259. Or they may be on the selected list for whom work is not found?—Yes.

97260. That is one-third of them?—Yes. These men are anxious to fill in time.

97261. It would be interesting to see at what trades these 200 men work. Could you put in particulars of that?—I should be very happy to.

97262. We want to see how far they belong to the particular trades that are connected with building?—You want the trades of the men on both registers?

97263. Yes?—I could furnish that quite readily. (See Appendix No. XVIII. (D)).

97264. (Mr. Lansbury.) As I understand it you wish a kind of universal labour exchange for the whole of the United Kingdom?—That is my ideal.

97265. You want that because then we should be able to tell whether there is a scarcity of labour in a given place, and so be able to transfer labour to that place?—That is exactly so.

97266. I understood you to say just now that so far as you could judge in Scotland there was not a place anywhere where you could find these men employment?—With the men attached to the building trade I know of no place. The whole of the country is affected in the same way as far as Scotland is concerned.

97267. Of course, while it is true that you have had this small dispute with the men, or with some of them, it is still true that the great bulk of them are really decent men who only want employment?—Yes.

97268. They only want the means of getting their living?—They are most decent men. We have been greatly impressed with that. We have men working at Murieston to-day with records of fourteen and eighteen years continuous employment at one job.

97269. The work that you are giving them is not at all as nice work, and the wages are not so good, as they would get under ordinary conditions?—Certainly not.

97270. So you have not given any inducement for men to rush at you for this work?—Far from it.

97271. It has all been the other way?—That is so.

97272. Do you think that the men are voluntarily staying in Edinburgh having knowledge that there is work for them elsewhere, and they will not go to it?—No, I am sure they are not; they are most willing to go. We have never had any difficulty in getting men to go out to work in other places where work was offered.

97273. When you have been able to offer the men work away from Edinburgh, the men have only been too willing and anxious to go and do it?—Most anxious. I have proof of it in men going out to lift potatoes, work which is not agreeable work, but they take it most willingly.

97274. You have had a good deal of experience with lads one way and the other. ?—Yes, I have.

97275. You said that continuation schools were not very much used?—Not so much used as one would wish to see them.

97276. Do you think that is because the boys have had enough discipline and sweating in their work and they feel they want some other kind of recreation?—I think it is just boy nature; he feels as soon as he has done with school he wants to be absolutely done with it and he thinks a continuation class is another way of remaining at school while he is at work.

97277. He feels he is still at school?—Yes, he has not made the great step from boyhood to manhood so long as he is associated with the school.

97278. Do you think it would be practicable to have a half-time school for boys from fourteen until seventeen or eighteen?—It would take a great deal of readjustment.

It would be a very advantageous arrangement if it could be carried out, but it would take a lot of adjustment of various trades.

97279. There was a lot of adjustment had to be made when the Factory Act came in, was there not?—Yes.

97280. This would not be so big a job as that?—No, I would certainly favour an attempt to arrange such a matter.

97281. There is only one other thing, and that is with regard to painters' wages, or anyone else's wages, I gather from your answer that the wages a painter earns are not sufficient to enable him to save up for himself during the time that he is not employed?—No, I do not think they are.

97282. They do not earn sufficient to maintain themselves during the period when they are not at work?—That I cannot say absolutely. There are a lot of men who are on a sort of permanent staff of firms and they are quite well off, but it is the large number of men who are taken on regularly every year by the same firms at their busy times, but are dismissed when the slack times come on. The average wage of these men I do not consider sufficient to enable the men to go through the winter on their own account.

97283. (Mr. Bentham.) You do not suggest that they should be provided with work winter by winter regularly?—No, I fancy you would have to readjust matters in some more general way than that, because those men for the next few months in Edinburgh certainly, and I suppose it will be the same here, will be getting very big wages and over-time work of all sorts. If in some way you could control the work so that men were not getting over-time at one time of the year and doing nothing at all at another time, it would be an advantage.

97284. The provision of work for these men during the winter is no remedy for that?—That is quite the case; we are only dealing with palliatives.

97285. (Mr. Phelps.) It makes the matter worse?—Yes, it is tiding them over until you can find a solution, that is all I mean.

97286. (Mr. Lansbury.) Although it might make the conditions worse, there is often a worse thing than that and that is to allow the physical and moral deterioration of these men and their wives and families by leaving the problem alone?—I agree with you.

97287. (Chairman.) You seem to think that unemployment is likely to continue chronic; should you say the conditions with regard to unemployment were worse in Edinburgh now than they were a few years ago?—I think so.

97288. How do you account for that?—As I have explained, we are in a somewhat exceptional position; for many years our building trade in Edinburgh became gradually more and more active, but for years past it has been in a state of stagnation, and any number of men are out of employment who are associated with such trades. Then again (I am dealing entirely with the place I know most of) we have that Scottish Vulcanite Works closed where they employed 500 men, so that makes 500 more.

97289. In the building trade are they the skilled or the unskilled men?—Both skilled and unskilled. Of building course, there is the trade of hewers practically wiped out of existence by the machines for dressing the stones. Those men are practically unskilled labourers now.

97290. Has the population of Edinburgh increased very much of recent years?—It has materially increased; it is not a manufacturing town, and does not increase at the same rate as others.

97291. Is there much immigration?—At the time of the boom in the building trade there was great immigration to Edinburgh.

97292. And the people have remained there?—Yes.

97293. Should you say that the majority of the people who were on relief work are persons who, in ordinary conditions, are in permanent employ?—I give a certain percentage of these things. I think there are a great number of people in Edinburgh who belong to season trades, and are very busy at one time and not busy at another. Those people come on to starvation when it comes to slackness; they do not seem able, either by the wages earned or natural capacity, to put enough on one side to keep them.

Linked
labour
exchanges.

Depression
of Scotch
building
trade.

Character of
applicants.

Character of
work and
rate of
wages, not
inducements.

Continuation
schools.

Half-time
school.

Average
yearly wage
of persons
insufficient.

Provision of
relief work
for the
engaged in
seasonal
trades only a
palliative.

Depressed
condition of
employment
in
Edinburgh.

Depression in
the building
trade and
stone
hewing.

Increase in
population.

Proportion of
classes
relieved.

97294. They are not able to dovetail employments to occupy them the whole year?—No.

97295. Do they go down to Leith and try to get work there?—Yes, but the docks are doing very little now; the men are tramping down there day after day, and are not able to earn half-a-crown as they used to be.

97296. How does Edinburgh compare with Leith with regard to the poor parts. I suppose the poor parts of the combined burghs are much the same?—Leith is very much not combined with Edinburgh; in a way it is alongside of Edinburgh, but it is very strongly of opinion that it is an independent burgh.

97297. For all practical purposes you cannot tell

Mrs. OGILVIE GORDON, called; and Examined.

97300. (Chairman.) You are D.Sc. (London), Ph.D (Munich), Fellow of the Linnean Society of London, Honorary Corresponding Secretary of the International Council of Women, Vice-President of the National Union of Women Workers, and hold many other offices?—That is so.

97301. You have prepared a statement as to a proposal to establish educational information and employment bureaux under the local education authorities which, if you will kindly hand it in, we will treat as your Evidence-in-chief?—Certainly.

(The Witness handed in the following Statement.)

1. In any general survey of the trades and industries in our country, it is customary to think of them in two main groups—skilled and unskilled. Yet within the last forty years machine work has so extensively entered into the skilled trades, that the old dividing lines have become much less sharply defined, and new work values have established themselves between the unskilled worker drawing the recognised wage for unskilled work in a particular trade, and the highly expert worker earning the recognised wage for skilled work in the same trade.

2. The trades unions, by means of strict upholding of a minimum wage for fully trained workmen, have counteracted the tendency that might have ensued of loose definition of wages. But the trades unions have not been able to withstand the greatly increased use that can now be made of semi-skilled or half-trained workmen, of active, deft-handed women, and young lads in the first glow of youth and strength. These classes of workpeople suffer many disadvantages attendant upon new and insufficiently regulated conditions of labour notwithstanding which their numbers continue to increase in all large industrial cities, and unemployment is a common evil. Conversely, there has been a diminution in the number of skilled workpeople, although, owing to the smaller demand for expert handwork, it is only locally and in certain trades that this diminution makes itself felt as an actual dearth of skilled workers.

3. The decrease of the skilled worker, if allowed to continue unrestrainedly and without counterbalancing influences, would inevitably result in a loss to the good citizenship of our nation. The beneficial effect of systematic, continuous training in any direction is well known. The habits of careful work, and necessity for mental activity called forth in the training of a first-class workman, have been as important in determining our standard of national character as other specialised courses of training in our public schools, our universities, our service colleges. In virtue of the industrial supremacy of Great Britain, we have in the past been able to afford the benefits of careful workshop training to a far larger proportion of the working-classes than other European countries. Private employers in many trades and industries could not have won success unless their apprentices and learners had received an almost individual training in the workshops. The advantage to the employers coincided with the advantage to the nation, and it built up generation after generation of self-respecting, well-informed workpeople from whom our middle classes have been largely recruited.

4. The rush and competition with other countries is now much keener, and one outstanding result of machine production is that the majority of our young workers in industrial centres are brought up under the

when you are in Edinburgh and when you are in Leith?—That is so.

97298. That being so, the poorer the people are the more they migrate to the poorer parts of the town. Do the poor of Edinburgh migrate to Leith so that Leith, you would say, was a poorer place than Edinburgh; is it the receptacle of the poor of Edinburgh at all?—No, we could not do anything with them if they did so; we can only deal with those residing twelve months in Edinburgh. Leith has its own Distress Committee. On the whole Leith is a poorer place than Edinburgh.

97299. You believe that the conditions with which Chronic you are dealing in Edinburgh are not abnormal but are Depression in likely to continue?—Certainly, one has no reason to employment, see the end of them at the present moment.

cramping and often disheartening influences of factory work, and only a limited number have the benefit of a journeyman's training. The personal bond between master and apprentice is becoming a thing of the past. It still lingers in the country and smaller towns, and the class of apprentice that is trained there differs in many respects from his city-bred colleague. Elaborate machinery cannot be afforded in the smaller workshops, and the lads have to learn to put their hand to all parts of the work and in this way acquire a fairly general dexterity. Again, the evenings are almost perforce spent in the open air, and the lad's physique has a good chance of full development.

5. In cities, where the output is at high pressure, the Effect of employer who cannot afford efficient machinery falls machinery on behind in the race. In all trades where machinery is extensively used, apprentices become a minority, and therefore a minor consideration. Thus arises the prevalent complaint of the trades unions, that the employers make use of their apprentices as they would use their "boy labourers," keeping them at specialised forms of work and in no sense providing for them a general training at their trade.

6. To take saw-milling work as an example, the Narrow best of the boy labourers in a workshop are selected training due to be trained—nominally as apprentices—at some of to machinery. the closely specialised machines, and become "machinemen," who can earn good wages when trade is brisk, but are particularly liable to unemployment in slack times, as they have neither the training nor the dexterity of the typical journeymen of twenty or thirty years ago. In joinery, cabinet-making, plumbing, the same tendency holds; in many workshops the apprentices do not see all the details of their work, but only assist in putting parts together that have been prepared by machinery there or elsewhere. The number of really first-class journeymen correspondingly decreases, and there is a growing conviction that the long periods of training do not always carry sufficient advantage to the apprentices.

7. The more limited opportunities now afforded in Apprenticeship the towns may account for some of the cases of in-ship of efficient journeymen to be found among the unem-unsuitable employed. But there is also this other factor—that lads. many lads who apprentice themselves are thoroughly unsuitable for the work. Some may be poor scholars and unprepared for apprenticeship in the matter of general education; others may only discover after beginning that they have no special aptitude for the particular trade they happen to have selected and may render forced and unsatisfactory service all the time. They may shift along under an employer so long as they are on apprentice wages, but no employer would retain an unsatisfactory apprentice as a full-paid journeyman. Hence there is always a downdropping of incapable young journeymen, calling themselves skilled workmen, and yet unlikely to get work except in times of busy trade. Such youths have not even the ready wit of the "casual worker or boy labourer," who has always had to fight his own battle and prove himself worthy of his wage. Consequently the same employer who discards the less fit apprentices at the end of their time may elevate the smarter "boy labourers" to be "handy-men" or "machine-men" with a full weekly wage, not very much below the wage of the skilled worker.

8. Such are the fortunes of working lads; as a rule, Effect of the beginning makes all the difference, and, above all, home life on what counts most in securing success is the kind of future of boy. home from which the young worker comes. Is he

Mr.
Archibald
Campbell.

17 Mar. 1908.

Mrs. Ogilvie
Gordon.

17 Mar. 1908.

Mrs. Ogilvie Gordon.
17 Mar. 1908. well cared for, housed and fed, is he punctual, has he natural enjoyments and recreations? If so, the chances are that whatever good is in him will develop, and the lad will find his own values in life whether he starts as an apprentice or a boy labourer.

Increasing laxity in treatment of apprenticeship agreements.
9. An important feature of present conditions is increasing laxity in the treatment of apprenticeship agreements. The indenture bond between employer and apprentice is retained in comparatively few trades: pottery and some departments of the glass trade have a signed indenture. In some of the building trades and in plumbing, indentures are drawn up by certain employers after a few months' trial of an apprentice. In engineering, shipbuilding, and the metal and wood-work trades generally, the apprentice that does not serve out his time gets no "lines" from his employer, and stands little chance of becoming a recognised journeyman. In most trades an oral agreement is made for the length of the period and the conditions of apprenticeship, but it is too often the case in the large industrial cities that apprentices tire of serving their time, and are tempted by the higher wages in some factory to enter there as boy labourers; or they hear of another shop in the same line as their employer's, but where the weekly wage is sixpence or a shilling more, and they only wait their chance of an opening. These are the difficulties the employer has to contend with, and they naturally tend to diminish his personal interest in apprentices.

Decline of apprenticeship.
10. Each locality has its own combination of conditions and circumstances, but from one cause or another it is undoubtedly the case that a large and increasing proportion of boys never pass through that period of apprenticeship discipline which has been in the past of the utmost value to the physical and moral welfare of the artisan classes. And it is imperative in the interest of our race and country that measures be adopted to replace, so far as possible, the salutary effects of a system that is weakening and changing with the times.

Effect of factory work on after life of girls.
11. Again, the girl who at fourteen enters factory work, or undertakes unskilled or skilled work of any kind, and gives no further thought to home and domestic duties, becomes a positive menace to the community. For, no matter how steady and capable a workman may be, if the woman he marries cannot buy economically, cook, sew, and keep a house and the children clean, his wages will not provide the necessary comfort and sustenance. One hears of a workman earning from 30s. to £2 a week, yet, after being two weeks out of work, his household is in beggary. If thrift be not inborn and bred, it must be taught and insisted upon in the girls and young women, and, even then, a woman's thrift will only be of use if a fair proportion of the man's wages be allowed for the house-keeping, and the savings or insurance fund.

Constructive measures necessary in regard to care of infants and children, and guidance of boys and girls.
12. The prolonged depression of recent years in certain trades has shown conclusively that there are widespread weaknesses of use and wont among the industrial classes, which remain untouched by our existing Poor Laws and voluntary agencies. Constructive measures on a broad basis are called for, first, in regard to the care of infants and children; second—and, as I think, no less urgently—in the guidance of our boys and girls during the early stages of their industrial career. Only when our country shall have devised a connected series of measures, and set them working in such perfection that no link overlaps the other more than is necessary to give strength to the chain, will a truly statesmanlike system be attained—constructive, preventive, and remedial in effect.

13. Just as the first few years of childhood are the most critical years for the physical well-being of the individual, the first few years after leaving school are the most critical for the moral and mental well-being of our working population. If these years can be spent industriously and to good purpose, the parents and the public may have confidence in the future of the boy or girl.

Removal below school age.
14. The beginnings of work for the factory hand and boy labourer are even more haphazard than those for the apprentice. It has to be remembered that it is open to the local Education Authorities to grant a parent the right of removing a child from school at an earlier age than fourteen under special circumstances, such as delicate health of the child, attested by a medical certificate, or extreme poverty of the parents, and the need of the child's help at home.

15. In some of the industrial towns with a large number of factories, parents are apt to take undue advantage of this privilege. They apply to the Local Education Authority on all sorts of pretexts to get their children free from school at twelve or thirteen years of age, and immediately send the children to work at the factories and earn a wage. Even when the children only leave school at fourteen years of age, the parents, in selecting work for them, too often think mainly of where the highest wage can be obtained. As a rule boys and girls of fourteen years of age can earn 6s. a week at once on entering factory work, and in a few months or a year, if they are paid by the amount of work done, they may earn 8s. or 9s. a week. The disadvantage, however, is that as they grow older they rank as *unskilled workers*, and their wages will as full-grown men and women always remain lower than the wages of the *skilled workers*, and their prospects extremely narrow.

16. A quite ordinary rate of wages given to young apprentices in Great Britain is about 4s. a week for the first year, and a rise of 1s. a week each year, or a rise of 2s. a week in the later years. This compares unfavourably with the early payments in unskilled work, and the parents who are very poor and in need of money cannot afford to let their family go to trades where there is a long period of training. At the same time there are many parents who might quite well manage it by a little economy, but either do not think very seriously about it or are influenced by the thought that they can only get the good of the boy's or girl's wages for a year or two while they live under the parents' roof, and, therefore, the more that can be made at once by the children the better. Thus many a capable lad may be prevented from becoming a skilled workman, and from making in after-life the larger wages of the skilled trades.

17. There are, again, cases where the parents have hardly any controlling hand in the matter. The lads or girls themselves wish to earn high wages, and purposely select any highly-paid temporary work, especially some with a little excitement, such as newspaper-selling or van-driving, or they go to some factory where their companions happen to be employed. If they do not give much thought to the future, or attention to the work in hand, their places can readily be filled in the factory, and they may drift through carelessness into the ranks of the idle and inefficient. At first they may simply have secured temporary work; then they take to looking round for other work, and loafing about the streets. It is only the exceptional boy that would devote time out of work to school classes and think of "bettering" himself. As a rule boy labourers prefer to continue at unskilled work, because they may be engaged for a few weeks or months at a busy time, and be given high wages, and afterwards they rather enjoy the idleness of a slack time. So long as they are young and strong, youths are always fairly sure of finding some work to do, even if they are unskilled, because the wage of the "boy labourer" is small compared to the man's wages, and employers are glad of the extra hands. The habit of the boy labourer is to move from one workshop to another, according to the busy time in each. But the difficulties for such casual workers begin when they become men, as by that time their spells of idleness have taken effect upon them, and they rarely become the steady workmen that employers can depend on as labourers, and care to engage as regular workmen.

18. Irregular habits either among the unskilled or skilled, the boys or men, are a very serious consideration in all trades where work is done in squads, such as the foundries and engineering workshops, the ship-building yards, pottery, glass, and bottle-making industries. They are the cause of much of the present incompetency and unemployment, and are altogether destructive to the best interests of our working classes.

19. The evil is one that by its very nature spreads in all directions, and if we would strike at its roots, we must take precautionary measures to guard our wage-earning boys and girls, so far as possible, against it, when they leave the elementary public schools. It would undoubtedly be a means of assistance to our working classes and an economic boon to the country if we could devise some system whereby the actively

Factor wage of boys and girls, and effect on employment.

Wage of apprentices compared with that of unskilled boy labour.

Parent influence.

Absence of parent influence.

Attractions and dangers of unskilled boy labour.

Incompetence and unemployment largely results of irregular habits.

developing energies of boyhood and girlhood could be directed into channels of work likely to be congenial to the worker and to lead to some permanent means of livelihood.

20. At present no civic or other local authority regards it as one of its functions to keep itself cognisant of industrial conditions in the locality and to be prepared to place its knowledge at the disposition of parents anxious to advise their children for the best. The scheme which I have the privilege of laying before the Royal Commission is designed for the express purpose of supplying this deficiency in a manner likely to throw the least possible cost upon the public. It proposes no new organisation, but simply that in England the Education Committee of a Local Authority, and in Scotland the School Board, with the support of the Town and County Councils in each district, should make any necessary additions to the office staff, and conduct an Educational Information and Employment Bureau for the use of out-going scholars and young workers.

21. The work to be undertaken in the bureau would be that of supplying the scholars and their parents or guardians with information about the occupations open to young workers, the prospects in each case, and the likelihood of an opening being available at once, or when the worker reached the necessary age. If the occupation that seemed most suitable happened to be one which could not be entered upon for some little time, then advice could be given on the basis of the school record of the boy or girl as to the further classwork that ought to be carried on in the interval, and the wage-earning work that might be taken up temporarily.

22. The ideal is that every boy and every girl should be given the chance of making a good start in life, and that they should have the opportunity of talking over their possible future with some experienced mind well able to give expert advice and to judge how far a little help might be beneficial, either in the form of maintenance allowances or personal supervision. Neither the parent nor the teacher can have the accurate knowledge and broad outlook that can be acquired by an expert placed in charge of such a Bureau.

23. The two essential points in my scheme are (1) that it proposes to deal with each child individually, and (2) to make use of the school organisation as the most appropriate means of arriving at the individual children. When the children leave school they are scattered here and there, and only a small fraction of the thousands that leave school annually in any large city can be brought under the notice of voluntary organisations.

24. But there are other considerations that make me select the schools as the best basis upon which a broad scheme might be founded. The teachers know the actual standard of education arrived at by each child, and are often better qualified even than the parents to form an opinion of any particular bent or aptitude and the kind of employment that would be likely to prove suitable. Again, we must look to the Local Authorities in charge of school administration to provide some further discipline of mind and body that shall reach our young factory-workers after they leave the elementary schools, and which shall to some extent make up for the want of mental interest and stimulation in automatic forms of labour. Healthful methods of physical recreation are often as necessary to these growing lads and girls as further mental training and a certain provision in this direction comes within the sphere of the Local Authority.

25. Upon the Local Authorities also falls the responsibility of organising the technical and commercial teaching, whether in the technical colleges, higher-grade schools or trade schools, or continuation classes, and all such teaching has to be carefully adapted to the demands of each district. In view of the decline of apprenticeship the possibility of our country retaining a high position in skilled workmanship rests mainly upon the value of these classes, their entire relevancy to the needs of the various groups

of young workers whose attendance they invite, and their inspiring influence in awakening young interests and enthusiasms and imbuing work with vitality and elasticity.

26. Above all, it depends upon the local authorities to secure the co-operation of the employers in their districts, a condition absolutely essential to success, and to consider with them the best distribution of time between the workshops and the classes for learners in the various local industries.

27. In order to carry out successfully the educational part of its duties, a Local Authority inevitably finds itself under the necessity of collecting information regarding the occupations and employments open to young people in the district, the demand for young workers, the higher grades of work for which technical teaching ought to be provided, the methods of the workshops, and the best way in which the classwork might supplement them. Very little additional expenditure would be required to add some further details, such as the wages and prospects in the various employments, and to arrange that the information possessed should be made practically useful to every parent and applied to the case of each individual out-going scholar.

28. The information to be supplied by the bureau would require to be tabulated and arranged in an orderly way. For example, the local trades and industries might be grouped under:—

- (a) Skilled trades and occupations in which an apprenticeship of several years has to be served; the scale of wages during the apprenticeship, also the full wage to be obtained after apprenticeship.
- (b) Less skilled traders and occupations or factory work, where the beginner does not serve an apprenticeship but learns the work in a comparatively short time; the wages to be noted as given to beginners, and the average wage earned by expert workers.
- (c) Unskilled labour connected with almost all trades and industries; to be specially noted here is the demand for boy labour and the probability or insecurity of continuous employment.
- (d) Casual labour and local occupations of quite temporary character for young boys and girls, ceasing at definite ages; such as the delivery of parcels, selling newspapers, etc.

29. In addition to the orderly arrangement of various occupations open to out-going scholars, there would be definite recommendations as to any educational work that might be continued during the period of the boy's or girl's training in the workshops; and also a full statement of any maintenance funds or bursaries that are open for competition or application, and the conditions attached.

30. Where any boys or girls seem so situated that a little extra care and supervision might be desirable, the official in charge of the bureau would recommend their cases for special attention to committees of voluntary workers, either those already existing, or any that might come to be organised in connection with the bureau.

31. It is hoped that the social and philanthropic work so willingly rendered by many associations and committees, would thus be made more effective, as through the local school bureau they would be supplied with the particulars of the actual educational attainments of the cases referred to them, and the direction would be suggested in which suitable work might be found.

32. On the other hand, by far the larger proportion of out-going school children ought not to be necessitous, and for these the expert guidance and advice obtained at the bureau should amply suffice. There is scarcely any boy or girl, or any well-meaning parent, that would not be glad to feel they might have the benefit of an interview with an official, appointed by the educational authority for the purpose of gathering all information that might be useful to the scholars, and keeping himself in touch with the best interests of the young people after they have left school.

Mrs. Ogilvie Gordon.

17 Mar. 1908.

Co-operation of employers.

Collection of information.

Arrangement of information in available form.

Recommendations as to continuation work.

Information as to maintenance funds.

Co-operation with social and philanthropic effort.

Advantage of skilled advice to young people.

Mrs. Ogilvie Gordon.

1, Mar. 1908.

Advantage to employers.

Value of information collected for public purposes.

Constitution of Committee of management.

Local variation of problems to be met.

Small working expenses of the scheme.

Inquiry into present prospects of young workers in four chief Scottish cities.

33. The employers in the neighbourhood who offered suitable work and terms, would soon find it an advantage to be able to apply to the bureau find it an advantage to be able to apply to the bureau for their young workers, and the very fact of their doing so would encourage a frequent interchange of views between the employers and bureau officials, and draw out helpful suggestions as to methods and modifications of classwork likely to be advantageous to the children afterwards. It is always a difficulty to keep the teaching of the schools thoroughly practical in character, and the bureau would serve to bring the teaching of the schools and the requirements of the workshops into closer and kindlier relations with one another.

34. While the Bureau is intended primarily as a means of helping the young workers, the information collected for its own purposes would be valuable reference material to all public bodies on occasion, and as the Bureau came to be more and more used, it would serve as a distributing centre of more enlightened views about our industries. One great advantage of connecting the proposed system of Bureaux with an elected administrative authority is that the interests of all sections of the community would meet there on a common neutral ground. Matters concerning the interests of the employers and the employed, the hours of workshop employment, the hours of school work, the facilities for recreation, would there be considered from the point of view of the public and national advantage, and would draw public attention in one place and another to the good of the boys and girls, that is, the good of the future citizens.

35. In order to make sure that all the different sections of the public should become familiar with the working of the Bureau, and there should be no tendency to a narrow sphere of action, it is suggested that in forming the Committee of Management of the Bureau, the Local Authority should invite representatives from other leading bodies in the same locality, such as the Chamber of Commerce, the Trades Council, and any social and philanthropic associations. It is also particularly desirable that some of the leading employers be asked to join. The large Committee, including the representative members, might be called together at stated times, say, once a quarter, while a small Sub-Committee might be entrusted with the ordinary conduct of business during the intervals.

36. The precise problems that would have to be met by the Bureau Committee would be a little different in each locality, depending essentially upon the habits of the place, the chief pursuits, and the local conditions of labour and industry.

37. The working expenses of the Bureau need not be very great, as in most places a Local Education Authority could spare a room to serve as an office to begin with, and the authority might have among its present teachers or officials some one who might be selected as suitable to take charge of the Bureau. The Director of the Bureau ought to be familiar with the ordinary work of the schools, and to have good organising power. It may be helpful to append a brief draft or outline of the general plan of the work to be done in a Bureau, and the duties that would probably devolve upon the Director. (*See Appendix No. XIX.*)

38. The above scheme has been submitted by me to a number of representative bodies. It may be worth mentioning that at an annual meeting of the Educational Institute of Scotland the teachers gave the most cordial support to the proposal. Thinking I might encourage a beginning to be made in Scotland, I organised an inquiry into the present prospects for young workers in the trades and industries followed in the four chief Scottish cities. The result of this inquiry has just been published in book form, under the title of "A Handbook of Employment," and I take the liberty of referring the members of the Commission to that printed work for a fuller statement regarding various causes of unemployment. They are there treated under the separate headings of the trades and industries. A tabulated list is also given of the most common occupations, skilled and unskilled, the ages at which the boys and girls enter upon them, and the wages given during

and after the period of learning. The treatment of the subject in the Handbook will show the kind of information which, according to my scheme, might readily be made available to young workers in all localities, and it is essential for success that the personal element should be added in the working of the Bureaux.

39. The beneficial results which might be hoped for under the influence of the Bureaux may be briefly summarised as follows:—

A.—AMONG THE YOUNG WORKERS.

1. Encouragement of capable lads to take apprenticeship training; closer co-operation of the school and workshops with a view to providing the best possible training; and the resultant greater efficiency of skilled workers. It ought to be added that any danger of overstocking the trades with apprentices would be less under the Bureaux system than now because the experts in charge of the Bureaux would be quite familiar with the conditions and the supporting power in each trade.

2. Check of any ill-considered rush for a high wage, and steady application of an active, thinking force, impressing upon outgoing scholars the unsatisfactory results to themselves of irregular employment, and encouraging them to discover their own powers and aptitudes and apply them.

3. Reduction in the number of casual workers and incompetent, irresponsible workpeople.

4. Spread of more enlightened views as to the use that might be made of the hours out of work for improving and developing both the mental capacity and the general physique.

5. Recognition of the fact that the Local Authority places the best guidance it can command at the disposal of the young population, takes thought for each one individually, and relies upon each one to put forth in return his or her best efforts to attain a good place in life and grow up a worthy citizen.

B.—AMONG PARENTS AND EMPLOYERS.

Both for parents and employers it may be assumed that all those who earnestly wish the ultimate good of the children will welcome the support and assistance to be derived from the Bureaux, and the stimulus of a more intelligent public opinion will add to this number as time goes on.

C.—FOR THE LOCAL AUTHORITIES.

The powers vested in the Local Authorities are not only those that affect the industrial and commercial interests of a city or district, but also those that affect the moral and physical well-being of citizens. From all aspects the Bureaux ought to prove helpful.

40. The saving of life is always a first necessity, and every large city has already provided itself with elaborate precautionary measures for the prevention of such diseases as can be communicated by bad water, drainage, personal infection, etc. The upkeep of a high standard of health is a pride to a city. It still remains for Local Authorities to treat preventable moral weaknesses and ailments with the same thoroughgoing system. The habit of irregular work and shiftless living is one that could be avoided in a large percentage of cases, and the Bureaux recommend themselves as a comparatively simple precautionary measure. At the same time, they would greatly strengthen and develop the efforts towards adequate education for all classes.

97302. (*Chairman.*) You have had a very considerable experience and have given a great deal of your time to the particular question of boy labour, I understand?—I have not taken the question of boy labour by itself, but it has had to be looked at by me in connection with my general enquiry into the probable openings for both boys and girls when they leave school.

97303. What have you found out in that investigation in connection with boy labour?—That the amount of boy labour that is now being taken by employers in large industrial centres, such as Glasgow and Dundee, in Scotland, is undoubtedly detrimental to the best interests of the boys when they grow up.

Beneficial results of the bureaux among young workers.

Among parent and employers.

For local authorities.

Advantage of bureaux in prevention of irregular work and shiftless habits.

Detrimental effect of boy labour.

97304. Your statement is very interesting, and I do not propose to ask you questions on those parts of it which tally with and are corroborated by those of previous witnesses, but I should like to put some questions where you supply fresh material. Should you say that the tendency of boys to drift into this class of unprofitable occupation directly on leaving school is on the increase?—It has been very much on the increase in recent years. It has been on the increase since trade has been so much interfered with in its trend, specially by the introduction of machinery. In so far as machinery has been introduced not only into the so-called unskilled trades but into the skilled trades, that necessarily means that a greater number of untrained boys and men can be occupied, and often girls and women.

97305. The evils as regards girls getting employment which is not reproductive afterwards do not last so long and are not so far-reaching?—I think the chief detriment to the girls is that if they at once, on leaving school at fourteen, enter some factory or some work of an ordinary automatic description, they lose all hold of the home, because they become wage-earners. They have a certain amount of money to spend on their own personal desires, and they lose touch with the needs of the mother; they are not at home except in the evenings, and then, of course they are more outside than inside, as there is more room outside than inside as a rule. It tends to make girls thriftless and extravagant in their own small way, and perfectly incapable of being good wives and mothers afterwards, so that I think its effect on girls has been very serious, quite as serious as on boys, and even more serious for the country, because the fewer good mothers you have the fewer good children you have.

97306. So that the tendency of young people to drift into this class of work has had, in your judgment, as prejudicial effects in connection with girls as it has had with boys?—I should say quite as prejudicial. I regard it personally as one of the most serious considerations of the moment for women that so many are allowed to go into factory life without any provision being made that at the same time their general culture, their moral tone, their physical condition, and also such little education as they have got, should be maintained.

97307. I suppose that this class of occupation is, in certain senses rather attractive to the girls?—It is attractive because the girls have the money in their own pockets. They may give so much of it to the parents, as a rule they do do that, but the desire in the girl by and by is to go out from the home; and to a certain extent that desire is encouraged by the attempts of these Industrial Homes for girls. I think the efforts in that direction have to be extremely carefully guarded.

97308. There is a social attraction in these factories in the way they meet their friends?—The social attraction to girls is that it is more interesting to them to do the same work as other girls do, and in the evening they can go about with them here and there, than it is to stay at home and help the mother; but I know as a fact it makes them extremely rough, almost inhuman, one might say at times.

97309. The work the girls do undertake of this detrimental character would be almost entirely connected with cheap factories?—Cheap factories and the cheap tailoring factories as well, not only the mills and factories, but the tailoring works: low paid factories are really the chief outlets for girls. Of course you have in Lancashire much higher payment in the mills and factories than we give in Scotland, and I have no doubt the class of woman is a little better in consequence, but our mill hands are very poorly paid in some parts of the country.

97310. You are thinking more of mills and factories where there are little prospects of advancement for the girl when she becomes an adult?—Really about a 10s. wage is all they can hope for in a great number of the towns.

97311. As regards boys, I think you state in your Paper that one of the attractions of the unskilled labour is that the boys gets a higher rate of payment than he would do if he tried to apprentice himself to a skilled trade?—That is the case.

97312. The parent in your judgment exercises very little controlling hand over the child?—I think the parent does exercise a control over a certain proportion, but there is quite an equal proportion where the parent is not much considered: where his own self-will, and the habits of others, determine the boy's action.

97313. You would contend that the parent has not the sources of information, or the facilities for acquiring information which are requisite in order to guide a child in regard to its occupation?—I do not think the parent takes much trouble in this way, because he has never seen it is possible to get it. The mere fact that there was actually existing a place where the parents could get information would act as a stimulus even to unheeding parents: it would spread the habit of thinking about it at least.

97314. Admitting the evil, one of your suggested remedies would be to establish a bureau in connection with our educational system which would give information to parents as regards the occupations for their children?—Yes, I think that that would help very largely: it would, as I say, create something which does not yet exist. There is an actual gap, as you can understand, between a boy leaving school at fourteen and a great number of trades that he might enter a year or two later. At present there are no means being taken to guide the boy as to what he should do in the interval. The parents themselves think nothing further than that he should do what they did, or someone else's boy has done, and so the matter goes on, it floats, as it were.

97315. Then you would suggest that there should be this bureau established of which you give a description later on, which would work in connection with the school and afford facilities to the parents to get information. Would you look at Paragraph 23 of your Statement and a little explain it. You say:—"The two essential points in my scheme are: (1) That it proposes to deal with each child individually; and (2) to make use of the school organisation as the most appropriate means of arriving at the individual children." Take the first point, the system would only enable the parent to get information concerning each child individually: that was the idea?—Yes.

97316. You would not propose, would you, that the teacher, or somebody in each school should look after the children individually with the view of advising her or him as regards their future occupation?—No; my idea was that the head-master of a school should be supplied with a perfectly simple printed form, fill in that form, and state exactly the stage of education that the child had reached before leaving school. As you know, some children although they reach fourteen years of age are really not much further than what we should call the Third Standard, they may be only at the stage of the ordinary average child of eleven; so that each child on leaving school by no means reaches the same standard. Of late years a qualifying examination has been instituted and only from 35 to 55 per cent. pass that examination which allows the children, if they wish, to go into the supplementary classes. The examination is of the simple type which one would expect that any child who has been through a school career up to fourteen would be able to pass. Yet it seems that half the number of children pass out without reaching the desirable standard that has been set. Obviously, the educational standard must largely measure what the child is able to do afterwards; so if the head teacher were to put on the printed form the standard attained by the child, and also the punctuality and regularity or irregularity of its attendance, that might be passed on to the bureau, and the bureau has in that case a perfectly recognisable individual statement for each scholar passing out; a duplicate of that might be given to the child himself, and could be shown by the child to any employer to whom application was made.

97317. That is the way you would deal with the child in future?—Yes; the director of the bureau would deal with the individual child.

97318. Under the present system there is nothing of that kind, is there?—Nothing at all.

Mrs. Ogilvie Gordon.

17 Mar. 1908.

Parental control.

Bureaux would fill the gap between school age and age for skilled employment.

Two essential points of the scheme.

Information as to state of education of children to be supplied to bureaux by headmasters.

Director of bureau to deal with individual child.

Mrs. Ogilvie Gordon.

17 Mar. 1908.

97319. Then the second point, the full use of the school organisation, is the most appropriate means of arriving at the individual children. That is covered by what you have just said?—Yes; it really means that if this statement is sent on to the director from a month to three months before the child leaves school, that statement can be filed just as much as at the War Office they file everything with regard to their officials, and their army officers. It would mean that in the bureau a regular file was kept for the individual pupils that leave school, so that the files could be referred to for the next two or three years when the lads and girls came back to get the advice of the director at the bureau; that would be dealing individually with the outgoing scholars.

Extension of school age.

97320. You suggest co-operation between the employers, and a sort of continuation school as regards those whom they employ. Would you propose at all to raise the school age?—Not the elementary school age. I think the age of fourteen is quite a good age; as it is in Scotland we have no difficulty, since those who at twelve, thirteen, or fourteen pass the qualifying examination to which I referred may continue at school until they are fifteen. There is a higher Merit certificate then granted to all out-going scholars who arrive at the stage which the department thinks they might arrive at when they reach fifteen; so that in Scotland we have a means of continuing the more capable children until they are fifteen; but our age at which all children may leave school is fourteen, and it seems to me perfectly good. I do not think that it is necessary to alter that.

Half-time principle.

97321. Would the co-operation that you want to secure result in establishing a number of half-time children?—No, I have not that in view; I doubt if the half-time principle as it stands would be successful. I think the matter of co-operation would really operate in a great variety of ways; one point is that at present the comparatively small percentage of boys and girls who continue to attend the evening classes after they leave school, and who, therefore, ought to be more capable, are in no way differentiated by the employers from those who do not. There is no encouragement given by the employers as a rule, not at least in the matter of pounds, shillings and pence, to the boys who do take the training that is at present being provided for them. A few masters talk a good deal about it in public, and do speak as if they were giving little prizes and paying fees, and so on; but it may be taken that these are quite exceptional. They certainly do not, as I think they might, extend the payment a little more to the apprentice who takes all the possible means he can of improving his standard. That is simply one point in which employers might by-and-bye help rather more. Again, I do not know that it would be impossible for employers in an industrial area, where there is so much temptation for boys to go at once into the field of unskilled or casual labour, to raise the earlier wages of their apprentices, so that they should not have quite the unfavourable comparison that they have at present. But far more important than these points which affect the employers directly are the points which would come up in connection with the possibilities and facilities to the child for continuing his education. It is perfectly necessary, if a child is not to go down the scale, that he should maintain at least the amount of education that he has received while he attended school. If he has even to maintain it, without developing or extending it, it means that he would have to attend continuation schools twice or thrice a week, and that the possibility must be given him of attending these regularly. At present employers, if they require a little overtime, keep their boys and girls, and think little about it; if they ask them to stay on, the fact that it is a class night does not make much difference; and I think in that way a good deal might be done by the co-operation of the employer with the education authority.

Necessity for continuation school.

Half time.

97322. It has been represented to us that the boys and girls are tired after a day's work; and unless you have some system of half-time the continuation schools are not very effective?—Half-time is a very sweeping term. Does half-time mean that for all trades and industries you would introduce a morning at the work and an afternoon at the school?

97323. I have used it, perhaps, in too wide a sense. I will put it in this way: some limitation on the hours so as to prevent the children being tired?—Some limitation in hours is certainly necessary, but half-time is not; it is very big and very sweeping, and I doubt if it would be in the least successful, because I think it would be so disorganising to the trade and industry, and to the boys themselves, as to entirely militate against the possibility of the good it might do. It cannot be good for a boy to jump about every day from his work to the school.

97324. You are against the system of half-time?—I am against a system that would mean that every boy of fourteen, no matter what trade he begins, would be called upon to leave it every afternoon to go to school.

97325. Assuming you had your bureau, it would give information on various points connected with the skilled and the unskilled labour market?—It would do more, it would also, it is to be hoped, bring the employers into the circle of thought in connection with education, and encourage suggestions to be made for allowing young workers some proportion of school attendance which would not in any way damage the trade, but be a distinct advantage by making it possible for them to continue a certain amount of education.

97326. I suppose you would associate this with various proposals, or means by which the parent would be brought in contact more with the teacher with regard to the child's future occupation?—The parent is not supposed in this scheme to go to the head-teachers of schools, because that would make a very great addition to the work of the head-teachers. He is only supposed to go to the director of the bureau who is placed there for the purpose, and paid for it.

97327. It has been suggested to us in various quarters that a labour bureau might be established in all the big centres of population, which would give information, and keep a record of the amount of unemployment in the locality. Your proposal is really an education bureau for children; that, however, could be easily tacked on, and assuming the other was formed, might be made a necessary part of the general labour bureau?—My proposal is not one for education only, it is explicitly educational information and employment; it does not only deal with children, it deals with them until they are of man's age; it really is a labour bureau for young workers, which I consider is more advantageously carried on if attached to the Education Authority than if conducted independently.

97328. You want to make it part of the Education Committee's work?—I think that only the Education Committee can safeguard the results of a labour bureau for young workers.

97329. Assuming there was a general labour bureau, all the information that this bureau got would be obtained from it?—Yes, but perfectly irresponsibly to the individual obtaining it; there would be no security of adoption of what was said, or attempt at guidance, or in any way supervising the use that is to be made of the information.

97330. You want to keep this bureau, by whatever name it goes, under the Education Committee, and distinct and apart from any general labour bureau that might be established?—Yes; but I do not believe that another labour bureau for that age would be necessary in the same town, certainly not; if a labour bureau is to benefit children, it ought, in my opinion, to be managed with the full co-operation of employers, but under the same authority that the education arrangements are placed with.

97331. What inducement would you give to the employers to have recourse to your bureau?—One complaint that I have had in connection with my scheme is that it will mainly benefit the employer, because it singles out for him the most likely article; that he has no trouble; he gets the best people for his purpose; but, on the other hand, that signifies an advantage to the workers themselves; if they are best for his purpose, the occupations selected are probably well suited to them.

97332. You do not put any compulsion on him, but you would offer him the inducement you mention?—I would put no compulsion on any employer to use it, except

the moral compulsion of being a loyal citizen, as he is supposed to be; and knowing that it is to be good for the younger population, he would encourage it. Public opinion would be the only form of compulsion.

97333. You would try and enlist the sympathies of as large a number of persons in the locality as you could; and you would have representatives of the various bodies of the city upon this committee?—Yes; if all those different interests were represented on the committee one might be fairly certain that matters would be treated from a broad point of view, and that there would be no danger of running into extremes, either for education or for employment; as long as you dissociate the two things, the labour and the education, you always will run that danger.

97334. You would still have a difficulty, would you not, that the unskilled employments thus protected are detrimental by reason of the higher pay?—They are only higher paid up to a certain point, say up to the age of seventeen or eighteen. Then the apprentice, even at present, is usually earning the same wage as the boy labourer; so that the difficulty is simply in the first years of apprenticeship. The main difficulty is, of course, that unless a boy begins as a boy labourer, he very often gets nothing to do, because there are a great many trades in which they cannot begin their apprenticeship until they are sixteen.

97335. How would you prevent your bureau, with the records and names of all these children leaving school, becoming a possible recruiting ground for this class of industry or occupation that we all admit is detrimental to a boy? The wage would be higher; there would be that inducement. How would you prevent that class of employer, or that class of occupation, getting hold of your boys or girls through the bureau?—I think it would be quite desirable that some boys at fourteen, if they are very set upon a trade they cannot enter till they are sixteen, might go to a mill, or might go to any of those factories where the conditions were supervised by Factory inspectors, and undergo approved-of, regular work there. I think that would be better in many cases than messenger-boy and van-boy work. It would not be the recruiting ground for them.

97336. I am thinking of this case; take London, if you have the labour bureau, supposing so many messenger boys were wanted, the manager of the particular business or enterprise which wanted those messenger boys would probably have recourse to this bureau?—Supposing he did so, and the bureau director thought the messenger work in that particular business would be quite good enough for a time, I should not see any disadvantage in the boy going. The bureau would raise the whole tone of labour, because by-and-bye those industries to which the bureau did not think it right to send the boys would become unpopular, and such occupations would simply get the worst boys that were left.

97337. There is the attraction of the higher wage?—Ordinary regular work of any approved description between fourteen and sixteen is better than work taken up for a few weeks. It would be the business of the bureau to try, as far as possible, to get the boy to take up some work that would last a year at all events. We cannot get over the fact that we have from fourteen to sixteen to occupy in a great many cases.

97338. Do not you think it would influence the parent?—I do not see how one can get over some trouble between fourteen and fifteen. You cannot insist on the child being at school all day; it would not be well, and it is desirable he should be doing some kind of work.

97339. I wanted whatever machinery was set up, assuming these occupations are detrimental to the future of the child, to be an obstacle to the child going into those occupations than in any sense an encouragement?—The bureau director would know what are the desirable and undesirable outlets; he would advise the boy for the best, and if the boy went as a messenger boy, would still keep note of him.

97340. The director would advise the boy?—Yes, advise him and the parents. Then in cases where the boy had taken up one temporary occupation after another he would refer the case to the attention of an after-care committee with which the bureau would constantly keep in touch.

97341. You have not confined your investigation to Aberdeen alone, but you have acquired information concerning a good many of the populous centres of Scotland?—Yes.

97342. Is there much difference with regard to the occupations which boys obtain say in towns like Glasgow and Aberdeen?—There is a great difference from fourteen to sixteen; in a town like Aberdeen so long as a boy remains as a messenger and does his ordinary work, he stands to be no worse at sixteen except that he may have forgotten his school work, but morally the boy does not run the same risk as a boy in Dundee or Glasgow. The great moral danger to boys of that age in the large industrial towns, where they have so many ways of working at factories, is that it brings them under the influence of older boys who have already gone so far in the way of irregularities of all kinds.

97343. I suppose the proportion which would go into these unskilled and unprofitable occupations would be much larger in Glasgow than it would be in Aberdeen?—Much larger; in fact, apprenticeship in Aberdeen still is a real living thing. In Glasgow it is a very shifting matter; a boy does not think himself, even though he enters an apprenticeship, bound to remain; and even in some of the trades like engineering where it means all the difference to an apprentice whether he stays out his time and gets his lines, you hear of about 50 per cent. dropping out during the period of apprenticeship. In engineering certainly that is a large proportion, but 15, 20, 25 or 30 per cent. are quite commonly dismissed or drop away during the period of apprenticeship in a city like Glasgow. It is not nearly so bad in towns like Aberdeen or even Edinburgh where there are fewer industrial temptations.

97344. What about Dundee?—Dundee is not quite as bad as Glasgow in many ways, and yet worse in others. In Dundee there are something like 20 per cent. of the boys and girls who leave school by exemption,—that is, before they reach the age of fourteen, so that they really become factory workers too early in a great many cases, and they know little of school life; they are much less cultivated in every way than the boys and girls in towns like Aberdeen and Edinburgh.

97345. Summing up your evidence and your experience, should you say that the evil to which you call attention is so serious that Government would be justified in legislating for it?—Which evil? There are so many really.

97346. Your Paper is mainly concerned with the evil results that occur to young persons, boys and girls, if they get into one of these unprofitable occupations?—I think that the worst evil is that at fourteen there is no longer any compulsion, nobody is really responsible for that boy's or girl's behaviour. After fourteen, the parents presumably are not (we know that they are not) sufficient. It seems that it is very necessary that there should be some authorised supervision; a labour bureau such as you mentioned a few minutes ago would not fulfil that purpose: it would not be sufficient.

97347. Would you make the boys report themselves periodically at all?—Yes, most certainly, in fact they will not get on very well unless they do, because there are few trades,—painting, plumbing, printing, and one or two very light trades,—that are open to boys at fourteen, so they are bound to report themselves if they want to get into one of the better apprenticeship trades.

97348. Would you make the reporting compulsory?—I would make the reporting compulsory and attendance at school compulsory. I do not agree with the amount of time you were suggesting in the matter of school attendance, I do not think there is a demand for that.

97349. How long would you continue the period of reporting?—Till seventeen at least.

97350. Your experience is, I suppose, that it is in, say, the first three years after leaving school that most of the mischief is done?—Yes, indeed it is. Every year from fourteen to seventeen is equally important; I could not say that one was less important than the other; in fact, the whole period of youth and apprenticeship is important.

97351. (Mr. Phelps.) Could you compare the future Institution of children brought up in families and those brought up in children institutions? Have you had much experience of children in institutions?—I have seen a good deal of it.

Mrs. Ogilvie Gordon.

17 Mar. 1908.

Different effect of uneducative labour in different towns.

Different proportion of uneducative boy labour in different towns.

Desirability of authorised supervision after fourteen.

Boys to report periodically to bureaux.

Compulsory reporting and attendance.

Mrs. Ogilvie Gordon.

17 Mar. 1908.

97352. Do you find in those cases there is more after-care or less?—I think a child brought up in a family is superior to a child brought up in an institution.

97353. I mean in that particular point of the interest in them after they have left school?—By the institutions where they give education as well, do you mean?

97354. Yes?—I do not think the after-care is very much there.

97355. It does not come to much?—I do not think so. The worst of institution training is that it turns out a specialised type of individual who takes a long time before shaping into the normal conditions of life.

97356. What kind of calling do institution children follow generally?—It depends on the form of institution. You have domestic service for girls as the chief calling, and for boys such occupations as basket making, bell and blind hanging, bag making and different forms of weaving, box and packing-case making and a few trades of that description; they are almost given over to boys coming from the institutions, and they are trades at which a boy can enter at the age of fourteen—either as boy labourer or apprentice. The ordinary school boy usually shuns them when he gets out of school, he will do anything rather than go to them, the feeling of class is still quite strong.

97357. An institution does not as a rule apprentice its children?—No, it apprentices them perhaps to some trade of that kind, but, as a rule, they let them work as unskilled workers, in firewood making, rope weaving, and a number of smaller industries.

97358. Have you seen much of children who have been apprenticed to live in the house?—I have not seen much of that.

97359. Have you anything in Edinburgh answering to the Metropolitan Association for Befriending Young Servants?—We have voluntary aid societies for women and the Girls' Aid Society, the Travellers' Aid Society, the Young Women's Christian Association, and a few such associations. They are all of that type, where they have homes in which servants can stay when they come up from the country to look out for work. They are always provided in the Scottish towns by voluntary workers.

97360. Supposing that a child goes from the Poor Law into service, could you be certain that some agency would take her in hand and look after her?—Not unless she were referred to it, or she were directed to it by her mistress or put in touch with it. Each town has developed its own voluntary work in that connection. In Aberdeen we are well provided, because Lady Aberdeen made that one of her chief points. We are probably better provided there than in any other Scottish town.

97361. Are you in favour of girls being prepared for some calling in life?—Yes, all.

97362. What do you think will be the effect of that, let us say, for instance, on the industries of men?—I think if you can make women feel their own responsibility in life, that you may trust the fact that they will remain women all the same, and that they will probably, even in the home, be more capable than if they had not been trained to regular effort in any way.

97363. Do you find in Scotland a tendency on the part of husbands to rely on their wives' earnings?—In Dundee, yes.

97364. Do you think that has a bad effect?—A very bad effect; it could not have any other.

97365. (*Chairman.*) And elsewhere, should you say, in Scotland? Is that the tendency rather of modern life?—Not in Aberdeen.

97366. But elsewhere?—Outside Aberdeen. I think in Dundee it is very bad. I do not think elsewhere in Scotland, except probably in the South, in some of the smaller towns, where there are the hosiery factories and the woollen factories. I do not think that is complained of in Glasgow to any extent, nor in Edinburgh, at least I have not heard of it.

97367. (*Mr. Phelps.*) Take a girl leaving school, in whom you were interested, would you rather that she acquired an industry, or that she went into service?—Into service.

97368. Do you think on the whole she is more calculated to make a home comfortable?—I think I know a great service many servants in all classes who could make a comfortable home; but the worst of it is that, so far as the working man is concerned, he does not find them as attractive as the girls that run about after factory and shop hours; so that it is decidedly not always the best class of woman that gets married in the working classes.

97369. Do you find that girls have an increasing dislike to go into service?—Yes.

97370. In Scotland?—Yes.

97371. On which side do you think the fault lies?—I think the fault lies on the side of the schools to some extent; they seldom teach the girls domestic work, or very seldom teach it in any attractive way to begin with. You have the same difficulty with domestic service as you have with the boy labourer. We do not want a servant as a rule until she is sixteen; you have again that gap from fourteen to sixteen, and by that time the girl has begun to look around her own home, and to have companions who are at some work or another, and to rather look down upon service. If the girl could be got hold of at fourteen I think it would help.

97372. Should you like to see a system by which the education of girls for service went on after school age for that year?—Very much.

97373. A training home?—I think every girl, whether she goes to school, factory, or service, should still continue to be trained at the school; but again, half-time is beyond necessity.

97374. Are you familiar with any of the institutions for that purpose for children from poor-houses?—Yes, there are one or two schools, but they are always on a very small scale; they do not in any way take up the problem from the whole aspect.

97375. Do you think the results are satisfactory?—I think the results would be more satisfactory if they were taken up on a larger scale, as a nationally organised, recognised need. The moment you allow a thing to be done voluntarily, you make it quite, as it were, a question of its worth.

97376. Do you think it would be worth while to have a system of technical instruction in special schools for children (girls) from fourteen to sixteen?—Always and everywhere.

97377. You think it would be a profitable investment to have them?—Very profitable.

97378. Have you formed any idea what the kind of cost would be?—Yes, I have looked very carefully into that. I think as a rule the cost need not be nearly so large as the voluntary establishments make out, because the error that many of these establishments make, is to do it on too liberal and detailed a system. The moment you have large classes you almost unconsciously minimise the expense for one thing, and you would require to treat them simply, on the basis of how to boil a potato and how to do the simplest things. You would not for a moment think of giving those classes technical instruction if you are giving it to all and sundry; you would single out the few that are fitted for the higher work and arrange accordingly, but a simple system to cover all the needs ought not to cost a great deal. It would be very well worth while if not too elaborate. The moment it is elaborate it fails in its purpose.

97379. You think the gain to the community would be worth the cost?—I should not hesitate at all. I think no money could be better spent.

97380. I quite follow you when you say it would be very difficult to insist on half-time in the case of boys. Do you think in the case of girls the parent would equally object?—Yes, I do. I think that half-time is far too large a demand.

97381. Your notion would be that the girl should be engaged in a shop or factory or what not?—Yes.

97382. Within certain hours, and should go in the evening to a technical school to be taught domestic economy?—It is not necessarily in the evening. One might have afternoon classes, but the difficulty between fourteen and sixteen in arranging that the child should go every afternoon is that then the child has every evening to spare, and you may get just as much harm learned

Occupations followed by institution children.

Apprenticeship of institution children.

Homes for young servants.

After-care of child going from Poor Law into service.

Effect of women's labour.

Reliance of men on wives' earnings.

Domestic service, increasing dislike for.

Domestic service, increasing dislike for.

Continuation of training for girls.

Technical instruction for selected children. Danger of over-education.

Objections to half-time for boys and girls.

Technical instruction for girls.

on the streets in the evening as any that can be gathered in the workshops during the day.

tion of 97383. Do you not think having these schools in the evening would check that to some extent?—Yes, I think it is better to have them in the evening, if you lessen the length of the day. You require to make a shorter day. For example, from fourteen to sixteen one might allow only six hours work in the way they do with beginners in the postal service, and then class attendance in the evening.

97384. You mean for girls?—Boys or girls either. One could shorten the length of the working day, or you could arrange it otherwise; reduction of time would do in some trades, in others again it would be more convenient to allow the children off three whole afternoons and alternate them, so many working in the work-room one afternoon and so many the other afternoon. I think all those matters would come up in the course of the working of the bureau, and could be satisfactorily arranged; provided it is made perfectly clear that there must be a minimum of school attendance, and that minimum is stated.

97385. It would be much easier to get legislation of that kind for girls than for boys?—I do not know why it should be, because really it is just as important for the boys as the girls.

97386. Take the town of Aberdeen, what kind of industries do the girls go into there?—In Aberdeen curiously enough we have nearly all the textile trades. Our cotton mill was closed lately, but we have wool and jute and linen, and then, of course, there is a great deal of shorthand and typewriting done now by girls, but that means continuing school till sixteen at least; we have the usual commercial occupations, messenger girls developing into cashiers or counter hands, all sorts of shop girls, fish-curing and provision factory girls, and we have domestic servants. I think that would about cover the common occupations.

97387. Now take the industries you mentioned first, the cotton and jute?—Cotton is no longer in Aberdeen but wool is.

wages. 97388. Take wool and jute; what amount of wage, would a girl look forward to receiving when she first entered that business?—About 5s. or 6s. to begin with, sometimes it is less, but 5s. or 6s. is a sort of recognised wage.

97389. What would she hope to rise to?—She would rise to about 10s., seldom 11s.

97390. Supposing, for the sake of argument, she remained working in the mill till she was fifty?—They rarely do.

97391. She would not look forward to more than 10s. under any circumstances?—I do not think so. If she became a forewoman she would get 12s., if she were a very expert piece-worker she would get 12s. or 13s., but anyhow higher wages are so extremely rare that they need not be taken into consideration.

work. 97392. Is piece-work common?—Very, it is nearly all piece-work.

97393. Do you think that makes a great drain on the strength?—Yes, I think that piece-work is very disadvantageous. Piece-work has a certain advantage, however, for the mothers of families; they get through their work and get to their homes sooner. It would be a pity to do away with piece-work entirely. It does help in some ways that they make a sufficient wage by piece-work, if they are well-intentioned, to keep the home going.

97394. There is a great temptation, is there not, to stay longer and earn more?—That may be, but it does not hold so much in a place like Aberdeen. We have very much kindlier conditions than in the places where the rush of work is greater; Glasgow is different and Dundee also.

97395. In what way do you think it is different?—Because there the employer wants a great deal turned out, and there is every possible encouragement given, and the managers do not keep on the girls unless they do a great deal of work.

97396. They are encouraged?—Yes, where the rush of work is greater they are encouraged to do more than their capacity. *Mrs. Ogilvie Gordon.*

17 Mar. 1908.
97397. Would that be normal or by fits and starts?—I think it would be by fits and starts naturally, but it is a sufficiently normal condition to be considered.

97398. What is the average age, should you think, Average age speaking quite roughly, at which the women leave the of leaving factory in Aberdeen?—Twenty-five and upwards. factory.

97399. They generally look forward to marrying about that time?—Yes.

97400. Now take a shop girl, supposing your girl goes into a shop what would she expect to earn?—She might make from 6s. to 12s. 6d. and 15s., and she does not get much beyond that, up to £1 a week, unless she is a very capable girl and given charge of a department. Wages of shop girls

97401. The wages are higher there than in the factory?—They are higher, but then the class of girl is higher, the education is necessarily higher, and the dress is different. She might go up to 14s. or 15s. a week, which is quite an average wage.

97402. Are many girls of that type apprenticed as Dress-dressmakers?—Yes, a great many are apprenticed, maker's apprentices. they are even apprenticed for ordinary counter work.

97403. What premium would you be expected to pay for an apprentice to a dress-maker?—They very seldom give a premium; perhaps 10s. at some shops, but it does not amount to much in money; at other shops they give no premium. They begin perhaps with nothing for the first six months, and then get half a crown a week, and it goes on till the girl is making about 6s. or 7s. by the time she has been there three years. After that she may go on to 11s. or 12s. a week, when she is really a properly expert worker. Anything more than that means that she is a particularly clever worker.

97404. Would the same wages hold for tailors' work? Women—You mean women tailors? tailors.

97405. Yes.—No, that is rather lower, because the women tailoring is mostly ready-made, not bespoke, so it is really a factory wage.

97406. Supposing she went into domestic service, what Wages of wage would she expect, as a general servant let us say?—domestic She would not be of much use to anybody until she was servants. eighteen years of age, because a general servant requires a good physique, and requires to be a perfectly well developed strong young woman; then she might get about £14 a year; if she were a very good servant and much appreciated £16, that would probably be the amount. Anyone that was able to give more would have two servants.

97407. Are generals as a rule thought to have very hard places?—Yes, but they rather like them because they get everything their own way if they are good servants.

97408. In the interval between school and eighteen where would a girl like that be?—She might be a little nurse-maid, or something of that kind, from the time she was fourteen; she would certainly not be at the factory, because if she were, she would never become a general servant. She must be in service of some kind.

97409. She would get into a family first?—If her own mother had not a good few children that she had to take care of till she was sixteen, she would go into a family straight away.

97410. The majority of girls would prefer to have their own kitchen to being in a family?—The majority of girls like to remain at home and go into the streets a good deal and generally feel their way: then at sixteen they begin to think about what they will do. It is if we could just bridge that little while.

97411. (*Mr. Gardiner.*) I do not understand why you object to this education employment bureau being organised in connection with the labour bureau just as it is done in Germany?—I wish to associate the occupations for young workers with their farther education.

97412. Under one management?—Yes.

97413. Do I understand that the Education Committee Management as set out here is to manage the labour bureau?—The of Bureau. Education Committee, plus the representatives that it invites, and that are sent to it by the public bodies, should manage it.

Mrs. Ogilvie Gordon.

17 Mar. 1908.

Bureau to do what is required for employment up to eighteen.

Raising of school age.

Decline of apprenticeship.

Military training for boys.

Physical training.

Use of rifle.

97414. You really want that, do you not?—I want it certainly. What I think is that this bureau should do what is required for employment up to the age of say eighteen, but that it should work co-operatively with any ordinary labour bureau for older men and women, that may come to be placed under the town council or some other organisation. I may say that in Edinburgh there was a Conference attended by a number of representative delegates from public bodies and trade unions; it took place about three weeks ago, and there that point was clearly brought up. One of the labour representatives suggested that the two things might be dissociated: he suggested that the bureau under the school board should be limited only to education, and that all the labour work should be done by the labour bureau people. It was not necessary for me to answer him, because two or three others answered that that would not meet the purpose; they understood that it was perfectly possible that the two bureaux, the one for men and women and the other for those of school-going age, should work into each other's hands and be complementary to one another. In England, they would both be under the same Local Authority.

97415. I do not quite understand why, as you said in answer to the Chairman, you should think it is undesirable to raise the age of children leaving school to fifteen?—At present we have no need of it in Scotland. We have the possibility at present of every child being kept to fifteen who seems likely to take advantage of the further education, who seems able to go on and really take full advantage of the increased quality and standard of the education.

97416. Have you ever looked at the raising of school age from the point of view of reducing the mass of unemployment?—I think if you raise the school age to fifteen, that it could not but be an advantage in one way. Still, it would immediately give you the employer who complains that the apprenticeship period is shortened; because after all there are a considerable number of trades that are begun at fourteen. And many small employers want the boy at fourteen; he is of use to them as a boy labourer in the first year of his working life. If one can get over the difficulty of the employer, and the shortening of the apprenticeship period,—if it does not put industry back in that respect, and prove too great a sacrifice for poor parents and small employers, then it could not but be an advantage to the children.

97417. I understood you to say that the apprenticeship system outside Aberdeen is running down very much?—In Glasgow and in busy industrial centres where there is a large manufacturing business going on.

97418. It survives in Aberdeen more than in other places?—In Edinburgh it is fairly existing, but in Dundee and Glasgow it is much less.

97419. Have you any opinion or advice to give or recommendation to make with regard to what is called military training for boys, in order to get more discipline?—I think the training can be given without calling it military training. To call it military training at once ruffles the feelings of those who are in favour of encouraging peaceful ideas. If you set out by giving all these boys a military training in order to encourage them to go on to the Territorial Army, you undoubtedly strike against the other side of our policy, which is to encourage peace. I think you can give them a physical training without calling it military.

97420. Physical training of a military type?—No doubt military people have worked out the best methods of physical training. I think the boys' brigade is excellent; but I think its work would be as well done under another name.

97421. Would this physical training include the use of the rifle?—I do not see that that is an advantage; I do not think the Government need consider that unless it wants to make an army.

97422. You do not think it good to teach boys to shoot straight as a matter of discipline?—No, I do not think so. I think one can get all the benefits of discipline without the rifle.

97423. (Miss Hill.) I understand you would not be in favour of the half-time system after fourteen for boys system and girls?—Certainly if the school age were to be raised to fifteen it would be most unnecessary.

97424. You would not look upon them as alternatives? Half-time is nearly so good as to let each trade, as it were, be considered, and have a minimum, that is determined, of attendance at school sufficient to maintain the education that has been received. At present with regard to those that go to the trades at the age of sixteen, the employer complains that they cannot write their own names, often they have forgotten any little arithmetic they knew; they cannot take down their ordinary work; they really have succeeded in forgetting anything they knew by the time they are sixteen. If that is the case, it seems clear that what one wants is sufficient school attendance for the average child to keep up the standard which it has reached, with plenty of encouragement and facilities for capable pupils to further their education. I think half-time is too much for a standard of maintenance.

97425. Would you feel that the training in a life of work was quite as important as the school training, and that it was important not to defer that too long, that it was really a good thing for a boy or girl to begin work, whether at fourteen or fifteen—at any rate pretty young?—Yes. I think if the life is to be one of work, that when they start it they ought to be allowed to go on with it regularly, and feel that they have left school, but that a certain amount of attendance is still demanded; the moment you make it half-time, they really have not left school.

97426. You think the continuation school would be free from that difficulty?—I think so.

97427. What you propose would also tell rather less heavily on the poorer parents, who perhaps have waited what seems to them a long time for their children to begin earning?—I think it would arouse a very, very great deal of dissatisfaction to insist upon the fifteen; but it would give very little dissatisfaction, either to the parents or the employers, to introduce a system by which two or three afternoons or evenings a week of two or three hours each would be occupied by school training and the day's work be curtailed.

97428. You do not feel at all anxious with regard to having dissociated your director of the bureau too much from the whole knowledge of the demand for adult labour. the knowledge of the child is a very definite thing; and it does not seem to me quite so difficult to pass on the knowledge of the child to a director who should be attached to the adult bureau as it would be to pass on the knowledge of the labour market to a man who is primarily attached to the Education Department?—I think that the knowledge of the individual child is the first matter, and that could only be given to a director in a bureau associated with the education committee. That director can acquire in two or three years' time, if he has not already got it, a very complete knowledge of the conditions around himself with regard to industries.

97429. They are always changing very much, are they not?—Yes.

97430. It would require very perpetual watchfulness on his part with regard to not only the demand for labour between fourteen and eighteen, but for the latter part of the life of the workman or workwoman?—Yes. That is why one would like, if possible, that the committee of the bureau should include representatives from the labour bureau for adults, and from other organisations in the town.

97431. You think that would not be calling upon him for double work. I think my instinct would be much more to put one director at the bureau who should specially attend to the children, and not put him under the Education Department?—But if he were at the adult bureau you would not get him in touch with the schools in the same way, with the teachers and school facilities.

97432. The master would send the children on from the school, and the parents would attend?—Then you would

have the same bureau dealing with the boys and girls and with the adults, and you know quite well what goes on in such bureaux, you know the class of people that come up day after day to find work.

97433. You need not have the same rooms and the same entrance?—I think it would be desirable to keep the two apart: the class of children we hope to deal with would in many cases be rather better.

97434. You do not object to the double machinery?—We want this, not only for the labourer's child, but we want it for the child of the higher class artisan, and the professional man's child, and the teachers' children themselves; we have not only the industries to deal with, but we want to find the hopeful boys and girls, and pass them on to professions, if they are fit for it, or to be teachers. I think a great many of those parents would not come near a director that was simply a labour bureau director.

97435. The idea of the labour bureau as it is contemplated now is very much to be dissociated from all the broken labour that goes to the relief committees and distress committees?—There is one point which I might call your attention to, that at present little is being done under the education authorities to see that the continuation classes and certain other work that the children undertake are really in touch with their industrial occupations. Of course the director of such a bureau as I propose must have a very special knowledge of the schools, and must be constantly in touch with the working staff and with the education committee's work before he can give educational information; and it is the actual suitability, the perfect relevancy of the teaching to the industries that the pupils are engaged in, which makes it of any value. All this seems to me more naturally associated with the education committee than with the labour bureau pure and simple.

97436. As to the supervision of the continuation education as well as the mere finding of the employment?—Yes. It is not only the placing in an occupation; there is also to be considered the education the child has received and the education he still seems able to obtain and keep on assimilating, and whether that child could go on to this particular trade or that, or whether he might be kept on by maintenance funds during his apprenticeship, and so on. That is more than you can think of a labour bureau undertaking.

97437. (Mr. Loch.) Have you worked this scheme out at all experimentally anywhere in Scotland?—No. It has not been worked out experimentally, but I am glad to be able to tell you that after the Edinburgh School Board has had this matter under very careful consideration for six months and taken all possible advice in the matter, I received a wire this morning saying that it has decided to start it. It decided so yesterday evening.

97438. You have not started it privately or personally in any sense?—By no means. I should have thought if I had done that, it would militate against the public authorities doing it.

97439. On the other hand you would have made your experiment?—I do not think it was necessary. I think that this matter could only be done on a large scale. Had I tried to make an experiment it would have been again on a voluntary scale, and it could not have been done without the full sanction of a school board.

97440. Are the masters and mistresses in Scotland generally taking much care about their children?—They have not the time, neither have they the time to get the necessary knowledge about industries. Our ordinary school-teacher does not know what goes on in the workshops; he only knows his business.

97441. You have not had any societies or others who have taken up this question particularly?—I have placed this matter before a great number of societies, among others the Educational Institute in Scotland. The teachers said it would be an immense support to them, that they often had difficulty in getting such information as the bureau would supply, and they would be glad

to help in the work by bringing these matters a little more before the children. The moment you place it in connection with the teacher you have a driving force and a guiding force of immense power; the moment you take it away, the teacher no longer feels that he has this support.

97442. Have you managers of the schools in Scotland?—No, we have no managers; we have simply the school board authority.

97443. To your knowledge no society or anybody of that sort has taken it up in a small way?—As you know, the scheme is entirely thought out by myself, and I have not asked them to.

97444. I thought, quite apart from you, there might have been experiments in this direction?—I do not know of any. If there are any I am not aware of them.

97445. (Mr. Patten-MacDougall.) Do I understand the Edinburgh School Board have decided to set this on foot at once?—Yes. I have here the telegram I received. A meeting had taken place subsequently to the Conference that had been called together, and had drawn up a Minute in favour of the bureau. Would you like to know the bodies that were represented on that Conference?

97446. What I wanted to know was, have the Scottish Education Department approved of the scheme?—The telegram runs, "Minute passed: committee appointed to frame scheme." The suggestion was that a scheme should be framed for actually working a bureau upon the lines indicated by me, and this means that the school board is now going to really begin the work of this bureau.

97447. (Chairman.) Would you kindly give us that list of representative bodies?—The Edinburgh Parish Council, the Edinburgh Chamber of Commerce, the Edinburgh Master Printers' Association, the Edinburgh Merchants' Association, the Edinburgh and Districts Chemists Trade Association, the Edinburgh, Leith and District Building Trade Association, the Edinburgh and District United Trades Council, East of Scotland Association of Engineers and Iron-founders, the Scottish Association of Master Bakers, the South Side Merchants' Association, the Advisory Committee of the Distress Committee (Trades Council), the Church of Scotland Presbytery, the United Free Church Presbytery, the Boys' Industrial School Committee, the Heriot Trust, the headmasters under the school board, and there were also present members from the distress committee, which was represented here to-day; so that it was really a very representative meeting and it discussed the proposed bureau from all the points of view.

97448. The telegram is rather the result of that—It is the result.

97449. (Mr. Patten-MacDougall.) Has the scheme come before the Scottish Education Department, do you know?—At the very beginning, before I spoke of it to anyone, I went to the Scottish Education Department, and told Dr. Struthers there what I was thinking of doing, and asked whether the Education Department was likely to approve of it. He spoke most highly of it in every respect. I also had an interview with the Secretary for Scotland and told him of it. He was very much pleased with it too. I have since kept Dr. Struthers exactly informed as to what I was doing; he has known step by step everything I have done in connection with this scheme. He said he did not think it would be necessary for me to have any more formal support than the letter he gave me, which was printed at the beginning of my inquiries. I think that letter undoubtedly helped me very largely.

97450. Is that scheme consented to in Edinburgh?—The Edinburgh Board knows that the Department approves of it.

97451. Is it not necessary to have the sanction of the Authority for Education Board in connection with the expenditure?—It is not the Education Board which sanctions the expenditure; it is the auditor of the School Board Accounts, from the Treasury, but the School Board must have looked into that: that is not my business: they have passed it. That is all I know.

Mrs. Ogilvie Gordon.

17 Mar. 1903.

Mrs. Ogilvie Gordon.

97452. You said in answer to a question that there were very few trades open at fourteen?—Yes.

17 Mar. 1908.

Few trades available at fourteen.

97453. That, of course, is a great difficulty in the way of providing these boys with work at the time they leave school?—There is no trade more popular than engineering, any form of mechanical engineering; and that cannot be entered until the boy is sixteen. In the foundry work it is the same thing; moulders are sometimes taken on at fourteen; but usually they work as boy labourers for a time.

97454. Is that under the rules of the trades unions, or how is it provided for?—That has grown up by an arrangement, no doubt, between the trades unions and the employers. From the employers' point of view in those trades, engineering, boiler-making, and others, they really want strong, young fellows. They cannot get sufficient use out of an apprentice of fourteen to make it worth their while to take him; and in that way it is to their advantage. On the other hand, the trades unions prefer the apprentices as old as possible, because the apprentice, sooner or later (he is only five years an apprentice) has to have, and must have, a man's wage; and naturally they want it to be as late as possible in the boy's life before he arrives at the man's wage.

Inquiry into periods of training required by different occupations.

97455. You have yourself made inquiries with the object of tabulating the occupations which require short periods of training, and those that require longer periods?—Yes.

97456. Your scheme is to put the result of these inquiries into the hands of the committees in order that they may use them with a view of seeing what occupation is best suited to the individual boy?—Yes; I have prepared a Handbook of Employments to make it easier for the Scottish Boards to take the matter up at once, because naturally an inquiry has to be made in every district before a bureau like this can be worked. The labour bureaux that exist can only give a general account of labour; they have not gone into the boy labour question; so I went into this in order to facilitate the establishment of bureaux by the Scottish Boards.

97457. These statistics are obtained entirely from traders in Scotland?—Entirely from Scottish traders.

Attendance at Scottish continuation schools.

97458. As regards the continuation schools in Scotland, are they well attended?—The attendance varies in the different localities. I should think it is about one in eight, or one in six of the boys leaving school in most localities. That would be about the average; but we have as many as one in five in Aberdeen. That is the highest of all.

Lack of compulsion by parents.

97459. Do you find the parents quite willing that the boys should attend these schools? Do they assist to make them attend?—The parents would as a rule assist; but what one does not get from the parent is sufficient compulsion. There is the mother that I have come across myself often, who says: "Oh, poor things, they have had plenty of school, let them stop it." There is that mother to be constantly met who does not encourage it. Then there are the careless people who do not think about it one way or the other.

Fitness of children for school after day's work.

97460. You do not think much of the objection to these continuation schools that the boys are tired and wearied with their day's work before they go there?—I think that it is disadvantageous to a tired child to

go to any school, it would not do any good; but at the same time I think a great deal too much can be made of that. I think that even if you work six or seven hours a day you are quite fit to do a change of work; it is not the same work.

97461. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) Did you form any opinion yourself as to what would be the cost of carrying out the scheme in Edinburgh?—You will notice that I say in Appendix A. to my Statement (*see Appendix No. XIX.*) what in Edinburgh it would probably cost. You have the salary of the director (he must be a good man) from £300 to £400, and £100 additional for a clerk; so that in salaries one may calculate anything between £400 and £500. Then there is always a certain amount of expense for sending pamphlets and circulars round, and the printing expenditure probably would come to about £100. I should think it would cost about £800 a year.

97462. You also contemplate a correspondence clerk?—In the employment department as time went on that might be necessary.

97463. I think you contemplate further that the employers would pay some fee?—Yes.

97464. So that would be deducted?—Yes, when the employers use it to such an extent that a clerk is wanted, their money will support the expense of a correspondence clerk, and he can be added.

97465. That would not involve any extra cost on the rates?—No, that is a strong point.

97466. (*Chairman.*) How do you propose to make the employer pay a fee, put a stamp on the engagement, or something of that kind?—It is usual to pay on entering their names. I think many employers would wish to pay an annual subscription of a certain amount.

97467. Their names would be on the list?—Yes.

97468. Would they expect the director to give them information?—When they actually wanted an employee.

97469. For instance, if a man wanted so many boys, the director would let him know when he had that class of boy?—Yes; sometimes they have to be on the books one way or the other for several months. The employer would say: During the next year I shall want two boys for clerical work, or something else; and that is taken a note of; and he would receive a notice when they are there.

97470. If you did that, the director would have to discriminate because there may be employers of labour whom he would think undesirable men for the boys to go to?—Undoubtedly. That would be one of the advantages, that he might discriminate, and guard the boy against going to such employers.

97471. It might make it a little difficult?—With the employers of that particular class of labour it would, of course, but that difficulty has to be faced sooner or later. You cannot get over those difficulties, you have to meet them. The director would bring these difficulties up before the representative committee, and they would be talked over. If there was anything really wrong in that industry, then it would be brought before public notice in a way.

97472. You would take precautions so that the director should discharge his duty impartially, and not be subject to unfair criticism?—Yes.

ONE HUNDRED AND FIFTY-THIRD DAY.

Monday, 23rd March, 1908.

AT SCOTLAND HOUSE, WESTMINSTER, S.W.

PRESENT.

The Right Hon. Lord GEORGE HAMILTON, G.C.S.I.,
etc., etc., etc. (*Chairman*).
Sir SAMUEL B. PROVIS, K.C.B.
Mr. F. H. BENTHAM.
Dr. A. H. DOWNES.
The Rev. T. GAGE GARDINER.
Mr. GEORGE LANSBURY.

Mr. C. S. LOCH.
Mr. T. HANCOCK NUNN.
The Rev. Prebendary H. RUSSELL WAKEFIELD.
Mrs. SIDNEY WEBB.
Miss OCTAVIA HILL.
Mr. R. H. A. G. DUFF (*Secretary*).
Mr. J. JEFFREY (*Assistant Secretary*).

Mr. ERNEST GRAY, M.A.; Mr. PHILIP E. PILDITCH, L.C.C.; Sir SHIRLEY F. MURPHY, M.D.; and Mr. EDGAR J. HARPER, called; and Examined.

97473. (*Chairman*.) You gentlemen, representing the London County Council, have been good enough to send us some very full statements. We have taken so much evidence about the administration of the Poor Law in London, and I think we are so thoroughly conversant with the details of the Poor Law administration and the relations which the different authorities occupy one to another, that I do not propose to trouble you with those matters at all. I will confine the few questions I wish to put to you to the scheme which you put forward in the Statement of evidence that has been prepared on behalf of the Council?—(*Mr. Gray*.) Very good, my Lord.

(*The Witness handed in the following Statement.*)

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE SUBMITTED ON BEHALF OF
THE LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL AS TO THE AD-
MINISTRATION OF THE POOR LAWS IN LONDON.

1. The London County Council, at its meetings on March 10th and 17th, 1908, passed the following resolutions—

(a) That while refraining from expressing any opinion on the future redistribution or apportionment of any Poor Law charges, whether national or local, the Council is of opinion that in the Administrative County of London the powers and duties of the Poor Law authorities should be merged in the general municipal government.

(b) That the City Corporation and the Metropolitan borough councils should be the authorities charged with the administration of those duties now performed by the London boards of guardians, which are local in their character.

(c) That to the City Corporation and the Metropolitan borough councils should be transferred—

(i.) The powers and duties of the guardians of the poor and sick asylum district managers with respect to all local Poor Law services, including the maintenance of workhouses, infirmaries and casual wards and outdoor relief, except such relief as shall take the form of providing wholly or partially for the children.

(ii.) Services of a municipal character, viz.—

(1) Assessment (in the six cases where boards of guardians appoint assessment committees).

(2) Registration of births, deaths and marriages.

(3) Vaccination.

(d) That the City Corporation and the Metropolitan borough councils should appoint poor relief committees (consisting, as to the majority, of members of their own bodies and a number of co-opted or appointed members, including women) for dealing with Poor Law services; and that the administration of other transferred duties should be amalgamated with the administration of the existing duties of those authorities.

(e) That the central Poor Law authority for London should be the London County Council, the membership of which for this and other purposes

should be enlarged by giving to those electoral districts at present insufficiently represented their proportionate representation, and that such authority should act through appropriate committees.

(f) That the central Poor Law authority for London should appoint a committee consisting, as to the majority, of members of its own body and including persons representative of the City Corporation and the Metropolitan borough councils and a number of co-opted or appointed members; and that all matters relating to the exercise by the Council of its powers under this scheme, exclusive of such matters as shall be referred to other committees of the Council, should stand referred to and may be delegated to the committee so constituted, except the power of raising a rate or borrowing money.

(g) That the asylums now under the control of the Metropolitan Asylums Board, which are workhouses under the Lunacy Act, 1890, should be transferred as county asylums to the Council; and that the Asylums Committee should continue to be the visiting committee under the Lunacy Acts, but with power to co-opt members, only to such extent as shall conserve the control of expenditure to elected members.

(h) That there should be transferred to the Council, which might act through its Public Health Committee, the powers and duties of the Metropolitan Asylums Board in respect of—

(i.) Infectious diseases hospitals.

(ii.) Ambulances.

(iii.) Other health services.

(i) That there should be transferred to the Council, which might act through its Education Committee—

(i.) The powers and duties of the Metropolitan Asylums Board in respect of—

(1) Special schools for Poor Law children.

(2) Remand homes.

(ii.) The management of institutions and homes for Poor Law children now in the hands of the guardians of the poor and the joint boards for school districts; the education of Poor Law children; and the maintenance of Poor Law children other than those maintained in workhouses: aided where possible by local committees of management: provided always that the cost of maintenance of Poor Law children apart from education, shall not be charged upon the amount included in the county rate for educational purposes.

(j) That such general co-ordination and control as may be necessary as regards the principles of administration, the sanction of loans, the provision of buildings, classification of paupers and the like should be exercised by the central Poor Law authority for London.

(k) That it should be the duty of the Local Government Board to frame such general rules as may be necessary to co-ordinate the practice and expenditure of the London Poor Law administration with that in the rest of the country.

Mr. Ernest Gray,
M.A.;
Mr. Philip E. Pilditch,
L.C.C.;
Sir Shirley F. Murphy,
M.D.;
Mr. Edgar J. Harper.

23 Mar. 1908.

County Council to be Central Poor Law Authority for London and to appoint Poor Law Committee of County Councillors, Borough Councillors and co-opted members.
Metropolitan Asylums Board Asylums and powers to be transferred to County Council.
Powers of relieving children to be transferred to County Council acting through Education Committee.

Mr. Ernest Gray,
M.A.;
Mr. Philip E. Pilditch,
L.C.C.;
Sir Shirley F. Murphy,
M.D.;
Mr. Edgar J. Harper.

23 Mar. 1908.

Functions of Local Government Board as to London Poor Law. County Council to administer Metropolitan Common Poor Fund.

London's Existing System of Poor Law Administration.

Apathy of electors at London Guardians' elections.

School and Sick Asylum Districts.

The Metropolitan Asylum Board.

Provision for pauper lunatics in London.

(l) That the audit of accounts should remain in the hands of the Local Government Board.

(m) That the administration of the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund should be transferred to the London County Council.

(n) That the foregoing resolutions be communicated to the Royal Commission on the Poor Laws, and that evidence be submitted to the Commission with respect to the matters referred to therein.

2. The Council has decided that the evidence should be submitted by the chairman (Mr. Ernest Gray) and the vice-chairman (Mr. Philip E. Pilditch) of the Local Government, Records and Museums Committee, the late chairman (Mr. Alfred O. Goodrich) of the Asylums Committee, and the medical officer of health (Sir Shirley F. Murphy), the statistical officer (Mr. Edgar J. Harper), and the clerk of the Asylums Committee (Mr. H. F. Keene).

3. The resolutions of the Council were based mainly on the recommendations of the Local Government, Records and Museums Committee, who have had the subject under close consideration for several months. It has been considered principally from the point of view of the reform of municipal government in London. In other words, the Council's views have been arrived at not merely in regard to the improvement of Poor Law administration, but also, and chiefly, in regard to the place which Poor Law administration should occupy in the general scheme of London local government.

4. In the County of London Poor Law matters are administered by thirty-one boards of guardians, four boards of managers of school districts, two boards of managers of sick asylum districts, the Metropolitan Asylums Board, and the Council as regards pauper lunatics.

5. The boards of guardians are charged with the local administration of the Poor Laws. They manage the workhouses, casual wards and infirmaries and grant relief; and, in addition, they undertake certain duties unconnected with the Poor Laws, such as assessment (in six cases), registration of births, deaths and marriages and vaccination. The work of the guardians is to some extent subject to administrative and financial control by the Local Government Board.

6. Boards of guardians are elected by the parochial voters, but each board may co-opt not more than four guardians. Much apathy prevails in London at guardians' elections. At the last general election of guardians in 1907 only 28 per cent. of the electorate voted, and 145 out of the 329 wards were uncontested. The figures with respect to the percentage voting at other London elections were as follows:—Metropolitan borough council election, 1906, 48·2 per cent.; County Council election, 1907, 55·5; Parliamentary election, 1906, 78·3. At the borough council elections only 30 of the 269 wards were uncontested, while all seats were contested at the County Council and Parliamentary elections.

7. The managers of school districts and sick asylums districts are appointed by certain of the boards of guardians jointly for the purpose of providing and maintaining Poor Law schools and infirmaries, and the guardians concerned have no direct control over such institutions.

8. The Metropolitan Asylums Board is a central Poor Law authority, but it has no jurisdiction over the boards of guardians, nor are its duties confined to poor relief. It is composed of seventy-three managers, of whom fifty-five are appointed triennially by the several boards of guardians, from inside or outside their own bodies, and eighteen are nominated by the Local Government Board. The Metropolitan Asylums Board provides and maintains imbecile asylums and special schools for Poor Law children; it also provides hospitals for infectious diseases and an ambulance service for patients suffering from these diseases.

9. The Council and the common council of the city provide asylum accommodation for pauper lunatics belonging to their respective areas; and they are also responsible through their asylums committees, for the maintenance of pauper lunatics who have settlements in London unions, and the expense is charged to such unions. The existing system of charging the cost of pauper lunatics is unnecessarily complicated and cumbersome, and the effect is in many respects unsatisfactory.

A separate statement dealing with this branch of the subject has been placed before the Royal Commission.

10. The expenditure of the London Poor Law authorities for the year 1904-5, the latest year for which complete figures are available, was, according to the local taxation Returns, as follows:—

	£
Guardians of the poor - -	3,416,986
Managers of school districts - -	112,735
Managers of sick asylum districts - -	104,871
Metropolitan Asylums Board - -	1,002,521
	4,637,113

11. Receipts-in-aid, however, amounted to £278,843, leaving the net expenditure borne by rates as £4,358,270. About 68 per cent. of this net expenditure was borne equally over the whole county of London, including the amounts centralised by the operation of the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund and the county grants (central funds administered by the Local Government Board and the Council respectively), and the expenditure of the Asylums Board. But the systems whereby so large a proportion of Poor Law expenditure is centralised are exceedingly and unnecessarily complicated. Much of the expenditure is incurred by central authorities, and by them charged upon local authorities who are afterwards enabled to charge it upon a common fund; while some items of expenditure are actually centralised twice over.

12. The present system of Poor Law administration in London admittedly leaves much to be desired both as regards the election, constitution, and jurisdiction of the various authorities, and the centralisation and control of expenditure. The division of services between several central and several local authorities has led to much overlapping. Thus the Council, through the Asylums Committee, is responsible for the maintenance of pauper lunatics, but the Metropolitan Asylums Board is responsible for the maintenance of such pauper lunatics as might, in accordance with the Lunacy Act, 1890, be detained in a workhouse. The Council is responsible for the education of all children (including Poor Law children) who attend elementary schools, while the guardians, the school district managers and the Metropolitan Asylums Board are responsible for the education of children maintained in Poor Law schools. The Council is the central health authority for the county, but the Metropolitan Asylums Board maintains hospitals for infectious diseases for the same area. The Council is responsible for the custody of children sent from police courts to industrial and reformatory schools, while the Metropolitan Asylums Board is responsible for the custody of children sent to remand homes. Notifications of infectious diseases are sent to the Metropolitan Asylums Board by the medical officers of health of the metropolitan boroughs, but the cost of maintaining the Board's hospitals for infectious diseases is charged upon the Poor Law unions. Such a conflict of jurisdiction causes confusion and unnecessary expenditure. The cost of maintaining the inmates in the different institutions varies to a remarkable extent, a fact which points to the need both for an alteration of the system and more economical administration.

Principles on which Reforms should proceed.

13. Very careful consideration has been given to the question of the principles which the Council should adopt in expressing its views to the Royal Commission.

14. It is desirable, from the point of view of good government, that the number of authorities within one area of administration should be as few as possible, consistent with efficiency, and the trend of recent legislation has been in the direction of unification of administration and concentration of authorities. The Local Government Act, 1888, united the administration of the county justices and that of the Metropolitan Board of Works in the hands of the Council. The London Government Act, 1899, united the administration of the overseers, vestries and district boards in the hands of the metropolitan borough councils. The Education Act, 1903, amalgamated the educational powers of the School Board for London with those of the Council. The City of London (Union of Parishes) Act, 1907, has concentrated the powers of 112 separate parish authorities in the City Corporation.

15. It is desirable that reform should proceed on this principle, and that in London the powers and duties of the Poor Law authorities, some of which are municipal in character or closely associated with that class of work, should be vested in municipal authorities.

Consolidation of Local Administrative Authorities.

16. The Council is of opinion that all local administration should be concentrated in the hands of one local authority in each district, and the City Corporation, the council of the City of Westminster and the metropolitan borough councils are obviously the appropriate bodies to undertake Poor Law duties which are local in character. These authorities already perform duties similar to those of the guardians of the poor, such as the administration of the Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905. Both the metropolitan borough councils and the guardians of the poor are elected by the same electorate, and there is now no material difference between their constitution, as women may be elected to serve on metropolitan borough councils as well as on boards of guardians.

17. The question of areas presents little difficulty. Seventeen Poor Law unions are conterminous with metropolitan boroughs; three and four Poor Law unions respectively are within the City of Westminster and the metropolitan borough of Stepney; the Hackney and Wandsworth Unions each comprise two entire metropolitan boroughs; and in only five unions do the boundaries conflict with those of the Metropolitan boroughs. The Council on April 10th, 1906, expressed the opinion that advantage would be derived from the assimilation of the London Poor Law and municipal areas.

18. The Council proceeds on the principle that every duty which can best be performed locally should be in the hands of the metropolitan borough councils, and that only such powers as cannot be conveniently and economically exercised by those authorities should be centralised.

19. In the City Corporation, the council of the City of Westminster, and the metropolitan borough councils should therefore be vested the duties of the guardians and of the managers of sick asylum districts with respect to all local Poor Law matters, such as workhouses and infirmaries, casual wards, and outdoor relief. It is essential that all applicants for relief should be dealt with by authorities having intimate knowledge of local conditions. This branch of Poor Law work is the most important and demands a large amount of time and care, as the local authorities have to discriminate between outdoor relief and indoor relief, and under any reformed system of classifying paupers they would no doubt have to make detailed inquiries as to applicants and decide as to the kind of treatment. An exception should, however, be made in the case of children in respect of whom relief is granted to parents, either by in-maintenance or out-relief. If the cost of maintaining a child is thrown, wholly or partially, upon the ratepayers, the education authority should have the control of such child, inasmuch as its maintenance and education cannot well be separated, except by leaving it in the hands of parents receiving out-relief. In that event there would be no guarantee that the child itself would enjoy the benefit intended. Under the Education (Provision of Meals) Act, 1906, the education authority has the power to feed necessitous children; and complete control would enable it to secure that the whole benefit, both of maintenance and education, should accrue to the child.

20. The workhouses belonging to the unions whose areas are conterminous with metropolitan boroughs could no doubt be managed by the borough councils equally as well as by the guardians. Where several unions are within one borough, viz., in Stepney and Westminster, the concentration of workhouse administration would probably conduce to economy. In Hackney and Wandsworth where two Metropolitan boroughs are comprised within one Poor Law union, the workhouse is in each case too small for the indoor paupers chargeable to the unions. If, however, there were no need for additional accommodation in the county as a whole, it would be possible for the workhouses in these cases to be managed by joint committees. In the few cases where the union and borough boundaries conflict, it happens that the local situation of the buildings would apparently give rise to no practical difficulties.

21. To the same authorities should also be transferred services of a municipal character, such as assessment, registration of births, deaths and marriages, and vaccination.

22. With regard to assessment, the trend of legislation has been to transfer these powers to municipal authorities. Before the Valuation (Metropolis) Act, 1869, all assessment committees were appointed by boards of guardians, but under that Act, sixteen assessment committees were appointed by guardians and fifteen by vestries. Since the London Government Act, 1899, came into force only seven assessment committees have been appointed by guardians. The City of London (Union of Parishes) Act, 1907, transfers the appointment of the city assessment committee to the corporation, so that only six out of the twenty-six assessment committees will in future be appointed by guardians. In two cases (Hackney and Wandsworth) where assessment committees are appointed by guardians, such committees act for areas comprising the whole of two metropolitan boroughs, but in the other instances (Holborn, Greenwich, Woolwich and Lewisham) confusion and inequality of assessment is caused. As each union area contains parts of borough areas, the remaining parts of which are in other union areas, the union assessment committees cannot reconcile the bases of assessment adopted by the metropolitan borough councils concerned, who are the authorities for making the valuation lists, without creating discrepancies within the borough areas themselves. Thus the appointment of assessment committees by boards of guardians leads to conflict with metropolitan borough councils. Apart from the question of uniformity and simplicity of local Government it is of greater importance that there should be equality of assessment within the metropolitan boroughs than within the Poor Law unions, because there is a larger amount of borough council expenditure than of Poor Law expenditure borne locally.

23. Registration of births, deaths and marriages is essentially a municipal duty, intimately affecting the public health administration of the borough. This fact is recognised by the Notification of Births Act, 1907, which provides for an additional and immediate notification of births to the municipal medical officers of health in districts where the Act is adopted. The transfer of all registration duties to the municipal authorities would remove the anomaly and confusion arising from the obligation to notify births both at the town hall and to the registrar, while the further information obtained by the latter would be valuable for public health purposes. A majority of the metropolitan borough councils have expressed themselves in favour of a transfer of these powers and duties.

24. Vaccination is a public health service closely associated with the registration of births, and it is anomalous that the duty of preventing or suppressing smallpox and of enforcing the Vaccination Acts should be vested in different authorities, who may possibly hold opposite views.

25. For the purpose of dealing with the local administration of the Poor Laws, each of the local authorities should, in the opinion of the council, appoint a special Poor Law or relief committee. In view of the nature of the work, it would be desirable for such a committee to be composed, as to the majority, of members of the local authority, and that there should be provision for co-opted or appointed members, including women. This would allow of the appointment of persons whose experience in philanthropic, charitable or poor relief work would be valuable but who might be indisposed to stand for election as councillors. The committee might have independence as regards administration, subject to reporting their proceedings to the parent body, but their expenditure would, of course, be controlled by the local authority.

26. The other transferred duties should, in the opinion of the Council, be referred to existing appropriate committees of the local authorities. The revision of the valuation lists should, it is submitted, be placed in the hands of a statutory assessment committee, as in other metropolitan boroughs, and the remaining transferred duties for the most part be in the nature of health services which might be associated with the general local medical service.

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23 Mar. 1908.

Anomalies of existing system of assessment in London.

Advantages of transferring registration and vaccination to Borough Councils.

Proposal for Borough Councils to appoint Poor Law Committees, co-opted.

Scheme for execution by Borough Councils of Guardians non-Poor Law duties.

Mr. Ernest Gray,
M.A. ;
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Sir Shirley F. Murphy,
M.D. ;
Mr. Edgar J. Harper.

The Central Poor Law Authority for London.

23 Mar. 1908.

Advantages of making County Council Central Poor Law Authority in London.

27. Having dealt with the authorities for the local administration of the Poor Law and other duties at present performed by boards of guardians, there arises the question of the central authority to be charged with the administration of Poor Law and certain other powers and duties, mainly central in character, and now in the hands of Poor Law authorities, which it is necessary or desirable should be in the hands of a central body.

28. The Metropolitan Asylums Board is the only local authority other than the Council which performs any central Poor Law functions in London, but this board would disappear with the abolition of the boards of guardians, inasmuch as it is mainly composed of persons elected by those bodies. There are therefore alternative courses—(1) To establish a new central county Poor Law Board, or (2) to vest the powers and duties in question in the Council.

29. Reference has already been made to the confusion arising from the conflicting jurisdiction of the various authorities and to the desirability of limiting, so far as is consistent with efficiency, the number of authorities within administrative areas.

30. It is of great importance that one authority should be responsible for central rates, and should be in a position to determine the relative claims of county services; competition between authorities must inevitably lead to increased burdens on the ratepayers generally and a shifting of responsibility. Difficulties would arise in dealing with Poor Law schools, if poor relief and education services were entrusted to two central authorities; and the relations between the central and the local authorities, which it is desirable to improve, would be complicated. The council has had experience in the management of pauper lunatic asylums and in educational administration, and has, therefore, machinery for the economical management of the imbecile asylums and special Poor Law schools of the Metropolitan Asylums Board.

31. Having carefully considered the matter in all its bearings, the council has arrived at the conclusion that, subject to the provision of the machinery hereafter mentioned, the council should be the central Poor Law authority for London.

32. To deal with the large and important duties which would devolve upon it, it is essential that the central Poor Law authority for London should appoint a special committee. This committee might consist, as to the majority, of members of its own body, and should include persons representative of the City Corporation and the metropolitan borough councils, and a number of co-opted or appointed members. All matters relating to the exercise by the council of its powers under the suggested scheme, exclusive of matters referred to other committees of the council, should stand referred to this committee. Following the precedent of the Education Act, 1902, it would be well also to allow the central authority to delegate to the committee all or any of such powers, except those of raising a rate or borrowing money. The suggested constitution of this Central Poor Law Committee is similar to that of education committees. Precedents for the inclusion of appointed members are to be found in the present constitution of the Metropolitan Asylums Board and the Central (Unemployed) Body, upon both of which the Local Government Board appoints members.

Transfer of Metropolitan Asylums Board imbecile asylums to the London County Council the remedy for existing overlapping in control of pauper lunatics.

33. The asylums for lunatics now under the control of the Metropolitan Asylums Board, which for the purposes of the Lunacy Act, 1890, are workhouses, should be transferred to the council as county asylums. This would remove the anomaly of two central authorities providing and administering asylums for the lunatic poor. The distinction between the class of lunatic receivable in the asylums controlled by the Metropolitan Asylums Board and many of those in the London county asylums is practically imperceptible. The council, under the Lunacy Act, 1890, is the local authority which has to provide, through a visiting committee, asylum accommodation for lunatics. The definition of a "lunatic" under the Lunacy Act is "an idiot or person of unsound mind." This definition is sufficiently wide to include all the inmates of the Metropolitan Asylums Board's asylums. Under the provisions of the Lunacy Acts, 1890 and 1891, lunatics duly certified may be kept in workhouses, if they are suitable cases for a workhouse and there is accommoda-

tion for them. The workhouse accommodation for lunatics in respect of London unions and parishes has been provided by the Metropolitan Asylums Board. One of the chief duties for which this Board was created was that of providing accommodation for "such harmless persons of the chronic or imbecile class as could be lawfully retained in a workhouse." Failing accommodation for lunatics in the workhouses (*i.e.*, the Metropolitan Asylums Board's asylums), the Council, as the authority to provide accommodation for lunatics generally, becomes responsible to provide also for a class which it otherwise would not have to deal with, because they could be kept in the workhouses. In 1890, when the council took over the control of the London county asylums, the number of London lunatics certified for asylum treatment was 10,104, while the number certified for detention in a workhouse (*i.e.*, in the Metropolitan Asylums Board's asylums), was 5,566, or rather more than a third of the total number. On January 1st, 1908, however, the number of London lunatics in asylums was 19,249, but the number in Metropolitan Asylums Board asylums was 6,531, only a little more than one-fourth of the total number. As a consequence, the London county asylums contain a large proportion of quiet chronic cases of the class fit to be kept in a workhouse. Moreover, owing to the present division of authority, there are frequently vacant beds in the Metropolitan Asylums Board's asylums, whilst the county asylums are crowded. If all the asylums were under one authority classification would be simplified and this difficulty would be removed.

34. As the council already has machinery for administering lunatic asylums, namely, the Asylums Committee appointed under the Lunacy Act, 1890, no alteration of the powers and duties of that Committee is called for under the council's proposals; but the asylums of the Metropolitan Asylums Board might be entrusted to them to be administered as county asylums. It is only logical that this course should be adopted. In order, however, to cope with the additional work which the administration of five new asylums would impose on the Committee, it might be necessary to increase their numbers, and this could most conveniently be done by giving them power to co-opt members. There are many duties which members of a visiting committee have to perform at the asylums which could well be discharged by persons co-opted for the purpose, *e.g.*, the statutory visitations and the discharging of patients. But it is proposed to limit the co-option so that the elected members would have full control of expenditure.

35. The powers and duties of the Metropolitan Asylums Board in relation to hospitals for infectious diseases, ambulances and other health services would also under such a scheme be transferred to the council and administered by a suitable committee. These services are obviously of a municipal character, falling within the domain of public health rather than that of Poor Law. They should, therefore, be undertaken by a municipal and not by a Poor Law authority. They are essentially central in character and could not be so efficiently and economically performed locally.

36. The duties of the Metropolitan Asylums Board and the boards of guardians with respect to the care and education of children have yet to be dealt with. The first-mentioned authority has charge of special Poor Law schools for children suffering from ophthalmia, ringworm and mental deficiency; and there are also the schools provided by joint boards for school districts, and in some cases by individual boards of guardians. The Metropolitan Asylums Board is responsible for the custody of children under remand and has provided homes for their reception.

37. There has been on foot for some time a movement having for its object the removal of the stigma attaching to Poor Law children. Endeavours are being made to dissociate from the workhouses as much as possible children who have become chargeable to the unions. "Cottage Homes" and "Scattered Homes" have been provided by Poor Law authorities where children are brought up under more home-like influences than are possible in workhouses. In the case of "Scattered Homes," the children are sent to ordinary local elementary schools, but in the case of "Cottage Homes" schools have, in some instances, been erected on the estates.

Advantages of transferring to the Council the Metropolitan Asylums Board's asylums and lunatics.

Metropolitan Asylums Board powers to infectious diseases should be transferred to London County Council.

Reason for transferring to the Education Authority all powers to relieve children.

33. The provision of education by Poor Law authorities is anomalous. The council, as the education authority for London, is required to provide free education for all children in the county, and has provided schools and institutions similar to those above mentioned, viz: special schools for mentally and physically defective children, and blind, deaf and dumb children, as well as for children suffering from certain diseases; it manages residential institutions like industrial and truant schools; and it is responsible for children sent to reformatory and industrial schools.

39. The transfer of these powers to the council, as education authority, would be to the benefit of the county ratepayers, upon whom the greater part of the cost now falls, for there is little doubt that their administration by the council would result in considerable economy being effected. At the present time considerable difficulty arises in the matter of the provision of school accommodation owing to the shifting of population. If effect were given to the foregoing proposal, the council would be in a position to overcome this difficulty by placing in a district in which there was an excess of accommodation some of the Poor Law children under its care. There can be no doubt that the transfer of the service to the council would benefit the children, who would be removed from association with the Poor Law and all its attendant disadvantages. There would be a further advantage so far as the children are concerned in that the council would be able to discriminate between the various classes of Poor Law children, and so abolish any undesirable segregation which may obtain at present.

40. It is proposed, therefore, that there should be transferred to the council, which might act through its Education Committee, the powers and duties of the Metropolitan Asylums Board in respect of special schools for Poor Law children and remand homes, and also the management of institutions and homes for Poor Law children now in the hands of boards of guardians and joint boards for school districts, the education of Poor Law children, and the maintenance of Poor Law children other than those maintained in workhouses, provided, however, that the cost of maintenance of Poor Law children, apart from education, shall not be charged upon the amount included in the county rate for educational purposes. The council attaches importance to the continuance of the interest displayed by persons and societies in the welfare of Poor Law children, and suggests that, where possible, local committees should aid in the management of the institutions and homes above referred to.

41. If the administration of the Poor Law were placed in the hands of municipal authorities solely responsible for the local rates, it is probable that a larger measure of independence might be accorded to them than is possible under the present system. It would, however, be necessary to make provision for some co-ordination by the central Poor Law authority such as in administration, the sanction of loans, the erection of buildings, and other matters.

42. The loans of boards of guardians and of sick asylum district managers are subject to the sanction of the Local Government Board, whilst the loans of the Metropolitan Borough Councils are, with certain exceptions, subject to the sanction of the council. The existence of two sanctioning authorities for loans raised on the security of the rates of the same area, is in the council's opinion, not conducive to the efficient control of local indebtedness. The council, therefore, desires to represent to the Royal Commission the desirability of the council being made the sanctioning authority for all loans in connection with Poor Law services.

43. A table prepared by the Local Government Board as to the accommodation and occupation of the various workhouses and infirmaries on February 10th, 1906, indicated that the workhouses of seventeen London unions were too large for the paupers belonging to such unions, the total excess of accommodation being 3,259 places. On the other hand, the workhouses of fourteen unions were inadequate for the accommodation of the paupers belonging to such unions, the total deficiency being 3,706 places (excluding the new Hammersmith workhouse not then occupied), the net deficiency being 447. After providing for the accommodation of paupers in the workhouses which had surplus places (without as

well as within London), there was an excess of places in the workhouses of fifteen of the London unions amounting to 2,255, and an excess of inmates in the workhouses of fifteen London unions amounting to 1,799, a net excess of places amounting to 456. The infirmaries of seventeen unions had an excess of 1,031 places, whilst those of eight unions had deficiencies amounting to 485 places. The new infirmary at Hammersmith, with 374 beds, increased the net excess of places to 920.

44. Any regulations with respect to the classification of paupers would probably be prescribed by the Local Government Board.

45. There would still remain the necessity for co-ordination as between London and the rest of England, and this could best be provided for by the Local Government Board, in whose hands the audit of accounts should also remain.

46. In any change of the Poor Law system in London the opportunity should, it is submitted, be taken to remove the anomaly arising from the fact that the Local Government Board acts as a local rating authority with respect to the administration of the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund, a central fund for the equalisation of Poor Law expenditure. The council administers the county grants, which are mainly in aid of Poor Law expenditure and also the equalisation fund in aid of municipal expenditure. It is most desirable that all these central funds should be administered by one and the same authority. Any question of redressing existing anomalies in the administration of these central funds is outside the scope of this statement, which, as already stated, is confined to the question of the administration of the Poor Laws in London.

97474. (*Chairman.*) I wish to be quite clear about this scheme. You would propose to transfer to the Poor Law borough councils all the duties at present discharged by the Poor Law guardians as regards Poor Law proper, except those relating to education?—Yes.

97475. You do so on the ground that you think that every duty which can be best performed locally should be in the hands of the Metropolitan borough councils?—Yes.

97476. You think under this scheme that it would be possible or probable that a larger degree of independence should be accorded to the borough councils than is possible under the present system?—Yes.

97477. That being so, I assume that the borough councils would have all the institutions at present vested in each separate board of guardians, vested in them.—Yes. We suggest that they would take over all local Poor Law services, including the maintenance of the workhouses, the infirmaries, the casual wards, and outdoor relief with one exception specified in the scheme; and in addition, they would take over the municipal services now discharged by the boards of guardians.

97478. They would, in that way, have the same powers of control over the appointment and promotion of their officials which are at present exercised by the local guardians?—Subject to such control as might be exercised by the central authority for London acting through a composite committee of the County Council.

97479. Would they be allowed to make their own contracts?—That is a question we have considered. Without coming to a definite decision, we thought it probable that the central committee would make arrangements with the borough councils for contracts on a large scale.

97480. Those two points are not mentioned in the Statement, but, as you will see, they are a serious curtailment of the existing powers of boards of guardians?—Yes. With regard to contracts, although the council express no definite opinion upon the subject by resolution, the view is strongly held by many members of the council that it would be an advantage to London if with regard to the purchase of material it could be accomplished by a central authority.

97481. Now let us go to the question of the officers. Was it the idea that the whole Poor Law services of London should be run as a whole?—Was that the point of view that the London County Council was to interfere, or was the promotion to go on as it practically goes on now within each area?—It was to go on within each area,

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23 Mar. 1908.

Local Government Board to make regulations as to classification and uniformity of Poor Law administration. Reasons for transferring to L.C.C. control of Metropolitan Common Poor Fund.

Proposed Poor Law powers of London Borough Councils

especially as to officers and contracts

Mr. Ernest Gray, M.A. ;
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Mr. Edgar J. Harper.

subject to that criticism which we thought would naturally arise by bringing together representatives of the local and central authorities.

97482. Now coming to the central authority I see you propose to transfer to the central authority all the duties at present discharged by the Metropolitan Asylums Board ?—In substance, yes.

97483. You also propose to take over and transfer to the central authority the education of Poor Law children ?—Yes, subject to the reservation with regard to charges.

97484. You mean that all charges in connection with these children should be levied on the local poor rate, and not on the general county rate, or rather that part of it dealing with education ?—Not on that part of the rate which is devoted to education.

97485. We have taken an enormous amount of evidence about London. Poor Law reformers, or those who wish changes in the Poor Law have been unanimous on one or two points. The great evil they say of the present system of Poor Law administration in London is that there is no uniformity ?—Granted.

97486. It seems to me that you would perpetuate under this scheme the present lack of uniformity ?—We hardly think that. We feel that it is to the advantage of local government that every section of the community should come under the constant observation of the local borough council, and for that reason we are anxious that the section of the local population which comes into contact at the present time with the Poor Law and its officials should in future come into closer contact with the borough councillor. But while we recognise that in striving to maintain that advantage there is the risk of diversity of treatment, we thought we should remove that by the institution of what, for want of a better term, I might call the Poor Law Committee of the London County Council, which would be a committee consisting of representatives of the County Council, persons representative of the local borough councils, and others who are engaged in Poor Law work, who might be co-opted or appointed. We thought, having regard to the fact that the greater part of the charges would fall upon a common fund, and that every section of London would therefore be interested in securing good administration and economical administration, that criticism, and ultimately direction, would be sufficient to bring all the local governing bodies to one common line, and would prevent any wide diversity of treatment. Without imposing any very strict regulations at the outset we thought that similarity of treatment would be evolved rather than decided upon at the outset.

97487. The difficulty of Poor Law administration is this—that the decisions of those who are on the relief committees practically determine the principles and policy of the board to which they belong ?—Yes, that is so.

97488. Unless the board upsets their decisions those decisions therefore become governing factors. At the present moment in London there is the widest diversity of opinion, as you know, in the administration of the Poor Law ?—Quite so.

97489. If you hand these powers over to the borough councils, the probability—and the certainty, I think—is that the work of the Poor Law committee of the borough council will become a mere factor at the periodical elections, and I think it is almost certain that in some parts of London, possibly say in Bermondsey, Camberwell or Poplar, the majority may be in favour of an adequate and generous system of outdoor relief, while in other parts of London you may probably have all outdoor relief refused ?—Yes.

97490. What, under those conditions, would the Central Authority do after they had put the borough councils in the position indicated in this Statement ?—If the Central Authority had the administration of the common poor fund they would have behind them a large force which would enable them to give effect to the regulations which they issue.

97491. (Mr. Lansbury.) Do you mean now the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund ?—Yes.

97492. That does not touch outdoor relief, does it ?

97493. (Chairman.) I understand they might refuse to make the contribution to which the guardians would

be entitled ?—That is it, or rather to which the borough council would be entitled.

97494. (Mr. Lansbury.) Towards the cost of indoor administration ?—Yes. We thought we could say to them for example: "You are proceeding upon very wasteful lines; in another district this has been worked with equal efficiency and far more economically; if you proceed upon your present lines you will have to bear a large proportion of the cost of administering the Poor Law locally. (Mr. Pilditch.) And, of course, outdoor relief might remain entirely a charge upon the local rates.

97495. (Chairman.) It is now ?—Yes, it might remain as now.

97496. That does not establish uniformity ?—No, but the principle is that those who give it have to pay for it.

97497. Would that not put you in a greater difficulty ? The local authority says: "You have handed over to us these duties; our constituents have said there is to be a system of outdoor relief, and they have to pay for it." It would be exceedingly difficult for you, then, to say: "We will stop contributing towards the indoor relief ?"—Possibly; but the cure then would be found in the power of the local ratepayer to say: "We have to pay the whole cost of local relief, and we having to pay the piper shall call the tune."

97498. Take the case where the mass of the people, or at any rate a very large proportion of the voters are compounders; the burden of the rates is not felt by them in the same way as by those who pay the rates directly, is it ?—Not directly; but in many districts in London there is now a very strong movement for making it clear to the poorest class of ratepayers how the rent is made up.

97499. Do you really think in these days when, perhaps properly, sentiment and emotion play a big part in public life, that you could refuse the funds necessary for indoor maintenance because a borough council in response to an election determined on a system of generous outdoor relief ?—I think any necessity to stop anything of that sort, as I said a moment ago, would not arise, because of the fact that all outdoor relief would have to be paid for directly out of the pockets of the local people.

97500. That is the system now, and in practice there is the widest divergence prevailing in the different unions ?—Yes, because the expenditure is in the hands of more or less irresponsible bodies, and not in the hands of one central, rate-raising, body for the whole district, which depends directly upon its electorate for its power. And uniformity might arise out of the laying down of general rules as to the payment of relief and specifying means of enforcing them.

97501. That body, do you think, should be the London County Council, or the boroughs, which ?—The boroughs.

97502. Do you think there is much difference in certain parts of London between the boards of guardians and the borough councils ?—There is an immense difference. (Mr. Gray.) Undoubtedly. You have only to look at the percentage of the electorate which records its votes.

97503. Surely they are very often the same thing ?—They are; but strangely enough the electors take a far greater interest in the election of the borough councils—and that is particularly noticeable during the last few years—than they do in the election of boards of guardians. You have only to look at the percentage of the electorate recording their votes; I think the last board of guardians election it was only 28 per cent.

97504. (Mr. Lansbury.) Was not that because the electors had probably got very sick of elections ? You had first the borough council election, then the General Election, then the county council election, and then the guardians election came last of all ?—Yes, that was so on the last occasion; but at the previous board of guardians election the percentage was even lower—it was 24 per cent.

97505. The board of guardians election always comes last, does it not; first you have the borough council election; then the county council election, and finally the guardians election ?—Yes. But you have further evidence of this electoral apathy in the very large number of wards not contested.

97506. Exactly; that was because people's interest had died out ?—There seems to be a general notion

Finance of proposed transfer of relief of children to education authority. Effect of L.C.C. for Poor Law government of London on uniformity.

Effect of L.C.C. scheme for Poor Law government of London on uniformity.

Apathy of voters. Guardians' election and reasons therefor.

Appt of
voter at
Guarans'
elect is and
reason
there.

about amongst ratepayers that it does not particularly matter what you do at the board of guardians election. There is a vague idea that the whole of the money, or the greater part of the money, is coming from some central fund, and that they will only contribute a very small proportion of it.

97507. Do you suppose they are thinking about the money part of it at all?—In a vague way, yes. That is my experience of the last twenty-five years of public work in London. There is a vague sort of notion that the money is coming, not from their own pockets, but generally from all London, and that the general rates are going to contribute very largely to the relief of the poor, and therefore in these poorer districts they may spend quite liberally, and it will not make much difference to them. I think, too, that very much depends upon the present isolation of boards of guardians, and their inability to scientifically study the question. I am myself founding large hopes upon the influence which a central committee would exercise by a careful examination of the various methods adopted in the different districts, and by bringing the successes of the one before the representatives of the other in the hope that those successes would be imitated.

Possibility of
Poor Law
Committee
of L.C.
exercising
effective
control over
the borough
councils
etc.; as
local Poor
Law
authorities.

97508. What machinery did you propose for the Central Authority to ascertain what is going on and to bring their views to bear on the Poor Law authorities and the borough councils?—We thought the county council would constitute a Poor Law committee which would consist as to a majority of its members—

97509. That would not give them information; they must have some machinery by which they could get information, and by which they could investigate questions?—We have not considered the question of machinery.

97510. Is that not vital?—I presume that the committee being once constituted, the council would empower it to take such measures and to appoint such officers as they might think necessary to secure information throughout the whole of London.

97511. You put the discharge of these local duties into the hands of the borough council, and they have direct sanction behind them by the vote of their constituents; any interference by the Central Authority would therefore be resented, unless it had been prescribed and laid down, and a mere recommendation from a committee would be of no use unless you had a system of inspection and of report somewhat similar to that which the Local Government Board have in connection with the Poor Law guardians?—Possibly, but we do not find conflict arise in the administration of the Public Health Acts. We are to some extent a central authority for public health, and the borough council is the local sanitary authority. We have succeeded in establishing cordial relations and complete co-operation in many branches of the public health, and why should we not secure that same co-operation in the administration of the Poor Law?

97512. You think that the public health and the Poor Law are quite on the same level?—To some extent. They are mixed up already.

97513. But in the one case you deal generally with property, and so on, and with the prevention of disease; and in this other case you deal with a mass of individuals whose conditions vary, and on the individual decisions taken depends very much the policy of the local authority. I can only give you my opinion, and that is that the Poor Law work seems to be far more difficult than any other local work that any local authority can undertake; I think you will agree there?—I do agree.

97514. Just follow that up a little. You would not get uniformity under this scheme, and the only pressure you have got by which to establish uniformity is to deny to the local authority the means of making adequate provision for indoor relief. Do you think really that in times of pressure, and it is probable that in times of pressure that your scheme will be most tested, that the Central Authority should have recourse to that pressure?—The alternative presents even greater difficulties, I think.

97515. The alternative of what?—Of the complete centralisation of control.

97516. I admit the difficulty of the situation, but I am rather looking at this scheme as it is. It does not seem to me that you secure, or are at all likely to secure, what is one of the main objects of nearly all Poor Law reformers in London, that is uniformity?—Granted. We thought—and I think so still—that we could, through a committee, given the commonsense which usually characterises representatives of public authorities, secure all the uniformity which is desirable. I will not say that you would secure complete uniformity, and I should not like to commit myself to the statement that absolute uniformity is desirable throughout London. The circumstances of the various localities differ so considerably that it might be essential that you should give a wider latitude in the one than in the other. I think even if you put the whole matter into the hands of a single central authority which started out with the idea of having complete uniformity, it would have to depart from that principle to some extent. I doubt whether the richer districts of London could be treated exactly on the same footing as the poorer, because the problems of life are not quite the same.

97517. No, but the conditions of the individual are pretty much the same?—Those conditions are the consequence of environment. Take the treatment of the poor; that seems to be very closely bound up with housing accommodation, with the administration of the laws of health and so forth, and in those respects we have not made the same progress in every quarter of London. You would have, therefore, to leave a certain elasticity of treatment. But I believe that the central committee working, as it were, through local agents as the borough councils in effect would be, would gradually string up the administration in one and possibly slacken it in another, until we had an approach to uniformity. I do not want to commit the council to the view that absolute uniformity is essential.

97518. We come now to the second point that almost all Poor Law reformers lay great stress on, namely, a better system of classification?—Granted.

97519. It is contended by them that if you want a really effective system of classification you ought to devote certain buildings to specific classes?—Yes; and I believe that we should secure that by friendly conference with borough councils, acting under the guidance and invitation of the Central Poor Law Committee. The complete system of classification would be of gradual growth. No one, I believe, would attempt to sit down and write off at once the various classes into which the paupers should be divided. I think an arrangement could very easily be made between the various borough councils whereby they would transfer from one district to another various sections of their poor, until you maintained in one district a particular class and in another district another class of the poor, possibly with as complete freedom as if the whole of the workhouses were under the direct management and control of the central authority. In some boroughs the accommodation is sufficient to allow of classification within that area.

97520. I do not see how your system would work under the classification you suggest. Each board of guardians at present has a workhouse and an infirmary, and to that workhouse and to that infirmary they send the different applicants for relief who they think should be treated indoors. You have suggested in answer to my questions that there should be certain buildings set apart in London to receive a certain class of pauper or other person. That destroys practically the whole of the autonomy of the Poor Law in London, because the children, the able-bodied, the infirm, and the aged of a particular locality would, under that, have to be sent to another locality and would be under another set of officers. It seems to me that there would be absolute chaos there. Who would be responsible for those officers? Who would inspect those institutions? The only way it seems to me you can in London maintain the present system is by making each locality self-contained, but having, perhaps, a body like the Metropolitan Asylums Board, which exists for the convenience of the local authorities. Classification such as you have suggested seems to me quite incompatible with the working of your scheme?—I do not think so. It seems to me that each one of these poor persons would come under the observation of the borough council Poor

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Gray,
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J. Harper.

23 Mar. 1908.

Difficulty of
ensuring
uniformity
in Poor Law
adminis-
tration.

Classification
of paupers
under
Borough
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Classification of paupers under Borough Councils.

Law committee in the first instance, and their conditions would be inquired into, the circumstances which led to the poverty, the life that the applicant had led, and so forth; and the borough council would then come to the conclusion: "This is a sort of patient who, for the future, had better be treated in a building which is not situated within our boundaries, but is in the adjoining district." They will have acquired at first hand a very large amount of information with regard to the particular applicant, and with regard to the circumstances which led to that person becoming an applicant for relief; and in making those inquiries they will have learnt much about their own particular district, which, it appears to me, they have now no opportunity of gaining, because now that work goes entirely to the Poor Law authorities and not to the borough council. The future care of the individual is not a matter of such supreme moment, to my mind, as the acquisition of the knowledge which the borough council would thus have gained. Having learnt all about the individual, his future care will not affect the life of the locality.

97521. But then, you see, I asked you whether you proposed a uniform Poor Law service for London, and you said not, but that the local authority was to have control over its own Poor Law service. Now, the classification, that is, the allocation of particular workhouses to a particular class of inmate, that inmate to be drawn from the whole of London, would necessitate a more or less universal service; you could not work it otherwise?—That is so. I am not binding the council to this, because the details of classification raise a question which the council did not go into closely, although our committee did, to some extent, consider it. I have to face either that, or what I regard as excessive centralisation; and while I admit that classification does, to some extent, break down local autonomy, the alternative is one I cannot contemplate.

Effect of excessive centralisation on local authorities.

97522. Just let us go to the central authority. You see at present the Metropolitan Asylums Board is not a controlling authority; it is a convenience for the various boards of guardians; but you propose to make the central authority a controlling authority?—Yes.

97523. When you set up a central authority and a number of local authorities who are to work together, the pivot of the whole arrangement is the relation between the central authority and the local authorities?—Granted.

97524. Your words in Paragraph 1 (j) are very vague, namely: "That such general co-ordination and control as may be necessary as regards the principle of administration, the sanction of loans, the provision of buildings, classification of paupers, and the like, should be exercised by the central Poor Law authority for London." Those words are sufficiently elastic to deprive the local authorities of almost any initial power; and the real difficulty of the situation is here only solved by very vague words?—The council was really pledging itself to broad principles expressed in the desirability of merging Poor Law in municipal administration, and in placing the administration of the Poor Law in its proper position with regard to the other services of London. It has not gone into minute detail as to the manner in which that central control would be exercised. (Mr. Pidditch.) Or the extent of it. (Mr. Gray.) That is so.

97525. Do you think it is possible to frame a scheme on such a foundation?—Yes. We think, for example, that where borough councils are asking for loans, they should require our consent, and that if that consent were refused they should not be able to go elsewhere, except perhaps it might be to the Local Government Board acting as umpire between us in some sort of appeal. We thought that would prevent a borough council needlessly pledging the rates in the construction of buildings which were not wanted. The present system, as you know better than we do, has led to some wasteful expenditure, and we thought that would be avoided by securing sanction for loans. We felt, too, that in the construction of buildings, apart from the mere question of the loans, the character of the building and the purpose for which it was to be used should be a matter of conference between the local authority and ourselves. We do not believe that local authorities act sometimes through malevolence, but we believe that they act through ignorance of what is transpiring even in the adjoining district, let alone what is happening in the other end of London.

97526. Just take that point. You say they act in ignorance, but it seems to me that in any difference between the local authority and the central authority it would be the local authority who would be informed and the central authority who would be in ignorance, because they have not any machinery by which they can inform themselves?—May I take an illustration? Take the relation which exists between the Board of Education at the present moment, and the 330 local education authorities throughout the country. Some of these local education authorities are important bodies such as the London County Council, the councils for Birmingham, and the West Riding of Yorkshire, which are great authorities—and they are supposed to be endowed by Parliament with very large powers; but, as a matter of fact, they exercise those powers under the direction of a central department situated in London, gaining its information of the locality through a comparatively small number of officers. But the central department is able to devote itself to a scientific study of the questions at issue and to direct and advise, by constantly changing regulations, the local authorities; and the central department can largely enforce the direction and advice which they give to the local authority, having in its hands a large Parliamentary grant. It seems to me that this is largely parallel to the plan which would be adopted in London. If we have in our hands a large central grant we should be able to advise the borough councils in the same manner that the Board of Education advises county councils on a subject quite as extensive, quite as expensive, and quite as important as the relief of the poor.

97527. That is putting the London County Council, as regards the Poor Law authorities in London, in the position that the Board of Education occupies as regards the education authorities throughout the country?—Quite so.

97528. But that is not the proposal in your Statement?—It is not contrary to that proposal.

97529. If you ask me to give you a better analogy it would be this: Would you apply that scheme to education in London?—I do not know that I would, but I know others who did when the Act of 1903 was submitted to Parliament. I think it was the proposal of the Conservative Government at that time.

97530. There have been various proposals made, and you have great experience and you are a great authority on education; would it be possible for the education of London to be managed on the principles laid down here, namely, that every borough council should have control over all its schools and over the services connected with those schools, and that the only hold which you had over them was to refuse them the grant necessary for carrying on education?—I do not admit that that is as close a parallel as the one I have drawn. One of the reasons why the control of education in London was not given by Parliament to the borough councils was the desirability of free movement amongst the officials, another was the constant movement amongst the parents from district to district.

97531. It was also surely in order to have one uniform system of education in London?—That was the line which I took.

97532. I think it is a very good line?—But you put it to me as an illustration. I know I had to fight for it very hard at the time.

97533. What I feel is that however happily disposed the borough councils may be towards the London County Council, they know that the Metropolitan Asylums Board exercises no control over them, but if the London County Council took over such functions as those of the Metropolitan Asylums Board, and the functions of the existing Poor Law guardians were transferred to the borough councils, I think the borough councils would resent being interfered with, and would say that it was a misuse of the powers which the Metropolitan Asylums Board previously had—I have not learnt from my friend, Mr. Pidditch, that he entertains that fear, although he is a borough councillor.

97534. Does it not really come to this: Is it not the almost universal experience of local administration, that if the central authority is to be a controlling and directing authority, that authority must have control over the

Analogy of Board of Education and suggested centralisation of Poor Law control.

Effect of centralisation on local authorities.

local committees, so as to require them to carry out its policy?—In general terms, yes; but as I pointed out, Parliament did make the county and borough councils autonomous, yet they do act under the direction of the Board of Education. You cannot say that Parliament gave in any Act a complete power to the Board of Education to revise the conduct of local authorities, or to compel local authorities to do certain things—with trifling exceptions; and yet there is a directing influence throughout, and a local authority which ran counter to the expressed views of the Board of Education would find very serious difficulty in carrying out its own views. Of course it could do it; we could disregard the Board of Education entirely; but we should have to reckon with the ratepayer immediately, as we should have to bear the whole cost, to throw the whole cost upon the London rate. Supposing the borough councils chose to resent this direction—I do not wish to call it control—if they chose to resent this, we could say: "Very well, go on, do it at your own expense, but you will get no help from the central fund. If you want to fall in with the central fund, you must fall in with the central regulations," (Mr. Pilditch.) or, in default, appeal to the Local Government Board. (Mr. Gray.) Yes, there could be that appeal.

97535. It seems to me that if you set up a central authority, that authority ought to be a reality, and I cannot see from these vague words that this authority would be a reality?—(Mr. Pilditch.) I think the vagueness of these words meant that the council perceived that a due measure of co-ordination and control was necessary; but that it would perhaps come more fitly from such a body as this Commission to say exactly how that is to be done, and the way in which that is to be worked out.

97536. That is, we should say upon this assumption, if you put this work upon a central authority and upon local authorities, the whole thing turns on the powers given to the central authority and to the local authorities, and if you do not define those, your scheme is practically without foundation?—You fear an absence of uniformity arising from an insufficiency of central control?

97537. I am only giving you my own views. My belief is that if you have a central authority, that central authority must, unless it is established for purposes of convenience like the Metropolitan Asylums Board, be supreme within the area, although it may delegate to any extent it chooses, its authority in certain matters to committees and such things?—We did not go so far as to assume that there should be delegation of powers given by the legislature to the county council from it to the borough councils. We worked from the other end rather. But, surely, if we provide for proper co-ordination and control in regard to the accommodation provided in workhouses, infirmaries, etc.; if we provide that all expenditure, loans, and such matters, should be first sanctioned by the central authority; if we provide for the laying down of principles upon which the classification of paupers should take place, of the principles upon which out-relief should be given, and of the principles upon which the general expenditure of the borough Poor Law committee should take place, with a provision for the revision of such expenditure where paid out of central funds—does that not go a long way to meet your point of the necessity of absolute central control?

97538. Yes?—If, beyond that, you say, assuming questions of difference arise between the suggested central authority and the suggested local authorities on points of importance or principle, there should be means of obtaining the decision of an even more central authority than the London County Council's Committee would be, namely, the Local Government Board, it certainly seems as though out of such principles it ought to be possible to devise a scheme which would be a working scheme of co-ordination and control.

97539. I daresay it would work if the central authority had those powers, but that is not the scheme here?—The words in 1 (j) "as may be necessary," are, I think, designedly meant to cover a good deal of what may be looked for from this Commission.

97540. Anybody reading this provision would think that the new local Poor Law authorities, that is, the borough councils, would have a larger measure of independence than the existing Poor Law authorities?—I think what is meant is this, that those words

relating to the larger powers to be given to the borough councils mean on points of detail. I think it is admitted that the control which the Local Government Board have been able to exercise over guardians in the past, although it has been exercised perhaps efficaciously with regard to many matters of detail—small expenditures, and the like—has perhaps, if we can judge from what one has read in the papers lately, not been altogether efficacious on larger matters. I think the idea of the council was that you might quite well give to a more representative, a larger and more important body, fuller powers of acting with regard to small matters—ordinary expenditures and the like—whereas you might, in fact, be putting them under greater control or regulation with regard to questions of method of principle.

97541. The powers you propose to give to the central authority are very large, and I do not at all dispute that such a scheme might be workable; but I know what the borough councils would say?—(Mr. Gray.) May I put it to you in this form, in reply to that suggested question? The council has not gone with care into every detail of the method under which the county council might become the central authority and the borough councils might become the local authorities; but they thought it might be of some service to this Commission if they placed before you the view that, assuming the central authority were necessary, the county council was prepared to become that authority; that such a decision, adopted as it was by both political parties in the council would not be without its value; and that the view also adopted that the borough councils could take over the work locally, might be helpful in deciding the future of London. But the exact method under which that should be brought into being, and the details of administration by the borough councils and by the county council, were not and would not be carefully considered by the county council, unless they were told "The general principles are adopted; now sit down and elaborate a scheme." This does not pretend to be a scheme dealing with the whole of the details of the subject; it deals with broad principles.

97542. And it is rather broad principles that I want to deal with. The difficulty that occurs to me is this: You propose to give very large powers indeed to the borough councils in connection with the Poor Law; then when I point out to you that the central authority under those conditions have little control over the borough councils, you, I think, suggest that they might have very large powers of control. Then, I ask, what would the borough councils say? That has quite altered their status. Admitting, as I think everybody would, that any proposals to set up an authority to carry on the whole Poor Law administration in London and all the local details is an impossibility, has it occurred to you at all that local committees might be appointed right throughout the London area, for which a central authority had been established for the purpose of Poor Law administration in which the county council and the borough councils would have joint votes?—That particular form of treatment was not considered by us. We have proceeded from the outset with the idea that you must not multiply the number of governing or administering bodies in London.

97543. But there would be no difference between this and your scheme in that sense, except that the committee would be under the control of the county council and would be partly appointed by them and partly appointed by the borough councils?—(Mr. Pilditch.) There is just the difference that the local committee in the council's proposal would be the direct outcome of the borough councils and of the locality, and that there would be a greater measure of autonomy in an arrangement based on that principle than in the one you suggest.

97544. I quite understand the difficulty; it is a most difficult problem?—Yes; whichever way you look at it, and from whichever point of view you look at it is difficult. I do not think anything that we have just mentioned with regard to the nature and extent of the powers of co-ordination and control that might be desirable go beyond the general words of 1 (j).

97545. These words are very wide?—They are very wide and they are purposely meant to be wide. It was hardly for the council to cross the t's and dot the i's of

Mr. Ernest Gray,
M.A.;
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L.C.C.;
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23 Mar. 1908.

Proposed Central Authority for Poor Law to be County Council.

Undesirability of multiplying administering bodies in London.

Mr. Ernest Gray,
M.A. ;
Mr. Philip E. Pidditch,
L.C.C. ;
Sir Shirley F. Murphy,
M.D. ;
Mr. Edgar J. Harper.

23 Mar. 1903.

Uniformity as to control of vagrants.

Education of institutional pauper children and allocation of rate therefor.

Proposed provisions for children on out-relief, and procedure as to obtainment.

how it was to act in the matter if made the central authority. That is more a matter which we thought should be left to some independent authority such as yourselves.

97546. You propose to leave the casual wards as they are under the direction of the different local authorities, I think?—They are more or less now centralised. They are centralised so far as inspection is concerned for the whole of London.

97547. How is control exercised over them?—Centrally from the Local Government Board. They are, I think, maintained by the guardians now, but they are under a special amount of central control.

97548. The proposal that there should be one uniform system as regards vagrants was a proposal of the Vagrancy Committee, was it not?—Yes.

97549. Now take the question of education. You make a suggestion here which I do not quite follow, that the children of the Poor Law should be handed over to the education authority, but that any cost connected with those children should be charged to the local or borough rate?—(Mr. Gray.) Not to the local or borough rate, I think, but to that part of the general county rate which is not allotted to education.

97550. That is to be a general charge, then?—It is a general charge but we do not want it to figure upon the demand note as part of the education rate. The feeling we have is that the whole future of education is being jeopardised by the large demands which are thrown upon that particular rate for services which, although indirectly educational are not directly educational; and while we should like to have the care of these children, their housing, clothing, trade-teaching, and school education, all being worked together in cottage homes or scattered homes—thus breaking up Poor Law schools—yet we should separate the total charge into a charge strictly educational and borne by the education rate, and a charge for housing, clothing and feeding which would fall on the general county rate which is not ear-marked for education.

97551. Did you propose to take over the children whose parents are in receipt of out-relief?—We propose to take over the whole of the children except those who are temporarily accommodated in workhouses. Then we propose under that scheme to deal with a class of children which in our judgment is very badly treated in London at the present time, namely, the children on whose behalf the parents are receiving out-door relief.

97552. How would the education authority deal with those cases? I can understand that you will take over the children in the institutions, and of course there will be no difficulty about them; but as regards this other class of children for whom the parent receives relief from the Poor Law authority and who are to be handed over to the education committee, who would investigate the cases; would it be the Poor Law authority or the education committee?—I should think that if the parent made application to the Poor Law authority and pleaded the difficulty of maintaining the child and asked for relief in respect of the child then the case would be transferred at once to the education officers for investigation. We are finding at the present time that some of these people are receiving out-door relief in respect of their child, and yet the child arrives at school breakfastless in the morning, and we are again having to find relief out of the Feeding of Children Fund, the relief money not having gone to the quarter for which it was intended. Then, too, we get so much wider a knowledge of these children day by day in the schools and learn so much more from them of their home conditions than one can learn with accuracy from the parents—the child, as a rule, speaks the truth.

97553. I am not quite aware what is the machinery; have you got local education committees in London who go into this class of case?—We have local managers, and we have an Anglicised *cantine scolaire* which we call the Children's Care Committee.

97554. In each locality?—Yes, associated with each school.

97555. Would the parents of these children go before one of these local committees?—I presume that the parents in applying for relief would in the first instance go to the borough council, the borough councils are represented upon all these committees through the

managers of the schools. Two thirds of each board of school managers are in London appointed by the borough council, the remainder being appointed by the county council, so that these school care committees are composite bodies already. If a case is brought under the notice of the local Poor Law authority, relief being asked for in respect of a child, then the case of that child would be at once transferred by the education committee or the Children's Care Committee for investigation. Of course, the child would have to be looked to at once, and provision at once made for its necessities. The inquiries are being very rapidly made in London; usually one day is quite sufficient to ascertain the whole of the particulars with regard to a child. We should then say to the parents: "Now, we will either feed this child ourselves through our Care Committee, and give him the clothing that he requires through the Care Committee, and continue his education, the child remaining at home; but you"—the parent—"will not touch any money at all in respect of that child; or, if you choose to hand the child over to us altogether, instead of continuing for several years in the receipt of outdoor relief on account of the child, we will treat him as though he were a child in a work-house school, place him under proper care, and feed, clothe and educate him."

97556. Would you fix the amount of relief to be given to the mother or would you in any way interfere with the arrangements made by the Poor Law authority?—We would give it in kind to the child. We would stop this monetary payment to the parent, which is given so often in respect of the child and which the child does not get; and we should look after the child. The general idea is that we can cut off the child altogether from contact with Poor Law administration and with the poverty of the home, and not only feed the child but give it that which the parent as a rule is quite incapable of doing, namely, the elements of a profitable occupation, so that there will be a better prospect of that child going out into the world as a wage-earner.

97557. Just let us see the process: A widow with three children comes, say, to the guardians in Bethnal Green; the case is investigated and there is outdoor relief given to her by the guardians. That is the present system. What would happen under your system? First the woman comes up before the Poor Law guardians; then what happens after that?—With three children of school age?

97558. No; say two of school age and one under?—With regard to the child under school age there, I think, very much would depend upon the results of the investigations made by the various officers concerned. It might be that the mother, that is, the widow is exceedingly fond of her children and well-informed as to the treatment of children. In such a case speaking personally, I would leave the child under five years of age with the mother and give her some form of financial assistance in respect of the child under school age. But if, on the other hand, I found, as one so very frequently would find, that her interest in the child was small and that her knowledge of the methods of treating the child was even less, that she was quite incapable either through her daily occupations or through her want of knowledge of taking care of the child, then I would suggest with regard to that child, that she had better transfer it to a nursery school and have it looked after there than continue under existing conditions. With regard to the children of school age, they are far more easily dealt with than the child under school age. Take those children of school age. Instead of giving her money for the benefit of those children you would relieve her of the expenditure which she incurs on behalf of the children, except such expenditure as she incurs on housing them—always with the alternative that if she cares to part with the child—and I do not think you can insist on her parting with the child—it would be in the interests of the child, and I believe in the long run of the ratepayers, that you should treat that child as though the child were deserted.

97559. (Mr. Bentham.) Who would be responsible for the maintenance of the child if the mother would not part with it?—The mother would be responsible for the housing of the child, but the Children's Care Committee would see that the child was fed and clothed.

97560. Even though they thought it might be more desirable that the child should be taken into an

Provisions for children on out-relief, and procedure as to obtainment.

Functions of Children's Care Committee

institution?—Yes. I do not think that public opinion would support you in saying to a parent, "You must part with the child."

97561. Would you give financial assistance?—No money would pass at all.

97562. What did you mean by "financial assistance" then when you said that financial assistance might be given to the mother to keep the child at home?—I was speaking then of the child under school age for whom you have no accommodation. I should like to draw a distinction between the home of which I have been speaking and the home of a fairly good standard and a well-informed mother who might be helped financially with regard to the child under school age. This question, the treatment of children under five years of age is a question into which, in another capacity I have been going somewhat closely during the last two years—as a member of the consultative committee of the Board of Education. It has been made perfectly clear by evidence which we have received there that you have two classes of parents to deal with—one being well-informed and desirous of taking care of the child; that parent can be trusted with money. But there are many of the others ill-informed, injuring the children's lives, quite incapable of taking care of them, squandering the money which they get in outdoor relief, and even when food or clothing is given not taking care that the child gets the benefit of that food and clothing. In those cases, which we may call for brevity bad homes, undoubtedly no money should pass between the relieving authority and the parents, but the relief should go in food and clothing to the child, who would be attending a public elementary school.

97563. In the case of a desirable home, what authority would grant the financial assistance?—The Poor Law authority.

97564. Not the education authority?—No; because that child would not be receiving education in school at all.

97565. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) In the case of the children who are receiving education, who would pay the rent if it were a family where there were four or five children of school age dependent on the mother, which is very commonly the case?—In the matter of rent—

97566. There is the rent, there is the doctor, and there are all the other things that make up the cost of home?—Yes, but there is a greater certitude if you give the mother money to meet the rent that she will have to pay that.

97567. She will have to pay it, do you say?—She will have to pay the rent, because if she does not she is ejected, and then you get her and her children entirely under Poor Law care. There is a power behind which will compel her to pay the rent; unfortunately there is no power behind which will compel her to give food and proper clothing to the child.

97568. (*Chairman.*) I do not quite follow this. A woman is living, say, in the East of London, or in the South of London; she becomes a widow, and she is left with children. I understand your object is that whatever public funds are given her should be utilised to the best purpose for the benefit of the children; but I do not quite see the process. Do the board of guardians give her certain relief, or are the board of guardians to hand the case over to the school authority?—She applies for relief to the Borough Council, acting as Poor Law authority. She makes out a case; she is a charwoman, left a widow with three children, and she picks up a wage of half-a-crown a day irregularly two or three days a week. It is proved that she has not a sufficient income to properly support these children, and some relief has to be given her. She may be able from her income to fully meet her rent, but she cannot manage to properly feed and clothe the children. That case is at once transferred to the education authority who make their investigations and relieve her of the burden of feeding and clothing the children. She can, on her own showing, pay her rent. If she is in such a condition of poverty that although it is not essential she should go into the workhouse with her children, she needs some help towards the cost of the rent, I assume that that payment would be made direct to her by the Poor Law authority, it being no part of the duty of the education authority to see that she and her children are housed, so long as she keeps those children. But if, on the other

hand, she were to part with the children who might have to go into a scattered home and be under the sole care of the education committee, then she would be, *pro tanto*, relieved of the obligation to pay rent in respect of the rooms occupied by those children.

97569. Then the woman would receive double relief—she would receive relief from the guardians and relief from the education body?—She might receive her relief in two portions if it were an acute case.

97570. Would that not be very inconvenient? These two authorities might differ, and one might consider that she was not entitled to relief?—I am afraid I have not made myself clear if that is the impression which I have left. I see no difficulty whatever in carrying through this procedure; the woman has applied for relief; she is seeking outdoor relief in respect of children—

97571. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) She would not say that; she would ask for relief?—She would state her circumstances.

97572. That is it?—The Poor Law authority would say: "Obviously the financial stress is consequent on the existence of these three children; if she had not these three children she would make both ends meet; very well, this is a case obviously for the education authority, because her difficulty is a difficulty arising out of the children."

97573. (*Mr. Loch.*) Is it part of the duty of the education authority to feed and care for children quite irrespective of their education?—Supposing she does not go to the Poor Law authorities at the present day, but she cannot afford to feed the child, then she sends the child to school and we have to feed it. We are feeding them every day—some 43,000 children were last week fed in London.

97574. I should think you would feed a great many more on your terms; you would feed half the population who are attending, would you not?—No.

97575. Is it not true that you have raised the number to be fed from 26,000 to 43,000 already this winter?—The number has been materially increased.

97576. It has been almost doubled—from 26,000 to 43,000?—I have not the last return at hand.

97577. You may take it from me that 26,000 was the figure before. Is that not a sign that your policy is bringing in a great number of people to be recipients of relief apart from education?—I am afraid the answer I shall have to give to that is one which I gave in the county council chamber the other day, and would be regarded as eminently controversial. I mean it is purely the outcome of the Act itself. (*Mr. Pidditch.*) Hear, hear. (*Mr. Gray.*) It is largely the outcome of political agitation which has induced people to make the claim; and it is largely due to the fact that the machinery was not in existence which would carefully scrutinise the applications. I am proposing that before the relief is given there should be a scrutiny; I do not say before any meal is given, because the first duty is to see the child is fed, but having done that it would not be continued till investigations were made. Then the demand has further been increased by the fact that no prosecutions have yet taken place, and no attempt has been made to recover the loans. There seems to be a wide-spread feeling at the moment that if attempts are made in the Courts to recover the constructive loans to parents in respect of meals, the demand will fall off. But all that will be in operation when my scheme is brought into working order, and therefore I do not anticipate that there would be a large increase in the number of children. Even if there were an increase they would be the children who are now being helped out of public funds from another source, and not helped with any advantage to the child.

97578. The question I raised was this: Do you advocate the policy by which you maintain the children irrespective of education?—We are not initiating it.

97579. You are not initiating it, you say?—No; it is done now for all deserted children.

97580. You propose then to continue it?—I propose to continue it and extend it to the child who is at home with its mother, and that mother will not, or cannot, support the child, who is practically a deserted child.

97581. Then you propose practically to make the education authority partly a Poor Law authority?—I do not know that the physical well-being of a child is

Mr. Ernest Gray, M.A.; Mr. Philip E. Pidditch, L.C.C.; Sir Shirley F. Murphy M.D.; Mr. Edgar J. Harper.

23 Mar. 1908.

Relief of widows with children.

Feeding of school-children by L.C.C.

Mr. Ernest Gray,
M.A.;
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23 Mar. 1908.

Definition of deserted children.

separable from his mental development. If it becomes necessary to give that child some food in order that it may be educated, I should be sorry to say that that was not a part of the educational work of the country.

97582. (Mr. Bentham.) Then why should not the charges go direct to the education authority, if that be so?—It might, if the public rightly appreciated the work which is being accomplished; but I fear that in practice the growth of the education rate will not be regarded with as much favour as the corresponding diminution of the Poor Law rate.

97583. (Miss Hill.) Do you really consider that a woman who cannot support her child is in the same position as a woman who deserts her child? Would you treat the child whose mother could not support it in the same way as you would treat the child whose mother had deserted it?—For the child there is no distinction.

97584. Surely there would be a great distinction in its relation to its mother and its mother's relation to it? I was astonished at the statement, and I did not realise that you could intend it?—Take the child who is not deserted, who at seven o'clock in the morning is locked up in the room while the mother goes off to clean up a City office—

97585. That is another question?—No; I am taking the child whose mother cannot look after it, and as far as the child is concerned I say that is practically a deserted child. That child is let out by a neighbour at nine o'clock in order to go to school. Its gets its meals as best it can, possibly by the expenditure of 1d. or 1½d. left by the parent. That child does not see its mother throughout the whole of the day. If that child is not a deserted child I have some difficulty in saying what it is.

97586. But there must be an essential difference between its position and that of a child whose mother cannot support it; of course, there may be other circumstances, but the mere fact that the mother cannot support it does not make it exactly like a deserted child?—In effect there is little or no difference though details will doubtless vary in every case.

97587. (Prebendary Russell Wakefield.) I might ask whether you justify the mother going out to work when she has a child of that kind to look after, or more than one child?—A widow?

97588. Yes; I ask from the point of view of the State's welfare and of the child's welfare, is it desirable that the mother should go out to work under those circumstances?—I appreciate the suggestiveness of the question, but I think on the whole it is right that the mother should work and go as far as she can towards the maintenance of the child.

97589. (Chairman.) In the Statement you suggest that it is to the benefit of the child that you should remove it from association with the Poor Law and all its attendant disadvantages; but does it not really come to this, that you are going to set up a new system of Poor Law relief in connection with education?—It is set up.

97590. (Mr. Loch.) Can we take it for granted that that system of Poor Law relief is set up?—I say that when the local authorities are empowered by Act of Parliament to feed children, and various local authorities have put that Act into operation, you are practically giving to the children what was previously Poor Law relief through educational channels.

97591. (Chairman.) Is it not rather an inducement to the mother to neglect her children?—The fact that she will have the child well cared for?

97592. Yes; she has apparently only got to get the child and the child is taken care of?—Very well; you give her half-a-crown a week now to take care of the child and she spends it and the child gets nothing. You do not get any better off with regard to the parent, I admit, and you may offer some temptations to the parent; but you get better off with regard to the child.

97593. Suppose there is a well-conditioned mother next door; she says to herself, "What is the use of my looking after my children if this woman, who does not, get them as well fed, if not better fed, and clothed than I can"?—Well, the attendance officer will be a very poor official if he cannot discriminate between the one and the other. (Mr. Pilditch.) I heard of a case yesterday where a man

came to a board of guardians and said: "My wife has just left me, and she has left me with five children; I cannot possibly look after them, you must take these children and look after them for me; I earn sometimes 26s. a week, and I can find you 10s. a week." The reply was, "We cannot do anything of the sort; you are not a pauper, and you must look after them." He said "If you do not do it you must take the consequences." They refused to do it and the consequences were that he deserted them and the children came fully upon the rates; they were taken into the workhouse and there are the five children now in the workhouse.

97594. (Mr. Loch.) What is the moral?—The moral is that it might have been better in that particular instance for them to have dealt with that man when he was in the way with them.

97595. Why better?—Because they would, at any rate, have kept the man earning money in that locality and providing something towards his children.

97596. Having 26s. a week he left his family?—Yes—it was a supposed 26s. a week.

97597. But he would have been provided actually with money from the State, although he was earning 26s. a week?—Not necessarily; they would not discuss the matter with him or admit any responsibility for the children, and as a consequence the whole cost of maintaining them has come upon the rates. The alternative appears that they would have grown up neglected.

97598. All his children and his wife are assisted?—His wife had deserted, and his children have come upon the rates.

97599. Do you know the secret history of that family in the least?—I know something about it.

97600. Was there any quarrel or anything of that kind?—Yes, to a certain extent.

97601. So there were other reasons which affect the issue than those which, at any rate, from your first statement one would think would be the only considerations?—There were, no doubt, plenty of personal consideration as between the man and his wife. I am only putting the case of the children who, through no fault of their own, are in the condition described by Mr. Gray. My illustration may not be the best but it occurred to me at the moment. But there were the children.

97602. You bring this case before us as a type, and in this particular case the circumstances are such that you deal with it, as you must confess, individually rather than generally?—Yes. Each case would have to be dealt with individually in one sense: though on some general principle. I want to say something on one point, namely, the concurrent organisation of local charitable and self-help agencies in London boroughs, and centrally. It arises partly out of what the Chairman said with regard to the position and suitability of borough councils for doing this work. I have had a good deal of experience of borough council work, and of borough councils in different parts of London, being a member of one, and I was a member of one of the old boards which existed before the borough councils were constituted in 1899. I want to say from my own knowledge that the improvement in the personnel and status generally of the local governing bodies in London which has taken place since 1899 has been not only great, but is rapidly increasing, and I think borough councils will become bodies capable, as they have shown themselves in the work they have done in the purely municipal sphere, of dealing with other large matters from a responsible point of view.

97603. (Chairman.) Would you make that remark generally as regards the whole of London?—I should make that remark very nearly generally with regard to the whole of London. I have come in contact with a great many borough councils and councillors in the poorer districts as well as in the better-to-do districts, especially within the last three or four years, and I have been surprised at the amount of ability and public spirit which I have seen devoted by borough councillors to the work of the various authorities, and the large and important matters which they have to deal with now all over London. Arising out of that, there is another point that I think I should like to mention to the Commission as I think it is germane to the matter at issue. It is this, that the principle that we have suggested of

Illustration of necessity of discriminating relieving officers.

Status of persons of Borough Councils.

amalgamating the Poor Law with the other municipal work in London would, it is believed, also open a way for the organisation and development of the means for combating some of the evils arising from poverty which already exist in many districts, but in a sporadic, insufficient and consequently ineffective form. I refer to the various charitable, philanthropic, self-help, and medical agencies which attempt to relieve distress on the part of individuals and families who might otherwise become chargeable to the poor rate, and, in their most effective forms, seek to do so in such a manner as to preserve the self-respect and independence of the recipients, by helping the wage-earners of families over periods of want caused by illness or accident, and finding suitable work for widows and careers for orphaned or neglected children without bringing them in touch with the Poor Law. Such agencies, which have their counterpart on some parts of the Continent in what is known as the Elberfeld system, are to be found in London in branches of the Charity Organisation Society and local charitable and philanthropic societies and so on. And, attacking the same problems, are also the hospitals and dispensaries and the various friendly societies. All these work independently; their operations frequently overlap and sometimes conflict, and their methods are based on no generally recognised principles. Endeavours are being made in some provincial towns to work a system similar to the Elberfeld, but when it was tried in London some years ago from the Mansion House as a centre the attempt failed, as all attempts based on working from a centre in so large an aggregation of humanity would be bound to fail. But I believe, and I think it is generally believed by a great many who have studied this subject, that with the Mayor and Council of each of the twenty-nine municipal boroughs in London including the Cities of London and Westminster established as the authorities responsible for the administration of the Poor Laws in each district, it might be possible to concentrate at the town hall under the presidency of the Lord Mayor, and with some measure of touch with the administration of poor relief, and to develop, co-ordinate and regulate such agencies as now exist for getting and keeping in touch with cases of distress that can be helped at such a stage and in such a way as to prevent the recipients of assistance and their children from becoming paupers. If upon the proposed Poor Law committees of the local councils as well as upon any Town Hall committee for the organisation of charitable and prevention of pauperism agencies as might be formed in pursuance of this idea, it was found possible to obtain the services of representatives of the various friendly and self-help societies and of the hospitals and dispensaries, it is probable that much benefit might result from co-ordinating their activities. The part of the central London authority in such an organisation of means for combating pauperism at the source would take the form of co-opting amongst its members representatives of the great central self-help and friendly societies, the Charity Organisation Society, the various philanthropic societies and the great London hospitals, or of obtaining the help of such experienced and expert persons upon any sub-committee which might be formed to aid the various borough committees by the formulation of principles, the working out of methods and the bringing together of those engaged in the work locally for general or special purposes. The Chairman of the Central Poor Law committee would be for London as a whole an appropriate centre round which such charitable and self-help agencies as were general to all London might revolve, as the Mayor of each borough might be, or would be, under such a scheme, for his own district.

97604. I think we all agree that the municipal boundary should be the area of the municipality, the centre round which a number of institutions should cluster; but just taking what you have said, you would not suggest, would you, that a great scheme of charity or benevolent organisation should be directly associated with the Poor Law? Would you not keep them separate?—I should keep it separate from the Poor Law, but I would centralise it at the town hall in each district as it is done for instance, in those towns of Germany where some such system is worked. One advantage arising from this change, if it came about, of dealing with London for Poor Law administrative purposes as thirty distinct districts, would be that you would have a centre at each of those thirty districts and a well-recognised centre which would be brought together and from which, as a pivot,

would be worked and brought together all these various charitable agencies which are now working at loose ends.

97605. Just taking one of your points, medical relief, what you would wish, no doubt, would be that there should be a general improvement in the medical relief of the poor right throughout London?—A general improvement, co-ordinating it with the other forms of relief.

97606. If that is to be done for medical relief there must be some central controlling authority?—Yes.

97607. If there is any difference, the difference between us is really what should be the autonomy, or what should be the powers of the local areas or bodies who have got to fit in to the general system?—Yes. I quite realise that the point I have last mentioned is perhaps a little outside the lines of our evidence, which deals with the question of the administration of the Poor Law; but it seemed so important a point, that the adoption of the principle of the municipalisation would provide a centre round which these things could usefully revolve that I thought I ought to mention it to the Commission.

97608. It is part of the question that you wish to link up with it?—I personally wish to link it up.

97609. (*Prebendary Russell Wakefield.*) I want to get clearly into my mind the principle that the London County Council seems to have laid down. First, I believe it is the centralisation of the initiative of general principles; you wish that centralised?—(*Mr. Gray.*) Yes.

97610. And practically all initiative?—I should hardly like to go quite so far as that.

97611. If that be not the case, are you not immediately landed in the probability of a very great diversity of initiative in various localities?—No. I should like to see localities, after consultation with the central authority, indulging in experiments with the hope of securing more satisfactory results; and I should think that a wisely directed central authority would encourage such local initiative, such departure from established rule, and would watch the results with interest with a view to adopting or rejecting them elsewhere. Hence I should be sorry to say that all initiative should come necessarily from the central authority.

97612. Just now in reply to a question you said that you wished to trace some likeness between the attitude of the Board of Education in regard to local education authorities, and what you would like the London County Council to do in regard to these various administrative bodies in London?—Quite so.

97613. It seems to me that there is one difficulty. The London County Council is itself an administrative body, and the Board of Education is not in the same sense an administrative body; does that not make a very great distinction between the two authorities?—No, I think not. The Board of Education is very largely an administrative body *e.g.*, school trusts and Parliamentary grants. The Board administers a very large sum every year, for, although those sums are paid over to the local authorities, yet the Board themselves by an individual inspection of the schools satisfy themselves that a standard of efficiency is being maintained. Really that bears upon this question of local initiative.

97614. That is just what I want to know. Might I take it in this way—that the central authority, the London County Council, would have anything in the shape of inspectional authority with regard to anything that was done in the various localities, the institutions, and so on?—Yes, I think it would; but I attach far more importance to the knowledge that it would derive from the presence on this Poor Law committee of representatives of local authorities. If I know anything of public life, the members would be largely criticising each other's methods.

97615. Is there not just the possibility that if you had this power of a central authority over the local ones there might be occasions when the central authority was out of harmony, politically and otherwise, with these various local authorities, and then a good deal of friction might possibly arise?—That is the case now between the London County Council and the Board of Education; but the friction is not very acute.

97616. It was more the case not very long ago, was it not, between the London County Council, as formerly constituted, and the borough councils; there was a good

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23 Mar. 1908.

Municipalisation and co-ordination of medical with other forms of relief.

Extent to which Central Poor Law Authority should exercise control.

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23 Mar. 1908.

Possibility of friction between L.C.C. and various Borough Councils.

Undesirability of multiplying administering authorities.

deal of friction then, was there not?—I should be sorry to say that there was serious friction. I have never been conscious of it. There have been disagreements, as probably there always are between young people who are growing up together.

97617. But you do want a controlling authority?—(Mr. Pilditch.) There are questions arising now occasionally between the county council and the borough councils, whilst their political colour is the same; but they are susceptible of settlement, and there is no difficulty about settlement. At the present moment there is a question between one of the borough councils and the county council which has not been settled and which will go to the Local Government Board; it arises under one of the provisions of the Public Health Act of 1891.

97618. You would not go so far as to say it is the same position at the present moment between the London County Council and the borough councils that it was a few years ago, would you?—I do not think there were any serious or very vital differences.

97619. There were a good many borough councils in former days before the present London County Council, that rather resented suggestions from the London County Council, I think?—(Mr. Gray.) Yes, and they do now, no doubt. (Mr. Pilditch.) Yes, they do.

97620. I would ask, is that a desirable thing with regard to this great Poor Law question?—(Mr. Gray.) We may resent many of the regulations that are laid down by the Board of Education, but then we meet them in friendly conference; they waive some of their requirements and we agree to comply with others, and an agreement is found between the two. I really have no fear whatever. These things may appear very harsh upon paper, but when you bring into it the common sense which characterises mankind generally you get over these difficulties.

97621. In one of your answers you said the London County Council had drawn up this scheme assuming that a central authority was necessary. May I take it that you had assumed that? When you say "assuming" you do not mean that the London County Council does not desire it, but simply that they had in their mind the possibility of a central authority being necessary, and therefore they drew up this scheme?—I wish to put no restriction there. I believe the county council feel that they are duties which they must take over and ought to take over for the benefit and advantage of London.

97622. May I take as the second of your principles the avoidance in carrying out the details of setting up any fresh authorities?—Yes.

97623. That is what you are very strong about?—Yes.

97624. You think the great thing to avoid in London is a fresh set of authorities?—Yes. We feel very strongly indeed that the more you can concentrate interest the greater will be that interest on the whole.

97625. You would get the same thing, would you not, supposing the London County Council was the central authority and worked by committees throughout London—committees that had co-opted members and other people like the representatives of the Charitable Organisation Society, working in the various localities. You would not have any fresh authorities there, would you?—What would be the separate committees?

97626. They would be committees under the county council in that sense, but they would be local committees?—Working within the borough council area?

97627. Yes, but directly responsible to the London County Council?—I do not think that would improve our relationships with the borough councils.

97628. You might almost take it in the same way that under the old London School Board there were committees up and down London; there was a member in charge, so to speak, and there was the work done by local committees up and down London. By what I have suggested they would be the same—still only one authority, but working by sub-committees?—I am afraid that is going to make local work very complex and troublesome, when I have in mind the existence of our groups of school managers where the borough council and the county council are already represented. You have practically skimmed the supply of milk there, and

taken the cream for the formation of those boards of managers, and I do not know how you are going easily to constitute another committee.

97629. Is there no cream to be got out of people who will not stand at elections, for instance?—Yes; we have got those. (Mr. Pilditch.) By co-option.

97630. Are there no good local residents?—(Mr. Gray.) We have got them on our school committees.

97631. I meant you might still get them on your committees under a scheme whereby the London County Council was the authority, and worked by means of sub-committees up and down London?—The statement I commenced with this morning that this section of the community ought to come under the observation of a borough council and influence the borough council in its work of administration, is completely lost then. I do myself feel very strong on it, because, like Mr. Pilditch, I had six years' work in Battersea before the borough councils were formed. We never thought of the poor. When we were dealing with sanitation and other branches of local administration that section of the community was clean cut away from our observation. We neither saw the sources of the trouble nor the consequences of the trouble. It was completely outside our purview. I think that if you are going to perpetuate that segregation of labours that borough councils will still wander on always legislating, as it were, locally for an average which they have mentally constructed, that average not being a true average, as a section of the community will not have entered into the calculation in constituting that average. (Mr. Pilditch.) The analogy drawn by the Commissioner who has just been speaking with regard to the county council's administration of the education work of London is rather an apposite one at the moment, because if there is one weak point in connection with that it is the inadequacy of the powers and responsibilities of the local managers. At this very moment there is a scheme before the council for giving more and further powers to the local managers—less centralisation and more local responsibility in fact.

97632. But there is not any suggestion on the part of the County Council to give that particular work over to the borough councils, is there?—No, it would not be appropriate on the system as it stands.

97633. Then the third principle is that the borough councils are to be responsible for all the administrative details?—(Mr. Gray.) Yes.

97634. Are you satisfied that the quality, if I may say so, of the borough councils as compared with the boards of guardians, is sufficient to warrant that power being vested in them?—I am quite satisfied that the more work you give them to do the better will be the class of men who will be attracted to the work, and that probably the addition of this branch of public work would induce some of the very best of the guardians to become members of borough councils, as indeed they are at present—just as the addition of education to the county council drew a fresh class of member there.

97635. Some people think that the borough councils are not so very much improved from the old vestries as I think you consider they are. Is it not the fact that in a very large number of cases members of the old vestries were returned to the borough councils?—(Mr. Pilditch.) There may be some cases where they were, but I know several cases where, whilst the most prominent members of the old vestries were returned generally the main body of the members had no chance whatever under the different system of election. The broader publicity given to the whole affair and the greater difficulty of getting a seat at all on the council has induced a very much better type of men from the public point of view to come on to the borough councils.

97636. I suppose your argument is that gradually the type of membership is improving?—Yes, I think so.

97637. And that what used to be designated as the old gang has nothing the same power that it had in the first few years of borough councils' life?—Well, an old gang may have had some power in some borough councils in the first few years of their life, but I do not think it was general even then, and I think that anything of that sort has now practically died out as far as I know. There are no complaints made so far as I know that borough councils are not doing their work with efficiency and with a single eye to the public interest.

Undesirability of multiplying administering authorities.

Status of persons of Borough Councils.

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97638. Your judgment of borough councils is founded on a knowledge both east and west, I think?—Yes, both north-east and west, and south-west, and east. I would not say they were all up to the same standard, but I say they are all improving, and as Mr. Gray has just said, if you make the mayor of each borough council more and more an important person, and if you make the borough councillor himself more and more an important person, you ought to be able, and I think you do gradually, to get a better and more able class of man for the work.

97639. The proof of that would rest, would it not, after you have taken away the old vestries and given the new borough councils very much more dignity and more power, and so on, upon whether really on the whole there has been a thorough improvement in the *personnel* and the work?—Within my experience, which extends over perhaps five or six borough councils, I should say there is not the slightest question that such improvement has taken place.

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97640. (Mr. Lansbury.) Has the council taken any account of the areas outside London—the extra Metropolitan areas I mean?—(Mr. Gray.) No.

97641. Do you think that a real scheme of Poor Law reform could be put through Parliament without taking into account such areas as Tottenham and West Ham, and the areas of the South and West of London?—Speaking as a former Parliamentary representative of the division of West Ham for ten years, I am afraid that the controversy which has been talked about this morning would be as nothing as compared with an attempt to bring West Ham under the Poor Law administration of London.

97642. Are you of opinion that the proper way to reform is to still leave them outside whatever new authority is set up?—I think a county borough with a population of nearly 300,000, still growing, is capable of managing its own affairs, and will do it better than coming into London.

97643. Despite the fact that its poor rate and its Poor Law problems are so heavy?—Yes.

97644. You do not hold that view so far as education is concerned, do you?—That I would keep West Ham out?

97645. You rather think that places like West Ham should have extra help from the education point of view, do you not?—I do not put it quite that way. I say that where a district has had to incur the expense of buildings within one quarter of a century, and has no help, while other districts which started earlier had help, that is not fair to the district which came into existence at the later date.

97646. Cannot the argument also be used that if a district because of its conditions has an extra amount of poor relief to give, it, too, should have some exceptional treatment?—That may be, and such relief might come from national sources.

97647. You do not think we would gain anything by getting one uniform system for the whole of the Metropolitan, taking the police area instead of the County Council area?—I think there are limits beyond which you cannot carry the question of central control with advantage. The difficulty of grasping the divergencies would necessarily become greater the wider the area over which you range.

97648. I notice that the County Council in the last resort apparently are relying, as has been the case up to the present, on the Local Government Board which has had to deal with a very much larger area; I mean it has had to deal with three kingdoms from the point of view of laying down principles, and the rest of it. Judging from your Paragraph 1 (k) you are leaning on them in the same way?—Yes, we are looking to the Local Government Board to exercise some general direction over the country. But if you will allow me to say so my mind was rather dwelling upon your previous question while you were putting the second. Speaking as one who knows West Ham thoroughly well after fifteen years of work there, who is yet a Londoner now serving upon the council, having formerly occupied myself upon London municipal work. I say that the problems which we are facing in West Ham differ very considerably

from the problems which we have to face in London as a County Council. The conditions of life are different. If you were to attempt to bring a great county borough like West Ham within the London area you would either have to struggle to bring conditions which differ largely from London into line with the London conditions, or you would have to keep, as it were, a separate compartment in your brain which would be brought into operation every time you directed your attention towards West Ham. There is a distinction between dealing with a comparatively settled population and a population which is always flowing through, as it is in West Ham; there is a difference between dealing with London and the greatest industrial centre south of Birmingham which you have in West Ham, because of the circumstances that arise from dock life and so forth. You have an entirely different set of conditions there, and I think it would be most unwise to attempt to bring an area like that within the area of the Metropolitan for Poor Law administration.

97649. Would you say the same for Tottenham and Edmonton?—Not to the same extent; nor could I be as fully convinced with regard to Tottenham because I do not know the district so well.

97650. I understand that the point of your evidence is that the County Council should be the authority in London, and you want that for the purpose of establishing uniformity. Would not a good deal of what you said just now with regard to West Ham apply to districts like Poplar, Bermondsey, Southwark, and other parts of South-East London?—No. I fought Limehouse—

97651. Limehouse is a part of Stepney?—Yes.

97652. I am rather ruling Stepney out, because we may admit straight off that the conditions there are altogether exceptional owing to the alien population?—Then take Hoxton, for which I sit on the council.

97653. Would you mind taking Poplar, Bermondsey, and South-East London?—Certainly I will.

97654. I understood that you said just now that you would require to have a compartment in your brain especially to deal with West Ham, because of the exceptional conditions there; I am suggesting to you that to a large extent those same kind of conditions prevail even within your own area?—I doubt it, and I doubt it very much indeed. There is growing up a separate municipal life in West Ham, which in a few years will separate it even more distinctly from London than it is separated at the present time.

97655. That is something different. What we were just now speaking of was the population and the conditions which create poverty, and that kind of thing. I am suggesting to you that those same kind of conditions prevail within the area that you are proposing to administer?—I do not agree.

97656. I understand that you propose that so far as workhouses and the general administration of the Poor Law are concerned, the borough councils should take these in hand?—Yes.

97657. That is the essence of your scheme. They would be really independent of the County Council, would they not?—Not quite.

97658. But you will have no more control over them than the Local Government Board has at present?—I should take it that we would exercise more control than the Local Government Board now exercises.

97659. Would you mind developing that?—I should think that where charges are very widely different—

97660. Which charges are you thinking of?—Expenditure,

97661. On what—because expenditure comes under various heads; there is in-maintenance, out-maintenance, salaries, and all that sort of thing?—As I understand, although there may be very wide divergence in the charges in respect of the service to which you have referred, the Local Government Board take no action so long as they are satisfied that the accounts are accurate; but I fancy that if the wide difference continued such as is shown in the Return which I have here, the London County Council would want to enquire into its causes, and would insist on the avoidance of anything which approached extravagance,

Mr. Ernest Gray,
M.A.;
Mr. Philip E. Pilditch,
L.C.C.;
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23 Mar. 1908.

Comparative conditions of various areas.

Effect on finance of control of Poor Law by L.C.C.

Mr. Ernest Gray, M.A. ; Mr. Philip E. Pilditch, L.C.C. ; Sir Shirley F. Murphy, M.D. ; Mr. Edgar J. Harper.

23 Mar. 1908.

97662. Yes; only the Local Government Board at present control the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund, and they also in a way control the number of inmates of certain institutions on which we can get the other grants. Can you tell me in what other way you would have any control? Every officer who goes on the Common Poor Fund has to be sanctioned by the Local Government Board, and every dietary scale has to be sanctioned by the Local Government Board finally; what I want to get at is where you would come in, in any different way?—I think that all these cases of wide difference in cost would have to be investigated by the council's Poor Law committee, and an explanation must exist of this difference of cost. A difference may be unavoidable or it may be avoidable, and if avoidable I assume that, failing the control which would be consequent upon representation and advice, the council would withdraw payment or would insist that the excessive charges should be borne locally. (*Mr. Pilditch.*) Or should be reduced for the future.

Financial alterations in Poor Law and administration of Metropolitan Common Poor Fund by L.C.C.

97663. Are you going to make one rate for all Poor Law purposes for London?—(*Mr. Gray.*) Speaking without the knowledge which Mr. Harper has, I may say that I see no reason why we should not.

97664. For all the maintenance, indoor and outdoor, levying the rate right over?—No, I must not say that, because that is a question upon which the council distinctly decided it would not express an opinion.

97665. Perhaps Mr. Harper could tell us; is it proposed to make in-maintenance a general charge, that is, a county charge and not a local charge?—(*Mr. Harper.*) Not under this scheme.

97666. Under this scheme would the locality have to bear the cost of its workhouses and its infirmaries, except for the ordinary grants that we have now?—It is not proposed by this scheme to alter the financial relations in that respect. What experience might dictate hereafter under the new régime, is another question.

97667. (*Mr. Gardiner.*) Do I understand that the local authority, the minor authority as we might call it, is to defray the cost of the in-maintenance of paupers which are now chargeable to other unions?—No.

97668. I understand workhouses are to be classified under this scheme, and that you might have one able-bodied workhouse in Kensington to which a man from Southwark might be sent. In that case does the Southwark poor rate pay the cost of maintaining its own pauper in the Kensington able-bodied house, or does the Kensington poor rate pay it?—That is a detail which has not been considered at all, either by the county council or its committee. Obviously some steps would have to be taken to spread the burden equitably, certain portions over the whole county and certain other portions over the areas to which the various individuals belonged.

97669. But then practically the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund, as it now is, is to be abolished?—The proposal is that the administration of it should be taken over by the London County Council. (*Mr. Gray.*) Hear, hear.

97670. Is the basis under which it is collected to continue?—(*Mr. Harper.*) For the present, certainly. (*Mr. Pilditch.*) It is quite possible, of course, to realise that under any system of classification it would be necessary that some part of the charge which is now locally met would have to become central. If you take from the workhouses and classify in a certain way and deal with a certain class of paupers independently of the locality, in all probability, though the county council has not considered it, the charges for such paupers would, I take it, have to become centralised in some form. (*As to this the Witness subsequently sent the following note:*)—

Classification of paupers.

"On the question of classification of paupers under the scheme providing different treatment for those who are—

- (a) Worthy but unfortunate;
- (b) Worthless and lazy;
- (c) Of low type physically or mentally;

I think that such a local body as that proposed would have a wide range of knowledge of the poor in its district, and would be well qualified to discriminate as to the category in which each individual should be placed: and I think that each borough represents an area large enough

to permit of its providing separate establishments for the different classes. Take the case of three London of paupers, Boroughs:—

- (1) The City of Westminster of whose council I am a member;
- (2) The Borough of Islington, one of the Divisions of which I represent on the London County Council;
- (3) The Borough of Bermondsey.

Westminster is a typical rich district, though as a matter of fact 24 per cent. of its inhabitants live in tenements of four rooms or less. Islington is a typical middle and working class residential district. Bermondsey is a typical poor district. In Westminster there are four workhouses and one infirmary for its 3,306 paupers and 658 infirmary inmates. Islington has two workhouses, and one infirmary for its 2,489 inmates, and 789 infirmary inmates, and 138 paupers are lodged in the workhouses of other districts. Bermondsey has three workhouses and one infirmary for its 1,543 paupers and 590 infirmary inmates. None of these boroughs present any difficulty as to classification on the ground of want of buildings, quite apart from the possibility of treating the able-bodied loafer in central penal workhouses or adult reformatories."

97671. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) The point of my question is just here: If the present official arrangements are to remain I cannot see where your power is coming in, at any rate, I cannot see where it is logically coming in, to deal with such questions as whether one board should feed its people on margarine instead of butter, or butter instead of margarine and so run up the cost, or whether that would be purely a matter for the ratepayers; each particular borough should decide for themselves whether they will do that or not. I do not see why, having control of the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund, which deals not with that, but with other matters, you should say that you could withhold a grant for some other purpose because the ratepayers were using their money in some other way. I cannot for the life of me see how you could logically do that?—Surely if the laying down of principles of general expenditure were followed that would involve a sufficient amount of control over operations of that kind in the different localities?

97672. I want to suggest to you that the Local Government Board at present has certain powers and exercises certain powers through the Common Poor Fund, and I understand from your evidence this morning that you are hoping that the County Council can remedy what may be considered defects in administration by holding or withholding portions of that grant?—And by providing rules and regulations which must be followed.

97673. I am suggesting to you that you can only provide rules and regulations for the purpose of administering the money that you are going to grant?—(*Mr. Gray.*) Hear, hear.

97674. And that that does not touch the questions of vital administration which I understand you want to remedy, such as getting uniformity of administration in dealing with various classes of people?—(*Mr. Pilditch.*) I do not quite think that follows. You say that we should only be able to regulate the expenditure of the money that we provide; as a matter of fact, by far the larger portion of Poor Law expenditure is already equalised and provided from central funds. I think it is 70 per cent. (*Mr. Harper.*) It is 68 per cent. (*Mr. Pilditch.*) If you deduct from the balance the cost of outdoor relief which, in all probability, would remain a local charge, there will be a very small sum left which will be outside your power of control.

97675. I am only pointing out that the portion which you would have to control would be that portion which dealt with the particular thing that you wanted to control?—(*Mr. Gray.*) That is assuming that these various funds remain associated with particular services?

97676. Yes?—But that is not the assumption that we have entered into.

97677. They are at present; that is the point?—Yes.

97678. (*Chairman.*) I have got a list of them here. My figures are a little different, but anyhow we will say a little more than 30 per cent. is borne by the local rate, this 40 per cent. is charged on the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund, the expenditure on the asylums' districts is

only 7 per cent., whilst on the exchequer it is 6·5 per cent. Then there is the expenditure made out of the Indoor Pauper Grant, which is about 8 per cent. That money is allocated to specific purposes, and as I understand Mr. Lansbury's point it is this: Are you going to withhold money which has been collected for specific purposes and decline to give it to the guardians unless they do something in connection with the expenditure of their own out-relief which they do not want to do?—We are not proceeding on the assumption that this grant will remain associated with particular services. (*Mr. Harper.*) May I bring in here rather an important fact? Some of the grants for specific purposes are received by the guardians twice over. There are certain indoor paupers included within the definition of an indoor pauper given by the Local Government Act of 1888, namely, children outside the workhouse, pauper patients in sick asylums and imbeciles in sick asylums. They are all included among the indoor paupers in respect of which the London County Council has to pay a grant of 4d. per head; nevertheless, the whole of the expenses of those indoor paupers—the balance which has not been met in any other way—is already thrown upon the Common Poor Fund; so that in respect of those services the guardians receive more money than they pay. It is obvious that in any new system of administration things like that must be done away with. The system of the centralisation of charges requires complete overhauling. (*Mr. Gray.*) Hear, hear. (*Mr. Harper.*) The council have not entered upon that matter at the present stage, because they felt that the financial details must be worked out after the principles of administration had been settled.

97679. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Only do you not see that outdoor relief is another matter? Outdoor relief does not come in there at all. It is not a central charge but a local charge, and some people want to get a uniform system for dealing with all applicants for relief throughout London. They do not want it to be possible that in one place a woman in precisely the same conditions as a woman in another shall be treated in an entirely different fashion. I understand, or I think I understand, from Mr. Gray that you would meet that kind of thing by withholding your grants for indoor maintenance; I am suggesting to you that you could not logically do that because the cost of giving the outdoor relief in both places comes out of the local rates, and has nothing whatever to do with you at all?—(*Mr. Gray.*) One might say, taking the analogy that I have referred to more than once this morning, that although certain work is accomplished locally by education committees out of the local rates, the Board of Education cannot exercise any control because they are making Parliamentary grants. Nevertheless, they do it because they say: "If you continue to spend this money out of the local rate contrary to our direction, we can withhold a portion of your Parliamentary grant."

97680. (*Mr. Lock.*) Surely this is hardly an answer to Mr. Lansbury, because in the case of education you are dealing with one purpose right through, and Mr. Lansbury puts before you quite a different case—two purposes, one an in-door relief purpose largely supplemented from the centre, the other an out-door relief purpose borne by the local rate, and not in your direct or indirect control, except so far as you are an administrative body?—Must I really assume that there is no connection between outdoor and indoor relief?

97681. I think you must assume it financially from the aspect of the control that at present exists?—I should be very reluctant to take that view that there is no connection between the two.

97682. (*Mr. Lock.*) This is hardly a question of reluctance; it is a question of what you put into the scheme. Your scheme throws no light on this question.

97683. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Would you not have to get it in the Act of Parliament that you had power to do this? Yes. I should exercise a greater liberty if I were answering for myself alone in answering your questions; but I am here to give the views of the council as expressed in their scheme, and I cannot do that if you carry me into financial details beyond that scheme. (*Mr. Pilditch.*) You say that throwing local responsibility for the payment of out-door relief upon the ratepayers who have to elect the local representative bodies would not be sufficient; is that what I understand your point is?

97684. I only point out that London and West Ham and a lot of other places are standing evidence that there are a good many people in the country who still believe in out-door relief?—You can do it in either of two ways; you can either throw it on the responsibility of the local ratepayer who has to elect the borough councillors, and as one factor will consider whether his borough councillor has been properly allocating the money to out-door relief or not; or, in the other way, you can have rules and regulations which presumably might be enforced by the local authority with some such powers of enforcing them financially as you suggest. We have not ventured to offer a solution of the methods by which this local control can be best effected.

97685. I suggest to you that you have certainly left the biggest difficulty without touching it at all?—The Commission will be quite capable of dealing with that difficulty I am sure.

97686. Are you going to leave the question of contracts?—I think Mr. Gray has already answered that rather fully.

97687. That was before I came in then?—(*Mr. Gray.*) Yes.

97688. Is that to be a local business or a central business?—There was no definite decision pronounced by the council on the subject, but I did mention myself in introducing the scheme that that was one of the objects which many of us had in mind; and no one demurred to that suggestion.

97689. You at least are in favour of centralising the supplies to these various institutions throughout London?—Personally, yes, and I thought, although not specifically mentioned, that it would be covered by one of the clauses.

97690. Then as to the ability of borough councillor? Comparative merits of Poor Law Guardians, —(*Mr. Pilditch*) I personally have not actually been a Poor Law Guardian, although I have been in touch with the administration of Poor Law Guardians in a number of districts.

97691. You are aware that it does take a considerable amount of time, I suppose?—Yes.

97692. Do you think that the present borough councils are better manned to do that work than are the boards of guardians who are elected for the purpose?—I do not wish to make an invidious distinction as to persons, but I say that they are elected in such a way that they are, I think, better fitted to bear the financial responsibility of dealing with the Poor Law so far as it is local. (*Mr. Gray.*) May I add that some of the best members of the boards of guardians are borough councillors and are discharging the two duties at the present time, attending two different sets of committees, and doubling their work instead of concentrating their work. I look forward with certainty to the best of the guardians taking seats upon the borough councils along with those who are already there. (*Mr. Pilditch*) Either directly elected or co-opted, for which purpose suggestions are made.

97693. You are suggesting that you might have borough councillors and other people co-opted to form the Poor Law committee?—(*Mr. Gray.*) Yes.

97694. That committee of course would have to be split up again, would it not, into various other committees?—Yes, probably it would have to be split up into sub-committees.

97695. A board of guardians now has to have a workhouse committee, a children's committee, and, if it is in a large district, a number of relief committees?—Yes.

97696. In your experience of local bodies how many people is it that really do the work?—The number of people who do the work is, I know, comparatively small. The greater is the argument against the continuation of the dual system and the greater is the argument in favour of concentrating on the borough council.

97697. Is that not a greater argument to leave no committee to it at all but to appoint officers in the various districts to take the applications and adjudicate on them?—No, I should be very sorry indeed—and I think in this I should be expressing the view of the Council—to see the whole of this work put into the hands of officials who would themselves be bound to carry out regulations and

Mr. Ernest Gray, M.A., Mr. Philip E. Pilditch, L.C.C.; Sir Shirley F. Murphy, M.D.; Mr. Edgar J. Harper.

23 Mar. 1908.

Question of Poor Law expenditure and finance under proposed scheme.

Comparative merits of Poor Law guardians and Borough Councillors, and possibility of men holding dual positions.

Mr. Ernest Gray,
M.A.,
Mr. Philip E. Pilditch,
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23 Mar. 1908.

Comparative merits of Poor Law Guardians and Borough Councillors, and possibility of men holding dual positions.

proceed very largely as automatic machines without that freedom and without that human sympathy which a councillor, because he knows he has the power, can afford to give effect to. I say this without any slight upon the officials, who must necessarily take that attitude.

97698. Do you think that a change of name from "Poor Law Guardian" to "borough councillor" will make them more wisely administer the Poor Law in the district which are just now coming in for a good deal of censure for the manner in which they do administer the Poor Law?—No. I do not suggest that it is a change of name at all. I suggest that it is bringing within the purview of the borough council a section of the community which they have hitherto disregarded; and that by having a single authority instead of two authorities I can get one authority well manned instead of two authorities indifferently manned.

97699. You said just now that a good many of the best guardians were on the borough councils; is it not a fact that in most places the active men in the borough are on both bodies, and what you are arguing for is in effect being done now?—No; because they have to run from the town hall to the office of the board of guardians; they have to split up their time instead of having the whole of their work done at the borough town hall.

97700. I am only suggesting that they are doing the work, anyhow?—Some of them are.

97701. And the best of them are?—Possibly.

97702. And the result of their doing it is that we are all in favour of some change being made?—Yes, I suppose, because we all see the great demands that are made upon the single individual's time under the present arrangement, and from the fact that when he is sitting at the town hall he has to regard the question from a borough council point of view, and when he goes away to the office of the board of guardians he has to take a totally different point of view. He has to try and separate his one identity into two individuals.

97703. Surely when he is on the Poor Law committee that would be exactly the same; the problem that will be presented surely will not alter because he happened to have altered his name?—He will then have a different *entourage*; he will have different colleagues to work with.

97704. He may not, for I understand you are hoping the best of the guardians will be on the borough council and on the committee?—No; there I am saying what exists now, not what I hope. (Mr. Pilditch) I do not think it is at all the fact that the best men on the borough councils are on the board of guardians throughout London.

97705. Take it the other way if you like?—It is more the other way, that the best men on the guardians are very often on the borough councils; but that leaves a considerable number of men who are on the borough councils—and the most prominent of them—who are not at present on the boards of guardians.

97706. Do you think they have got more time to give to the public than at present?—I do not quite follow you.

97707. Do you think they have got more leisure time that they can put at the disposal of the public?—Some of the leading men on the borough councils, do you mean?

97708. Yes?—When a keen man is a busy man you never know the limit of his activities till you try him. (Mr. Gray.) I would add that the more responsible work you give them the less will they fritter away their time in profitless chatter, because they will realise that there is stern work to be done.

97709. Do you not find that more and more it results in putting the work into the hands of competent officials, and that the committees are merely registering arrangements?—No. The whole drift of our work at the London County Council is in an entirely opposite direction at this moment.

97710. It is rather early days, is it not, to speak of that; you have only had just over a year of it?—Yes, but much has already been accomplished in that direction.

97711. Of course, a turn of the pendulum again may accomplish it the other way on?—I do not think any council would revert to the old system again. I could give you illustrations, if it were at all necessary—actual

illustrations of large schemes which are in process of passing at this present moment, under which committees are re-taking the power which was given to them and which they had handed over to officials.

97712. (Mr. Lock.) Does that not already to a certain extent confirm what Mr. Lansbury has suggested, at any rate up to the present moment—for of course the pendulum may swing the other way—that hitherto the tendency has been towards the committees being less and the officials more?—That that has been the tendency at Spring Gardens?

97713. (Mr. Lansbury.) I want to suggest to you that this work of administering the Poor Law in London is one which if men are to do it thoroughly means men giving up quite as much time as being a county councillor, which I understand is considered to mean three days a week; I do not mean three days right off, but tantamount to three days in the week?—Possibly.

97714. Do you think that borough councillors are the sort of men who will sit down and do that work more efficiently than it is being done now from the point of view of deciding the principles on which relief shall be given?—Yes. I heard all this on the abolition of the London School Board, and I heard it day and night for months; I heard the whole of this argument with regard to the time that would be occupied and the pressure which would be borne and so forth by the one individual when he had two duties to perform. But I find that the one individual does the duties, and does them very well. I have not the slightest doubt, looking to the borough council of, say, Shoreditch, that if they had this other work put into their hands they would feel the time had gone by for much of the wasted time which occupies their hours and their attention, and that they would settle down to the work and do it well. (Mr. Pilditch.) A large number of good minds in every district which have not been at present directed to Poor Law matters would become so directed.

97715. But I understand there are some good minds even now on both authorities?—Yes. I never doubted nor said so.

97716. I suggest to you that there would be no change?—(Mr. Gray.) In what?

97717. In administration?—(Mr. Pilditch.) And in personnel?

97718. Yes, and in administration, which after all is the important point, for I take it that there is no reason why you should do this except to get the work better done. The question between us is that you think the borough councils would do it better than the present board of guardians, and I cannot see where the advantage lies?—There is another big question outside that of the persons administering and the administration; that is the question of financial responsibility.

97719. You are leaving that for the locality still, are you not?—So far as it is left to the locality it now rests upon a body which is a small body, comparatively unimportant, a body elected by a very small number of persons, very often elected without a contest at all, and it is to be given to a body which is larger, I think you will probably agree more fully representative, and elected more in the light of day, whose proceedings are more subject to public attention and criticism. (Mr. Gray.) May I ask, apart from the *personnel* of the various authorities, having regard to the efficiency of the work, ought not the question of the fact of an insanitary area and a knowledge of the effect of that insanitary area on the poor and the treatment of those poor to be within the purview of one authority, and not of two; and ought not the people who are dealing with insanitary areas and infirmaries to be one single authority working within the area and not two; or should the efforts to prevent disease be separated altogether from the observation of whether that prevention has been successful or not?

97720. I agree with you, only I want the county council to be the authority in deed as well as in word?—If my argument is admitted—well—

97721. The only other question I want to ask you is, are you contemplating a continuance of the central unemployed body?—If you ask me whether the Council are contemplating that, I say the Council have expressed no opinion upon it.

Comparative merits of Poor Law Guardians and Borough Councillors, and possibility of men holding dual positions.

97722. (*Mr. Bentham.*) The suggestion that you have made to make the borough councils responsible for the local work which is now performed by the boards of guardians still leaves what has been pointed to us to be a difficulty in local committees being directly elected for relief purposes. It is true they would not be directly elected for Poor Law purposes but for municipal purposes generally; yet the questions for them would be matters which crop up at election times, and probably influence people who become members of the borough council on the particular policy of granting or refusing relief in a certain form. Do you attach importance to that?—No, I assume it is in operation now.

97723. That is one of the objections to the present system that has been urged?—I see no risk of trouble there.

97724. You would admit that the policy that has been pursued by the persons who are granting relief should be one which would be on rather higher grounds than the mere local necessities—I mean the local requirements of a particular sect in any constituency?—Yes.

97725. That it should be on sound principles which are all apt to go by the board at election times, are they not? Borough councils come out altogether after three years, do they not?—Yes.

97726. There may be a complete reversal of the Poor Law policy as there is in municipal matters if the borough councils have this work placed on them? Do you see no objection to that?—There is that possibility; but one has to bear in mind the direction and control of the central authority.

97727. The direction and control is somewhat ambiguous, is it not, in your scheme? We cannot get quite what the control is to be. In one place in the explanatory notes you say it is probable that “a larger measure of independence might be accorded to them than is possible under the present system”; if they have a larger measure of independence, I do not see how they are to be under more strict control?—As I said this morning, I anticipate beneficial results from the composite committee, which would give effect to the direction and control—the combination of a borough council and a county council working on the same committee, and I think that would over-ride any violent change in the *personnel* of the borough council.

97728. I take it the object of the County Council is, as far as possible, the control of the administration of Poor Law over the whole area?—Generally the view of the council, as expressed in their scheme and in the debate, was that they would direct, and that the borough councils would furnish the local information and the local action.

97729. Furnish local information—really there is more than that, is there not, it means the whole local administration?—Local administration?

97730. If I understand the object of the County Council right, it is that they should have more control over the local administration than is obtained to-day through the separate boards of guardians under the control of the Local Government Board; and if not, there is very little reason for change; is that not so?—We see some difficulty in justifying the position of the Local Government Board *vis-a-vis* the boards of guardians in London. Practically it makes the Local Government Board a rating authority within the London area. We think there should be one rating authority. We want to take the power, and we think we ought to take the power, in that respect now exercised by the Local Government Board.

97731. If you agree the London County Council should be the one rating authority, and that local administrative bodies in the shape of the borough councils should not rate for Poor Law purposes—is that what I understand you mean?—Not quite that; when I said the one rating authority, I had rather in mind the one authority which should supervise the imposition of rates for these purposes, and which should deal with the whole of the equalisation charges; we would not merely have the equalisation funds which we now possess, but the further equalisation funds which we do not now control.

97732. I suppose you look upon the different forms of administration of the various unions in London within one area, to be somewhat of an anomaly?—Yes.

97733. The object of the London County Council would be to get better uniformity of administration all over the area in one form and another?—Yes, that particularly appears where boards of guardians are discharging municipal functions, as, for example, in assessment. I take it the fact is quite beyond all dispute that these municipal functions would have to go to municipal bodies.

97734. So far as registration, assessment, and vaccination are concerned, I propose to leave them entirely out of the question. On Poor Law matters, if we could get a common system over the whole London area, I take it you would approve of that as a very desirable achievement—over the whole County Council area?—I said this morning that I should be sorry to wed myself to the idea of rigidity of treatment throughout London. When one speaks of uniformity of treatment, of course, one means within limits. Uniformity should not be absolute. I do not think, without inflicting very serious injustice and hardship upon groups of people in different directions, that you could secure absolute uniformity.

97735. Where conditions were different there should be room for a little latitude?—Certainly. That is one reason why one wants to bring in an authority with local knowledge.

97736. Would not your object be achieved better by having in each of these districts, call the local district what you may, a committee which would be more or less under the direct control of the London County Council, made up partly of representatives of the borough councils. They would be less tied to the local whims and fancies of the borough council itself, and at the same time get all the advantages of local knowledge?—No, I should not have thought so, nor do I think that is the view of the council. We have had before our minds not merely: How shall we secure the administration of the Poor Laws, but also: How shall we strengthen municipal government in London; and we believe that we are not only carrying out the object you have in view, viz: better administration of the Poor Laws, but we are also carrying out the object which we have in view, viz: the improvement of municipal life, the strengthening of the borough councils, if I may put it in that way. These new duties and responsibilities, this more direct contact with the whole area of local government, would strengthen them, and to set up the committees that you are suggesting, and which were referred to earlier this morning, would, I should think, tend to weaken the administration of the local authority.

97737. Really, the principle of Poor Law administration would take a secondary place, as you say in Paragraph 3; “in other words the council’s views have been arrived at not merely in regard to the improvement of Poor Law administration, but also, and chiefly, in regard to the place which Poor Law administration shall occupy in the general scheme of London local government”?—That passage that you have quoted accurately represents our view. (*Mr. Pilditch.*) Might I say a word with regard to a point you have raised: it is with regard to your question whether you would not have under the borough councils elections turning on questions of relief having been given or not having been given. Our point there, I think, would be this, that under the borough councils you would have elections which turn on a greater variety and a broader class of issues, and would have elections which are more fought in the light of day than the guardian elections ever have been fought, and therefore you would not have that personal element brought into the matter as influencing the persons elected as you have under the present system.

97738. But, of course, a person’s vote may be brought in question at election times; it is known he voted for a certain thing which on the face of it was an apparent hardship, and that comes up and turns out your best men on the borough council merely on a question of relief, which very often occurs now on boards of guardians, and would occur exactly the same on the borough councils.—Of course, on boards of guardians now you sometimes do have persons seeking re-election on the ground that they have provided outdoor relief very fully, but you

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23 Mar. 1908.

Need of and difficulty of ensuring uniformity in Poor Law administration.

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23 Mar. 1908.

Care of sick
children
under
L.C.C.'s
scheme.

would have it less so on a body which was elected not for that specific purpose only, but for general municipal purposes.

97739. It would be one stage removed from that?—Yes, it would be a decided stage removed, both as regards the breadth of the purpose for which the election takes place and also as regards the greater publicity of the election, and the greater light thrown on it, and everything connected with it.

97740. In this scheme it is proposed that children should take a different place altogether to all other kinds of applicants for relief; practically the duties of the sick asylum committee would be delegated to the education committee, that is so far as children are concerned?—(Mr. Gray.) The children are not responsible for their poverty, parents very often are.

97741. (Mrs. Webb.) The sick children would go to the sick authority, would they not?—Yes.

97742. (Mr. Bentham.) That is not so under the scheme as stated in (i) unless I misunderstand it?—When you speak of sick that is a very wide phrase indeed, but perhaps you are referring to a special class.

97743. (Mrs. Webb.) No; we generally mean by sick a person requiring medical treatment, being in bed?—Quite so.

97744. Those children would not be under the education committee?—No.

97745. (Chairman.) Who would they be under?—I should say that the child who is suffering from temporary sickness would probably go into the infirmary, and would in that case come under the control of the local council.

97746. You have taken him away from the local council and put him under your education committee of the London County Council?—The sick child?

97747. Yes; the child (I am assuming it is a pauper child) who is sick you have taken away from the control of the borough council and you have dealt with him by the education committee of the County Council?—Yes.

97748. Supposing he was ill?—He would have to go into the local infirmary or into the sick room which would be associated with the cottage homes.

97749. You would have access to the infirmary belonging to the local authority?—Yes, and I should think you would have to have access to your infectious diseases hospital in the event of infectious disease breaking out.

97750. But that is under the County Council?—Yes.

97751. (Mr. Bentham.) This is not so under the scheme; your scheme is not in accordance with the answer you have given just now.—I do not think the scheme refers to it.

97752. I thought it did in (c), "that to the City Corporation and the Metropolitan borough councils should be transferred (i) The powers and duties of the guardians of the poor and sick asylum district managers with respect to all local Poor Law services, including the maintenance of workhouses, infirmaries, and casual wards and outdoor relief, except such relief as shall take the form of providing wholly or partially for the children." Therefore, children are exempted altogether from that clause; that means they must be dealt with by some other authority, and later on you suggest what authority. That means that sick children would have to be provided for by the education authority?—Yes, but that was not contemplated in drafting these words. These words were, as I tried to explain this morning, intended to refer to those cases in which parents receive outdoor relief consequent upon the burden of children who are in good health.

97753. That is dealt with later on?—Yes, it is referred to here, "and outdoor relief except such relief as shall take the form of providing wholly or partially for the children."

97754. Then it means that sick children would be provided for as they are provided for to-day?—Yes, I should say on the whole that is the case.

97755. Then this is a mistake here?—No, not a mistake, it is incomplete, I will put it in that way; it has not made an exception with regard to the children who are sick.

97756. Healthy children do not come at the present time under the sick asylum management, and it is proposed here that all those duties coming under the sick asylum district work should be performed by the City Corporation and the borough councils with the exception of providing for children wholly or partially. It is incomplete in the sense that it does not say who shall provide for them?—That is so.

97757. With regard to the children being exempt who are in receipt of outdoor relief, you gave an instance this morning of a widow with two or three children, where the children might be dealt with quite easily under a plan of this kind, but all sorts of difficulties come up with regard to families which would make it very, very inconvenient to deal with under the scheme you have outlined. Take a woman who has four children, her husband has deserted her, she wants to make application for relief, I take it she would apply in the first instance to the relieving officer, as you suggested in the other case this morning?—Yes.

97758. Who would take action with regard to the husband who has deserted her?—The local Poor Law authority.

97759. You would not transfer any of those duties?—No.

97760. Either of repayment, of chargeability, or the other duties which now fall upon boards of guardians for dealing with parents and grand-parents?—No.

97761. Would not your object be easier achieved in this way; that all children which come wholly under the maintenance of guardians and having to be provided for by educational institutions, should be sent to institutions provided by the education authority?—Many of those children would no doubt be sent to a day industrial school.

97762. Still living with their parents, of course?—Going home at night, but the school would be under the control of the education committee.

97763. Taking the permanent children first, those who are wholly chargeable to the guardians, either because of the desertion of both parents, or because they are undesirable parents, those children should be cared for by the education authority, and institutions provided for them?—Quite so. We think it is a great pity that there should be special schools managed by two authorities as is the case now.

97764. You say those should not be charged entirely to the cost of education, but may be paid for by the board of guardians who are sending them?—They might pay, or the cost of those children could be divided, and the charges in respect of housing, clothing, and food, be thrown on the general rate apart from education, and the cost for education remain a portion of the education rate, but I stated this morning that that was only a concession to public weakness on the ground that if you continue to enlarge your education rate by charges of this character, you are placing in jeopardy the whole education of the country.

97765. What objection is there to this coming under the poor rate; the children are properly provided for; they are removed entirely from the environment of pauperism; what objection is there to their being charged to the poor rate in the usual way?—And charged for education as well?

97766. Education might be separated and charged to the education committee; some part of the duty might be allocated to the cost of education, but the maintenance of the child might be charged on the poor rate?—Yes.

97767. The difficulty comes here, that when a family is to be dealt with, probably by several authorities, if one member of the family is discharged from one institution before the rest, there is no authority which has complete control over the whole family?—True.

97768. That would be very, very inconvenient, if any system were set up which would not keep together the connection between the whole of the family?—I do not anticipate any trouble of that sort in respect to these children to whom outdoor relief is granted. I should say that where the child is handed over bodily to be kept day and night, that that would be for a set period, and so long as the mother were working and living in the district in which she found herself when

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the child first came under the care of the education authority, that the child would remain in the institution, but if she changed, and she went into another part of the world, and wanted to take her family with her, she could withdraw them and take them away; and those who went into the day industrial school would be returning at night to the home.

97769. Can you always depend on the parents to withdraw the children themselves? They might go away without them, and you cannot get at them; some authority must keep in touch with those parents to enforce the responsibility they have over those children?—Yes, I should say that would be the duty of the education authority. They have the care of the child, and would be in touch with the parents.

97770. Where a mother has gone into a hospital and left her children chargeable, and the relieving officer has made application to the education committee to take charge of those children, and they do so, by and by the mother comes out of the hospital, she makes application I suppose straight away to the education committee, would you let that be the process, or would you say she must go to the guardians who first took the child in hand, and they would be responsible for getting the family together again—there may be furniture that had been stored by the relieving authority?—I have in contemplation the probability that the education authority, being charged with the care of these children, would establish little groups of Scattered Homes; would have houses in their possession with foster-parents in existence, and the child, who is the one to whom you now refer, would be transferred during the whole period that the mother is in the hospital, to one of these homes where such child would be cared for by the education authority, and would attend one of the council schools and receive education during the day, and be under the care of the foster-parents during the night. When the parent left the infirmary, having recovered her health, and able to undertake the support of her own child, the local agencies of the education authority would be so informed, and the two authorities would ascertain whether the mother was then in a position to maintain the child, and transfer the child to her, if her ability to maintain were sufficient.

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97771. You bring the two authorities in there; that means enlarging very considerably the discriminating function of the education authority, does it not?—Probably it does, but I really do not see any difficulty in that, having regard to what we are now doing with the Children's Care Committees.

97772. The Children's Care Committees do not go into the whole circumstances of the family with regard to all the members of the family, and the possibility of members of the family at a distance being brought in to assist in their livelihood, and in the case of desertion they do not do anything, that would all be new, and it is a very large addition to the amount of machinery?—I do not gainsay that for a moment. I quite realise it is a large additional work. I am prepared to admit it was not in our original scheme. May I say this, because it gives force to the argument; it was not in our original scheme, but when our scheme was prepared by the Local Government Committee it was sent to all the other committees of the council likely to be affected by any of these proposals, and this particular clause was put in at the unanimous wish of the members of the education committee, who realised that they were experiencing serious difficulty in the education of these children, and the view of the education committee was adopted by the council without a word of dissent from any quarter. It was the right view, in the opinion of the council, to take.

97773. Have you thought of Sundays and how you would deal with holidays if you were relieving children and widows?—That is one of the difficulties we experience now with the Children's Care Committee, and a difficulty which would be largely overcome if we could put these children into Scattered Homes.

97774. Would you put in a Scattered Home the child of a widow who is taken into a Poor Law Infirmary and who might regain her health, and take it out again very soon; you would be doing practically what the guardians are doing now with regard to children; you think the function should be transferred to the education committee; it is a very large order?—

We should keep the education of the child, and we should keep the bodily care of the child—the care of the child physical as well as mental.

97775. Take the case of a man who is temporarily out of work, and his child is relieved in that way because he is out of work, immediately he starts work somebody has to discover the fact and acquaint the education authority, so that the responsibility of maintaining the child is thrown on the father; all that is an extraordinary amount of work, which is done now by the guardians?—Yes.

97776. There would be really two sets of officers doing the same thing; one set dealing with the parents and one set with the children, and the overlapping would be far greater than it is to-day?—I cannot follow that suggestion, that the overlapping would be greater. I understand that certain strictly Poor Law duties would continue to be discharged by the Poor Law authority, and that, with respect to these children, there would be constant interchange of reference between the officers of the two authorities.

97777. I can quite see how the education authority might be asked to feed certain children whose parents were in receipt of outdoor relief, in order to ensure that the children should be properly fed, that is a very simple system at the present time and is already acted on in a good many towns. In the case of all children of widows in receipt of relief, tickets are sent to the school, the children are fed and the guardians repay the amount to the education authority. I can understand that, but I cannot understand the relief authority referring the matter to the education authority who may feed the children or not. Nobody is responsible for the family. That is not simplifying matters?—I am afraid some misunderstanding has arisen. I gather from that question that you have understood from me that the education committee would decide whether or not relief should be granted or not?

97778. Yes?—I thought I had made it clear this morning that, on the application being made to the local authority and the facts being brought before the local authority, that is the Poor Law authority, they having decided that relief should be given in respect of those children, instead of giving it in money, they would simply transfer the care of the child, so far as food and clothing and possibly housing, to the education authority, they would not actually give the relief in money, they would transfer the duty of giving this relief to the education authority who would take charge of the child.

97779. I think you said the education authority would then investigate the case, and be decided on by an officer whose function it should be to ascertain whether the case needed relief. Why should there be this further investigation?—For this reason, the officer of the education committee, the school attendance officer, who has probably visited the family week in, week out, for some years past, would be able if the case was transferred to him to decide by an interview with the parent the form in which the education committee should give that relief. If the child, for example, is transferred entirely to their care, shall they take the child and put him into a scattered home, or shall they simply put the child into an industrial school for the day? You admitted just now that there might be a strong argument in favour of the education authority supplying the food for the child. We find within many of the poorer districts of London that the demand for shoes and adequate clothing is quite as keen with some of these children as the demand for food; indeed, they can often beg food where they cannot beg clothing and, although the law does not at present allow us to supply them with clothing, yet if there were not voluntary agencies the demand on the State would be so great that the power to grant would be brought into existence. That is all work that is being done by the attendance officer, which I think would necessitate a sort of second, I will not say inquiry, into the poverty of the parent or into the question of the chargeability or the question of the desertion of the husband and things of that character, but would take the form of an agreement with the mother as to the simple way of helping her with her children, in what way can the education committee discharge its duties to the State in regard to these children? It might be that in some cases the industrial school would be the

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23 Mar. 1908.

Proposed
extension of
powers of
Education
Authority.

Mr. Ernest Gray,
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L.C.C.;
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best, and very much would depend too upon the ages of the children, the period at which they would be going out to work, and the age particularly of very, very young children.

97780. After the education committee has decided how to deal with the children in such a case, the whole circumstances of the family may alter, that is, a son may come home who has been abroad and has good wages and who is quite willing to maintain them all. Do you rely on that knowledge being known to the education authority as well as to the Poor Law authority?—Yes.

97781. In what way would it come to the knowledge of the education authority, it would be to the interest of these people not to let you know it. Unless you have all the duties of the Poor Law authorities, you could not possibly ascertain that, but you would have to be so closely in touch with the Poor Law authorities that it might as well be one machinery?—If they are receiving the relief in the way of money at the present time, is it not equally their interest to prevent the Poor Law authority knowing it? They do not tell the Poor Law authority that the son has come home and is bringing in a couple of pounds a week, they will merely go on and take the outdoor relief as well.

97782. That is my point; it is the duty of the relieving officer to visit these cases periodically, and to know the circumstances and report to the guardians; if you are going to say it shall be the duty of the education authority to do the self-same thing, you are getting two sets of officers doing precisely the same kind of work, it is duplicating it, which I think is wholly unnecessary and overlapping merely for the sake of a sentiment?—I have tried to say throughout that when the child is handed over to the attendance officer as the representative of the education authority, he will then continue to discharge those duties which, under the existing system, the Poor Law officer would discharge; he would maintain the connection with the family and would have the same means of ascertaining whether prosperity had come back to the family or not.

97783. (Chairman.) I cannot understand in the least how the thing is to work, even with your explanation. What is the education committee that is to deal with this case? How is it composed?—The Education Committee of London.

97784. Take the case of a child in Bermondsey; who would deal with that child in Bermondsey?—The children's care committee.

97785. Of?—The London County Council.

97786. Where does it sit?—In connection with the local school.

97787. In Bermondsey?—Yes, in connection with the school which the child is now attending, and where the child would be fed to-day if the parent did not go to the Poor Law authority.

97788. What power has that committee to feed children? Have they any power to make charges on the rates?—By the Act of 1906 the local authorities are empowered to spend money in providing appliances and machinery for feeding children, and they may also impose a rate not exceeding $\frac{1}{4}$ d. in the £ on obtaining the approval of the Board of Education for the scheme, and on satisfying themselves that voluntary agencies are not sufficient for the purpose. In some towns this is in operation, in London it is not. In London we are now providing the machinery, but we are not paying for the food. That is being met, as you know, from voluntary sources, but these children's care committees are distributing that money, whether it comes from voluntary sources or from the rates. In distributing the means for providing for necessitous children, they are now weekly making themselves acquainted more or less completely, not yet sufficiently, but more or less completely, with some 45,000 children per week in London. Many of these children are the subjects of outdoor relief. There is a committee which is in close touch with the education committee of the council acting under the directions of a specially appointed under-fed committee, which is dealing with the wants of these little children. They do provide them with food; they are in effect the managers of the school also, and are providing them with education, and they add the third supply, that of clothing by means of voluntary agencies, in a very large number of cases.

97789. Then the resources of London at the disposal of these committees are voluntary resources at present? London's—In respect of food, but not in respect of machinery and poor appliances; we are paying for those out of the rates. children.

97790. If they have nothing but voluntary money to deal with, what it comes to is, that they would supplement the relief given by the Poor Law in connection with these children with moneys out of voluntary funds?—They would.

97791. They must, is it not?—But the suggestion I have made is, that this is the machinery which could be utilised for the commencement of this work, but there would be obviously a development along those lines, that is instead of trying to discharge this duty from voluntary funds it would be discharged from a rate-aided fund.

97792. But surely the simple plan would be, if you want to look after these children, for the local authority who deals with them when they give out-relief, knowing the school board, to ask the attendance officer to look after them; it would be simpler?—That brings me back to where I was the first thing this morning; when they give this money to the parents the children do not get it.

97793. (Mr. Bentham.) But they would give orders for them to be fed at the school?—They might give an order for the child to be fed at school and an order for the child to be clothed at school. Proposal as to education and relief of children.

97794. They can clothe it themselves; there is no need for that?—The Poor Law authority can?

97795. Yes, all the school managers have to say is that it is desirable these children should be better clothed, and let the relief authority deal with it; they can deal with it; it is quite a simple matter and would throw no extra expense on the education authority?—Then that necessitates the children remaining in the neighbourhood of their home, and within the purview of the local Poor Law authority, whereas some of us conceive that it would be a great advantage if the child could be taken away altogether.

97796. Not necessarily; we assume they can be taken away altogether; you admit they can be taken away altogether, but if the parent will not let them go, some one is responsible for seeing those children are fed: you cannot punish them by saying the children shall not be fed if the parents do not let them go?—No. If you suggest that you may have the two authorities discharging the work with regard to this one child, the one authority being responsible for the clothing and giving an order on the education authority for the food and paying for that food, I have no serious objection to find to that, excepting that you are maintaining what I understood a few moments ago was a criticism of my plan, namely, two authorities who would be dealing with the same child.

97797. The functions are quite distinct. Here all the guardians having to make sure that these children are properly cared for; they grant relief with that object, they say there is one form of relief here which is available, we will make sure that the child gets that relief, and they make an order on the education committee of a particular school to give food to that child. The directing is entirely with the relief authority, not the other. The education authority have no power to say "No," so long as the guardians give orders that they are to be fed at their expense; then you make sure that the child is properly cared for?—Let me carry that a step further. You are dealing with a child of twelve years of age, the mother is out at work all day, there is no father, and it is the eldest child. You have to look at the up-bringing of that boy; the local education authority would say without hesitation, If we can induce the parent to part with this child and put him into an industrial school, or send him into one of our cottage homes where, during the next three years he can be learning a trade as well as carrying on his ordinary educational work inside the school, there will be a very great advantage to the State; but unless you are going to give your education authority some such power they may attempt to give the child just such instruction as the local school affords, and that instruction may be totally unfitted for the boy who is attending the school. You ought to get that child out of that to another type of school so that he can take another type of training.

Feeding of London's poor children.

97798. I take it the local authority would be neglecting its duty if because the local authority was providing the food it should neglect the child with regard to education; it would come from the education authority what was the best way of relieving the child educationally?—You have no power now to go to the parent and say, "Will you part with the child altogether and send him down outside London into a cottage home?"

97799. You would not have power under the scheme you propose, you do not propose having powers of compulsion. You would only have powers of persuasion, and they can be exercised now through your school attendance officer?—I should say to the parent, we will grant you outdoor relief if you like, but it must take the form of handing over your child to the education authority so that they may put him into a cottage home outside the London area, where he will get the advantage of a proper treatment.

97800. You cannot enforce that, and if you cannot enforce it, it all comes back to the same point that some authority must be responsible for the relief of the child. If the parent is not willing to give it relief in the way you suggest, someone must be responsible for the child's welfare?

97801. (*Mr. Loch.*) Has the council accepted what you say as to taking away the child, if there is a question of out-door relief, as a compulsory arrangement?—The council have accepted what is here on this paper. That is all; they exempted these children from the operations of the Poor Law and transferred them to the education authority. I am repeating, as nearly as my memory will carry me, the arguments which were brought forward by the sub-committee of the education committee when this amendment to the general scheme was being drafted, because I am a member of the education committee, and of several of its sub-committees.

97802. It is not here, is it?—No.

97803. (*Mr. Bentham.*) It would involve the education authority providing meals every day of the week and all the year round?—We are in fear of that now.

97804. On Sundays?—We are getting seriously apprehensive of what is going to happen.

97805. (*Mr. Loch.*) The council have not adopted the system yet of paying for all this out of the rates?—No.

97806. That is to say they have to come to a further decision before what you say could follow?

97807. (*Chairman.*) It is purely voluntary at present?—Yes, it is obvious the council had something of this in mind when they put in the further clause that these charges which were consequent upon taking over the children should not be allowed to fall upon the education rate, that they did realise that there was going to be a charge on the rates in taking over this work, and a charge which the council would bear.

97808. (*Mr. Loch.*) Did that not come from the education committee?—Yes.

97809. They would naturally, would they not?—Of course, they would; they would protect the integrity of their own rate if they could.

97810. (*Mr. Bentham.*) It is not clear what it is to be charged to, whether to drainage or to some other account; it must be charged to some account.

97811. (*Miss Hill.*) It is not really here in the scheme at all, is it?—(*Mr. Pilditch*) I think the idea was that it should neither be charged to the education rates, nor on the local Poor rate; that it is desirable to bring the children outside the scheme of the local Poor Law, but it should in some form or other not described, become a central charge, as the other Poor Law charge is central.

97812. (*Mrs. Webb.*) As the Poor Law Committee is of the central body?—Yes, I think that was the idea. I do not think we were so strongly concerned with the point. It was rather outside our view for the administration of the Poor Law for London. May I say one word with regard to a question which was raised by the Commissioner who has last been asking questions at an early stage of his examination, and that is I think he addressed some kind of criticism to a part of the arguments which we advance in Paragraph 41 of our statement, when he dealt with our statement that it was probable a larger measure of independence might be accorded to the local

authorities than is given under the present system. A little further on we say it would be necessary to make provision for some co-ordination by the central Poor Law authority. I should like to say in particular if the wording of that clause gives rise to the impression that we think on big questions and questions of principle it would be wise to give much greater independence to local authorities, or if it gives rise to the impression that full co-ordination and a proper measure of control was not necessary on the part of the central authority, I would refer the Commissioners to the actual wording of the resolution, which is more definite than the wording of that particular clause in the arguments which substantiate the resolutions, and, where I think we make it quite clear on both those points our idea is that there should be a full measure of co-ordination and control. I think what was in the mind of the Council as regards the question of greater independence to local authorities was greater independence in regard to the innumerable mass of small matters, where now the Local Government Board has, by the duties cast upon it, to supervise the actions of the boards of guardians, and which I think are admitted not to cover the ground altogether. The kind of co-ordination and control that one central authority would get, I take it, would be more full than it has been in the past, and is a broader kind of control, more on questions of principle than questions of small expenditures.

97813. (*Mr. Bentham.*) These restrictions on small matters by the Local Government Board would be better stated by guardians who are suffering from them, would they not?—I daresay you have had some guardians here.

97814. (*Mrs. Webb.*) I gather that you do not think the condition of the children under the Poor Law satisfactory?—(*Mr. Gray*) Far from it.

97815. There are 20,000 children in the workhouses, are there not?—Yes.

97816. They are in workhouses in which there are all other kinds of inmates, imbeciles, defectives, aged and able-bodied?—Yes.

97817. You do not consider that is satisfactory?—No, we want to get the children away from contact with Poor Law administration altogether.

97818. Has your attention been called to the condition of the children on out-relief?—Yes.

97819. There are 170,000 of those children, are there not? I cannot answer for the number.

97820. That you may take from me. You do not consider their condition as satisfactory?—I regard it as most unsatisfactory indeed. To use the words of Miss Susan Lawrence, who is keen on this subject, there is no child in London so badly off as the child on whose behalf out-door relief is granted.

97821. It is possible that the bad condition of those in the workhouse, and also the bad condition of the children on out-door relief, is just because they are managed by authorities who are managing all the other classes of destitute persons?—I think there is probably something in that—much in it.

97822. In one sense we must divide up a destitute family, so that each person of that destitute family should be treated by an authority who understands that particular form of service?—Yes.

97823. That is your object?—That is our object

97824. With regard to these children on outdoor relief, the school attendance officers are already in constant communication with these children and their mothers, are they not?—They know every little one by name.

97825. You could hardly say that of an ordinary relieving officer?—I cannot answer for him. I have not been in such close contact with him for twenty-five years as I have with the school attendance officer.

97826. The school attendance officer really does understand the home?—Well; and, more than that, he is regarded as a friend by the mother, and not as an inquisitor.

97827. Therefore supposing the outdoor relief was awarded by the Poor Law authority for the moment, as under your scheme, it would be the school attendance officer who would distribute that outdoor relief, and see that it was not misused?—Yes.

Mr. Ernest Gray,
M.A.;
Mr. Philip E. Pilditch,
L.C.C.;
Sr Shirley F. Murphy,
M.D.;
Mr. Edgar J. Harper.

23 Mar. 1908.

Extent to which Central Authority would control local Poor Law authorities.

Unsatisfactory condition of children under present Poor Law system.

Attitude of mothers to school attendance officer.

Mr. Ernest Gray, M.A. ; Mr. Philip E. Pilditch, L.C.C. ; Sir Shirley F. Murphy, M.D. ; Mr. Edgar J. Harper.

97828. That would be a great advantage?—Yes, I think so.

97829. Would there be any real practical difficulty in the education committee going to the authority, whether it was a local committee or a judicial officer, leaving that point unsolved, and asking that outdoor relief should be given in respect of a particular family?—I not only think there would be no serious difficulty, but I am hoping that some local authority, or some agent of the central authority, will quickly realise that there is a duty imposed upon them of looking after these children, a duty which everybody must recognise, that anxious though the parents may be to discharge it, they cannot in every case fulfil that duty.

Need of classification of pauper children in schools.

97830. Hitherto leaving those children under the mixed authority dealing with all destitute persons has not resulted in their being looked after?—It has not.

97831. To go to another point, to the question of the Poor Law schools, has it been brought to your notice that even in the best Poor Law schools you will find sitting side by side a mentally defective child, a physically defective child, and an extremely sharp child?—I believe that is the case.

97832. (*Mr. Bentham.*) Do you visit those schools?—I have visited them.

97833. (*Mrs. Webb.*) One of the advantages in taking over those schools would be that you could re-distribute the children according to their natural faculties and their natural peculiarities?—Yes, and you would also bring into touch with these children officials who have been specially trained to properly classify these children, and to detect signs of weakness in early life, and apply remedial treatment before the defect has advanced so far as to make these children a permanent charge upon the Poor Law of the community.

97834. The category of destitute children having no relation to the natural characteristics of the children, destitution does not afford an index to the proper treatment of the child?—No.

97835. And this one accidental fact of destitution has formed the index under the Poor Law to the treatment of the child by the Poor Law authority?—Yes.

97836. To go off that question to the relation of the Poor Law Committee of the county council to the county council, I understand you do not wish to make it independent of the county council?—No.

Appointment of Poor Law Committee of L.C.C. to be analogous to Education Committee.

97837. You do not wish it to have the same relationship to the county council that the Asylums Committee has?—Certainly not.

97838. You object to that relationship?—Personally, yes. I think it should be the relationship which the education committee occupies to the council.

97839. Do you think that any other relationship would be resented on the part of the county council?—Yes.

97840. You think, for instance, if a statutory Poor Law committee was set up with completely independent powers even to the extent of incurring capital expenditure, you would object to that?—I am perfectly certain that the London County Council would object to it. I cannot answer for other county councils, but where the desire is so keen to have complete control over London finance, as it is at the present moment, they would desire to have whatever committee might be constituted dealing with large municipal funds under the control of the council.

97841. You do not contemplate that the Local Government Board should be called in to arbitrate between the committee and the council on questions of expenditure?—No, it ought to be our own committee appointed as our education committee is to-day.

Powers of L.C.C. as to institutional relief.

97842. Would you suggest, if we gave increased powers to the Asylums Committee, that the Asylums Committee should be put into the same relationship as the education committee?—There I am in a difficulty. My committee drafted a scheme, and we submitted it to the council, and the council accepted an amendment; and the view of the council is expressed by that amendment.

97843. That amendment is what?—That amendment is to the effect that the asylums now under the control of the Metropolitan Asylums Board, which are workhouses under the Lunacy Act, 1890, should be transferred

as county asylums to the council; and that the asylums committee should continue to be the visiting committee of L.C.C. under the Lunacy Acts, but with power to co-opt members, only to such extent as shall conserve the control of expenditure to elected members. As I read that amendment, that does not give the council the control over the finances of that Committee.

97844. I was at the debate, and I rather gathered there was an undertaking from the Chairman that he would consent to a change in the relationship between the finance committee and the London county Council making it more in the nature of the education committee?—So did I.

97845. You think that would be the general feeling of the Council?—I think it was the feeling of the Council when this amendment was carried.

97846. Therefore, far from desiring another committee to be set up with independent powers, they would like to reduce all their present committees to the relationship of the education committee?—I am not quite clear there; I think that there was a general view in the Council that the pauper lunatics should not be dealt with by the Poor Law Committee.

97847. That they should be dealt with by the asylums committee?—Yes, I think they did subscribe to the doctrine that lunacy should not result in the subjection of the unfortunate persons to ordinary Poor Law control; that they were contemplating a separate committee; but I think they were contemplating a committee under financial control.

97848. Can we find out why it was that the infirmaries were not handed over to the asylums committee?—Yes, I think that the idea that the Council had with regard to the infirmaries was that they were closely associated with the work of sanitation, as conducted by the local borough councils.

Dissolution of control of infirmaries from Poor Law.

97849. It was their desire to connect the infirmary with domiciliary sanitation that made them keep it with the local sanitary committee?—I think so.

97850. It was not their desire to connect it with the Poor Law?—No.

97851. I think I am right in assuming that it was their desire to link it up to the medical officer of health of the borough council?—Yes.

97852. So you anticipate that those infirmaries would be transferred to the sanitary committee of the borough council?—Personally, I should say they would be.

97853. (*Mr. Loch.*) Is it part of the scheme as put down here?—The scheme provides for the formation of a local committee to deal with Poor Law matters. I do not for the moment recollect whether it distinctly follows that infirmaries should go to that particular Poor Law Committee.

97854. Is it or not part of the scheme; it makes a great deal of difference.—You will see in Paragraph (c) (i.) it says the power and duties of the guardians of the poor, the sick asylums district managers with respect to all local Poor Law services, including the maintenance of workhouses, infirmaries and casual wards and outdoor relief will go to the borough councils, and the borough councils will discharge their ordinary Poor Law duties through a Poor Law Committee, but I do not think that precludes the borough council from transferring to such of its other committees portions of the work which may be more appropriately dealt with there. I do not think this proposal of ours is Medo-Persian with regard to the borough councils any more than it is with regard to the county councils, and the Commission will observe where we had our own personality or that of our council more completely under observation, an object nearer to us than the borough council, we preserve distinctly in phraseology our freedom to distribute these duties to various committees as circumstances might best direct, and I have no doubt that they would leave similar latitude to the borough councils in distributing the duties which would be allotted to them.

97855. (*Mrs. Webb.*) I only wanted to find out really whether it was a desire to keep the infirmaries connected with the sanitary part of the borough council's work, or a desire to keep them back in the Poor Law?—It was quite clear that we were anxious the infirmaries should remain under local control, because we frequently dis-

on cussed the desirability of the one local authority engaged in the sanitary work of the district being able to watch the effects of it, to seek for information which would lead to further treatment of the whole district.

97856. For instance, when a man went out of the infirmary you would like him to be followed up by the health visitor or the medical officer of health for the district?—Yes, although Sir Shirley Murphy has far more information on that subject than I have.

97857. (*Mr. Loch.*) The council has neither directly nor indirectly pledged themselves to place the infirmaries under the sanitary authority of the borough council or district?—No.

97858. Neither directly or indirectly?—No.

97859. (*Mrs. Webb.*) It is a question of what it has in its mind.

97860. (*Mr. Loch.*) Is there any sufficient reason that you can put forward, such as you would in a letter to *The Times*, for instance, that the council has so far gone in its mind that if this question had been put to the vote, they would say that the infirmaries should be under the sanitary authority of the borough councils—that you could affirm as a matter of fact that it would be so voted?—No, I could not.

97861. Therefore it is not clear?—I think the words here “the administration of other transferred duties should be amalgamated with the administration of the existing duties of those authorities,” were intended to cover local authorities according to local needs.

97862. (*Mrs. Webb.*) To go back to the Poor Law Committee of the London County Council, what exactly is the Poor Law committee going to do? The children would be under the education committee.

97863. (*Chairman.*) I do not quite understand what position this Poor Law committee is to occupy. I thought it was to be of much the same composition as the education committee?—Yes.

97864. The education committee is a statutory committee, is it not? I understood you to say you did not want to set up any more statutory committees?—(*Mr. Pilditch.*) The words we have used about the committees are those used in the Education Act. We either refer, or delegate powers to them, except the power of borrowing money or raising a rate. (*Mr. Gray.*) That phrase “statutory committee” does not always mean the same thing. Under the Education Acts of 1902 and 1903 we are bound by Statute to set up that committee, but we may not delegate to that committee the power of borrowing or of raising a rate, and we are not bound to delegate our duties, although we are bound to take its advice; but the asylums committee is in a totally different position, that is a statutory committee set up under the Lunacy Acts, and in that sense it is a statutory committee, but they are in a totally different position.

97865. (*Prebendary Russell Wakefield.*) That is not the position you wish this new committee to have?—No, the analogy we have taken throughout is the education committee.

97866. (*Chairman.*) Have the education committee's estimates to be passed by the finance committee?—Yes.

97867. Since they have been in existence has any item been sent back?—Sent back by the council.

97868. Has the council ever interfered with the expenditure of the education committee?—(*Mr. Pilditch.*) Over and over again. (*Mr. Gray.*) The finance committee I am afraid exercises a very benevolent jurisdiction over it.

97869. So that the education committee is controlled not merely as regards borrowing money, but as regards its current expenditure?—Yes, not only in gross but in detail. When you send up the estimates, as we are in process of doing now at this moment, the finance committee would point out that you might have a closer estimating on various items, or that it is undesirable that you should expend in certain directions as largely as you are proposing to do. They would revise the estimates, and can, on necessity, report to the council thereon. Indeed I do not think we can submit the estimates of our own motion.

97870. (*Mr. Loch.*) Does your statutory lunacy committee send up estimates?—No, the difference there is that as to the asylums committee at the present time, we do exercise a financial control when it comes to a matter of erecting a new building, but no control over maintenance expenditure.

97871. And you do not by arrangement have any estimates sent to you?—No, and we have no control over the appointment of their officials; indeed, I believe the clerk is appointed annually, because of the committee going out of power annually.

97872. You would not like that in the department we are now discussing?—No.

97873. (*Mrs. Webb.*) The education committee is under no less financial control than any other committee of the council, is it?—Excepting that the process of delegation to the education committee is very much larger than to other committees, and that the education committee is relieved of the obligation to report on many small details to the council.

97874. Is that by Standing Order or by Statute?—That is entirely by Standing Order.

97875. The council could have the same Standing Orders about any other committee?—Naturally.

97876. Therefore, broadly speaking, the education committee stand in no other financial relation to the London County Council than any of its other committees, barring the asylum committee?—Quite so.

97877. You want the Poor Law committee to be completely under the financial control of the London County Council?—Yes.

97878. (*Mr. Nunn.*) I think you said in answer to the last Commissioner that destitution was no indication of treatment for the children of destitute persons?—Yes.

97879. The assumption underlying that was that the Poor Law simply dealt with destitution, was it not?—I do not know what was the assumption in the mind of the querist.

97880. In your mind, in your answer, I meant?—What I wanted to say, and was expecting a second question in order that I might say it, was this: that having these children of various types in one school, under Poor Law control, many of us would be very anxious to take some of them out, and treat them on totally different lines to those that are found in our schools for the destitute children.

97881. Is not that a process which has been going on during the last ten or fifteen years very rapidly?—It has been.

97882. Under the present Poor Law?—Yes, but still I believe we are a very long way off from recognising that many of the children now classified as mentally defective, are not naturally mentally defective, they are simply physically underfed.

97883. I have no doubt?—And that their proper treatment is not in a mentally defective school, but in a school such as the education committee is now providing in the open air.

97884. But the mere fact that children are being taken up by the Poor Law and their distress in after life practically prevented by this more modern treatment in stricter classification such as you suggest, suggests the further point that the Poor Law relief is rather changing its aspect and is dealing with something more than mere destitution at present, does it not?—Yes, it does suggest that; I think it is changing its aspect.

97885. If that is the case, the fact that destitution is no indication of the treatment of the children, if the Poor Law is being improved, it does not really settle the question of how you are going to treat the children at all, does it; the fact that it goes beyond treatment and deals with prevention does not allow it to be any criticism of our system to say that destitution is no indication of their treatment. Supposing that the Poor Law is undertaking prevention of destitution in a certain large number of children, it is not criticism of the Poor Law to say that destitution is no indication of the treatment of the children, is it?—I am afraid that that is more a question of opinion than of fact.

97886. I should have thought it was a question of deduction. Of course, it is quite possible that a Poor

Mr. Ernest Gray,
M.A.;
Mr. Philip E. Pilditch,
L.C.C.;
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M.D.;
Mr. Edgar J. Harper.

23 Mar. 1908.

Relation between L.C.C. and its various committees.

Attitude of Poor Law towards destitute children.

Mr. Ernest Gray, M.A. ; Mr. Philip E. Pilditch, L.C.C. ; Sir Shirley F. Murphy, M.D. ; Mr. Edgar J. Harper.

Law, supposing one is reconstructing a Poor Law altogether, might deal with something quite different to mere destitution, might it not ?—Yes.

97887. Has that been contemplated at all in the considerations of the County Council ?—I think it has ; in trying to cut off the children, for example.

97888. That is purely preventive, is it not ?—Yes.

97889. That is not simply relieving destitution, as you find it, but preventing destitution in the future ?—Quite so.

23 Mar. 1908.

Dissociation of pauperisation from destitution.

97890. Is it not possible to take into consideration in dealing with the poor, not merely whether they are at present destitute, but taking them on a more scientific basis, analysing what the cause of their distress may be, making inquiries which will indicate what the treatment should be and judging, therefore, by means of the treatment the inquiry suggests, remove the cause of distress in each case ?—That is one of the reasons why we propose to bring them under the control of the municipal body, which has the environment of the pauper in mind as well as the pauper himself.

97891. If one looks at municipal life, that is really the dominant factor in your consideration of the Poor Law, is it not, that you want to develop municipal life, and you cannot develop municipal life sufficiently without really dealing with the mass of poverty which hitherto has laid outside the scope of the borough council ?—Of that in my mind I have no shadow of doubt ; I believe that was the dominating factor with the council.

97892. Therefore you propose to hand over to them in the meantime the question of the relief of distress ?—Yes.

Co-ordination of Charitable and Municipal relief.

97893. You give certain figures as to the relief of distress in the Metropolis ; you make it something over four and a half millions of annual expenditure of the guardians upon relief of the poor, do you not ?—Yes, by the guardians and other authorities for the year 1904-05.

97894. You are aware, of course, that quite outside the Poor Law guardians, voluntary and endowed effort distributes something like one and a half millions more than that annually ?—It must be a very, very large sum.

97895. It approaches seven millions, I understand. In developing municipal life, therefore, you have to consider not merely those who distribute your four and a half millions, but those who distribute your six and a half millions ?—Yes.

97896. It remains a question to consider in what way you are going to draw those people into your scheme ?—There is no person they go to more readily when they are anxious to raise money than to the mayor of the borough, to get him to preside at the meeting or to open the list of subscriptions, or take some active part, in order to set the stamp of municipal approval upon the private effort which is being undertaken.

97897. You are aware also, of course, that this six and a half millions, although a good deal of it is administered fairly and profitably to the community, is to a very large extent really manufacturing pauperism ?—That is so, I believe.

97898. You cordially agree with that ?—I do myself.

97899. If, therefore, we are to prevent destitution in the future as well as merely relieving it in the present, we shall have to deal with the administration of the six and a half millions ?—Yes.

97900. Is it not desirable ; I do not know whether you have come across it very much in local life, but has it not occurred to you that there is a very great deal of friction between the legal authorities and the voluntary authorities, a great deal of overlapping, a good deal of supplementation, and a good deal of friction as to policy ?—I cannot give an illustration from London, but I went through what was known as the distress period in West Ham, and anything more objectionable I have never met with in my life in the relief of the poor, where you had a supposed co-operation between a voluntary and a municipal effort without any municipal control.

97901. You are really in despair of co-ordinating charitable and municipal relief ?—No, I am not in despair of that ; I believe if it were generally recognised that there should be that co-operation, and if those who are

actually engaged in promoting the charitable organisations were encouraged to look to the municipal authorities as their centre and as their directing force, very, very much might be done. What I am objecting to is this sudden uprising of some voluntary philanthropic effort without direction from the municipal authority, without any regard whatever to poor relief, with the result that public money is distributed without regard to the needs of the recipients and indeed, as we had in West Ham, where relief tickets were sold outside public-house doors.

97902. Perhaps I should make myself more clear if I were to ask you in what way you thought you could organically connect public relief and voluntary and endowed relief ?—There again I am afraid I must say that that was a phase of the subject the council have not considered, and I am a council's witness to-day, not an individual witness.

97903. What I was coming to was the constitution of your committee of the borough council : whether it is not desirable, in view of the fact that so much pauperism is created and so much pauperism might be prevented by purely charitable effort, to make the local body, whatever it is, very largely consist of the charitable persons of the neighbourhood ?—There we are on safe ground. We have suggested that borough councils in carrying out their work should form a competent committee very much on the lines of the central committee, and no doubt it existed in our minds that the borough council would certainly co-opt these very persons who had been in the habit of administering relief through charitable organisations of this kind : thus they would know what the municipality were doing, and the municipality would know what they were accomplishing by private means : the two agencies would be in active co-operation working into each others hands.

97904. The selection by the county council of members, for the managers and members of such committees as you are now proposing is rather arbitrary, is it not ? Would you welcome any scheme such as Mr. Pilditch has suggested, by which you could have an organic representative body for charity in the district. Supposing, for instance, you had such a system as we have in Hampstead by which every agency in the district sends representatives to a council, the municipal bodies, the friendly societies, the trade unions, the clergy of all denominations, and the various voluntary and endowed associations whose nomination is affirmed, would that be a method of appointing a portion of your municipal committee ?—That is a subject that I have not carefully considered, and I should hardly like to pronounce an opinion without an opportunity of looking at it more thoroughly than one can at the moment.

97905. A great deal of what you said with regard to the care committees I suppose suggested that you meant really that they would undergo a considerable development from what they are now ?—Yes, I think they must.

97906. At present I think they are at first nominated by the managers, then they co-opt whom they like ?—Yes.

97907. They have no paid officer ?—No, not directly.

97908. Except they get the use of the attendance officer ?—Yes.

97909. So that obviously you intend there must be a much more elaborate committee to undertake the medical care of your children ?—That has been in the minds of a great many people for some time, that apart altogether from our Poor Law service these local committees would come into much closer contact with parents and would, as many of them do now, seek to find employment for the children and so forth : indeed justify their name of children's care committee.

97910. Do you anticipate including in the scheme the subject of medical inspection ?—It has not been out of our minds, although it is not expressed on paper. I may say we have had this before us, that as the law now stands you may have a child examined by the medical officer of the education committee, and the law permits treatment, and treatment will no doubt necessarily follow examination in some cases, and as that medical treatment will be given by the medical officer for education, there is the prospect that he will come into contact in the home with the borough council medical officer ; he may come into contact with the medical officer associated with the board of guardians, and I think it is just possible that

the three of them may meet a fourth officer, the representative of Sir Shirley Murphy in the one tenement, and the prospect of four medical officers giving advice to the parent is alarming.

97911. You want to find a solution of that problem?—We want a reduction of the number and concentration of the work.

97912. If you have a body of special representatives on your municipal body, whatever it is, you might get over that difficulty, might you not?—We thought we could.

97913. One could get over it?—The Poor Law medical work and the borough council medical work would probably coalesce.

97914. Might I ask you with regard to the question of lunacy, is it the case that the County Council contemplates a receiving house for all lunatics in the Metropolitan area?—I cannot say. (*Mr. Pilditch*) Might I say with regard to one question asked as to were we or were we not rather in despair of co-ordinating charitable and municipal relief, I think Mr. Nunn used the term "organically connecting" them. We know that the problem has been the despair of philanthropic people in London for a very long time, but in our consideration of this subject it is because the principle of municipalisation appears to provide such a means of co-ordinating municipal and charitable relief in each district of London that we support it so strongly as we do. The great difficulty up to the present has been that in all the districts of London you have no well organised centre in connection with which such a policy could be carried out.

97915. Except at Hampstead; perhaps you do not know that?—I will deal with the particular circumstances at Hampstead.

97916. May I suggest for your consideration whether there may not be considerable friction in two parallel bodies that would be overcome if those bodies were united?—Do you mean uniting municipal and charitable work?

97917. Supposing your charitable body, some representative body, formed a policy with regard to the outdoor relief, and supposing your municipal body formed another policy, they would be constantly at loggerheads, would they not?—They would be more likely to agree on some common policy if they were together under the presidency of some one man and brought in contact with one another, and able to see the difficulty each was trying to deal with than if they were, as they are at present, absolutely out of contact one with the other.

97918. If one body actually fed the other, you would reduce it to a minimum?—With funds do you mean?

97919. No, with persons?—Persons to carry out the policy do you mean?

97920. Yes.—You mean to say if the municipal authority and the charitable committee were the same people?

97921. Yes.—I am not prepared to say whether that would or would not be a suitable solution of the difficulty.

97922. They would be a little nearer than if they were parallel bodies?—They would, indeed. It would be rather too much to expect that such absolute cohesion between the two bodies would exist, but no doubt a number of responsible local persons would be members of both bodies, and so would co-ordinate the policy of both bodies.

97923. And the more co-operation you would be able to enforce?—That is so.

97924. (*Mr. Gardner.*) I do not quite understand under this scheme how the work of medical outdoor relief is to be carried on. Would that be under the same system as the present?—(*Mr. Gray.*) It would be undertaken by medical officers under the control of the borough council, I presume.

97925. By the sanitary committee of the borough council, or the Poor Law committee of the borough council?—I cannot say which the borough councils would say; whether the sanitary committee of the borough council might not develop into the public health committee of the borough council.

97926. Is that your idea, that the domiciliary treatment of the poor, medically considered, should be under the sanitary committee, or under the Poor Law committee? It is a rather important question, is it not?—Speaking personally, I think this was the view held by our committee, if not by the council, that it was to be a public health matter—sanitary committee.

97927. Therefore coming under the medical officer of health?—Yes. I think that as far as one could gather from the discussions which took place in the preparation of the scheme, what we had before our minds was that eventually the local sanitary committee would not be a committee looking after bricks and mortar alone, but looking at individuals as well, and it would become a public health committee with very close co-ordination with the public health work of the county council.

97928. Therefore, the borough council medical officer of health would have something to do with the visiting and domiciliary treatment of the sick poor?—Yes.

97929. What would be the relationship of your borough council medical officer, that is to say, your district medical officer, with the officers responsible for the inspection of school children?—They practically come into touch now, and usually co-operate very closely, but the medical officer for education is naturally restricted within the school ages of the children; he does not touch them under the age of three or four, and he does not go beyond the age of fourteen or fifteen, the years the children are at school. So far he has not followed them home, but the day will come, without doubt, when the contact between these two officers will be very much closer than at present. The moment we begin the work of examination it will necessarily be so.

97930. He must follow them home, must he not, or hand them over to another doctor?—At present he will confer with the parent on the school building. At present we are undertaking examination and not treatment. At present we will advise the parents: "Have your child treated," and the parent will have to make her own arrangements for getting the child medically treated, probably by taking the child to the hospital. Take for example such a case as a child found by examination to be suffering from adenoids. The school medical officer will advise the parent where to take that child, and how to get that child treated. The child will be taken there, and then there will come into review the condition of the child's home. Certain of the diseases from which the child appears to be suffering may possibly arise from the condition of the home, and the school medical officer will therefore be brought at once into touch with the local medical officer.

97931. That is to say with the Poor Law officer, or the medical officer of health?—The borough council officer.

97932. The medical officer of health?—Yes, the two will co-operate, the one in improving the home, and the other in treating the child.

97933. That is to say, the district medical officer will look after this case of adenoids on the suggestion of the school medical officer?—That is a possible solution.

97934. Was that your solution?—I had thought, taking the case of the adenoids, that the child would be sent to the local hospital under the advice of the school education officer; the fact that the child is suffering from various maladies will induce the school medical officer to draw the attention of the medical officer of health of the borough to the home.

97935. That ought to be done now, ought it not, in ordinary Poor Law administration?—It is being done very largely now, but if our scheme were adopted, we should eliminate one of these sources of conflict, the further authority which is coming along with medical relief.

97936. (*Mr. Lock.*) In the case of the children?—Yes.

97937. The Poor Law medical officer would go out?—He would go out of the scheme.

97938. By your new arrangement you would exclude him from all child work?—Yes; and we should have, as it were, the pulse of the home exhibited in the condition of the child. What is found in the child at school very often will tell you what to expect in the home.

Mr. Ernest Gray,
M.A.;
Mr. Philip E. Pilditch,
L.C.C.;
Sir Shirley F. Murphy,
M.D.;
Mr. Edgar J. Harper.

23 Mar. 1908.

Medical inspection and treatment of school children.

- Mr. Ernest Gray, M.A.; Mr. Philip E. Pilditch, L.G.; Sir Shirley F. Murphy, M.D.; Mr. Edgar J. Harper.
97939. (Mr. Gardiner.) So practically you would eliminate the district medical officer altogether?—Yes.
97940. I do not quite understand one answer you gave this morning as regards the enlargement of the county area of London. Did I understand you to say in your own opinion, or the opinion of the county council, that the County of London for Poor Law purposes should be kept as it is at present, that you could not face the possibility of including in the Poor Law area of London places like Tottenham?—What I gave was my personal view founded on my knowledge of one of the districts which was specifically mentioned in the question; but there is a difference of view amongst members of the council, I know, with regard to the desirability of enlarging the area not for Poor Law purposes simply, but for many other purposes of municipal government.
97941. Have you followed it out as regards classification by institution that if you leave West Ham by itself it is very difficult for West Ham to classify by institutions?—That is probably true, that it would be more difficult for West Ham.
97942. Under your scheme West Ham would be bound to move in one direction or the other, would it not, either towards London or away from London?—It is part of a union at the present moment; but I doubt whether it would move towards London.
97943. Would you have it moved towards Essex?—It might.
97944. At any rate, as far as you are concerned, you would keep it outside London?—I think I would. I think that is the general desire there now.
97945. (Miss Hill.) May I gather from the general trend of all the evidence that you are of opinion that the London County Council has as yet so assimilated its various duties that it is ready to undertake a large amount of new work?—Yes.
97946. Do you consider that the body best qualified to deal with the poor, and which would be interested in them, would be secured by the members standing an election to bodies like the county council and the borough councils, which have many other and different duties such as paving, lighting and rating? Do you think you would get the sort of men who would be interested in the poor?—Yes; I am quite sure that although the council is elected on a large number of issues, that the work of education is being as efficiently accomplished now as it was under the school board.
97947. You consider that is so?—As a member of the education committee, I do.
97948. And that the people will have time for these various duties?—Yes, they departmentalise very largely.
97949. You are distinctly prepared to commit the Poor Law work to the borough councils?—Yes.
97950. In speaking about the classification, of which so great a point is made, I gathered from your answers to Mrs. Sidney Webb you would consider it so important for a crippled child to be amongst cripples that it would quite take away the importance of its being in its own home?—No, I did not wish you to gather that.
97951. I think it rather pointed that way?—I hardly wish you to gather that.
97952. It is a point to be carefully observed, is it not, in all the arrangements?—Quite.
97953. I was also rather struck by what you said about the removal of the child necessarily from a mother who cannot support it. Many mothers who go out to work, surely within your knowledge, make very satisfactory arrangements for their children. Should not the primary object of the Poor Law authority be to keep the home together rather than to drive the mother to part with her child?—There are many parents in London who fully believe that they have made satisfactory arrangements for the care of their children during their absence from home; but if you will make close enquiries you will find that a large number of those children are being systematically drugged, and are being debarred from all possibility of becoming useful members of the community.
97954. Granted, but are you so wholly satisfied with your schools and institutions and scattered homes and so on that you would to a very large extent remove the children from their parents?—No, I take the view that with a very young child, when the mother is competent for children and has the time, the best place for the child is at home of mother with the parent.
97955. You limit it to the very young?—I think I must discriminate between the very young and those who are of school age, because the parent has no choice with a child of school age, the law requires her to send that child to school.
97956. During school hours?—Yes, and that makes it essential that she should differently treat the child of school age to the child under school age. For example, she can send the child at the age of two to a minder or a crèche at an early hour of the morning till she returns from labour in the evening, but she is under statutory obligation to send the child of school age to school at the hour of nine and find some means of housing that child when he comes out at the hours of 12 and 4.30; therefore, she cannot make quite the same arrangement with regard to children of school age as she can with regard to a child under school age. Then, where I think discrimination also arises is from the desirability of the mother nursing her own child when the child is very very young, but that same necessity does not occur with the child of more mature years.
97957. You would lean very much more to the advantage of removing the child than many people would, or so I gathered from you, because there are many mothers who make satisfactory arrangements even for children of school age?—I wish I could bring myself to be satisfied of that, but while I know that a great many of them send their children to crèches, yet those children are not under any public inspection by local authorities—
97958. I was not thinking of crèches?—Then when they send them to minders and pay for them, those minders are not under any control, and the lives of those children are by no means satisfactory from a State point of view, and I feel that in those cases the nursery school would be probably the best place for the child. (Mr. Pilditch.) May I say one word with regard to the question which really goes to the root of whatever difficulty there may be in the proposals of the council, and that is the question as to whether the members of the London County Council and of the borough councils would have sufficient time to do the work. Of course, the London County Council is a very busy body indeed; and it was only after examining all other alternatives that we decided to suggest it should be the central body on the ground of the desirability of having one central rate raising body only. I am not prepared to say that all the borough councils are so busy, or have anything like the same amount of work laid upon them as the members of the London County Council have, and we realise that this would mean a good deal more work. According to the scheme put forward the work which would come on to the county council, if it was made the central authority, would be of two characters: first, the administrative work, the administration of additional lunatic asylums, which would come from the asylums board and would go to the asylums committee and, secondly, the question of co-ordinating and controlling expenditure and so on, two very different kinds of thing. With regard to both those matters, we fully realise it means a good deal more work upon the present members of the council, and we faced the fact that there might have to be some increase of membership. We thought we saw a way of doing this by giving fuller representation to some ten or a dozen big districts in London, which are very inadequately represented now, I mean districts of nearly 50,000 voters having only two members, while other districts with 7,000 or 8,000 voters have two members. We saw a way of returning something like twenty or twenty-five new members who could be placed on the council without affecting its character seriously, and who would provide just the requisite number to fulfil these fresh duties. At the present moment the asylums committee of the council has a membership of thirty-five to look after the asylums and so on. We quite see that we should have to have some more members, and we think that about twenty-five would probably give the necessary increase of membership.
97959. (Chairman.) Of course, your Asylums Committee has done, so far as institutional supervision is concerned,

Provision for children of mothers who go out to work.

Capability of L.C.C. to act as Central Poor Law Authority.

Classification of children.

Provision for children of mothers who go out to work.

very much the same sort of work that it would have to do hereafter?—That is so.

97960. Your real difficulty is supervising and controlling?—Yes, I think that an increased number, say, of twenty to twenty-five given to the present divisions by an all-round suitable scheme, would provide us with an extra number which would enable us to do this work.

97961. What addition did you contemplate for that. Would that be from persons nominated from outside of special experience?—You will see from the scheme that we did suggest there should be a certain number of representatives from the borough councils themselves; not necessarily one from each borough council, but, possibly, if so many were not needed from grouped districts, or something of that sort, and that in addition there might be some co-opted members whose names might be suggested by the Local Government Board. We thought the class of member who might come on as a co-opted member is the man who is now on the Metropolitan Asylums Board to some extent.

97962. Surely there would be some difficulty about nominating the borough members?—They would be representative.

97963. Unless you take one from each?—That would be a detail we have not worked out. It might be necessary to take one from each.

97964. What is your experience on the county council, do you find big committees work well?—You must have them of a certain size. I think they work very well. You see a big committee like the asylums committee must be big because it has so many institutions to look after, therefore, it must have a sufficient membership to give sufficient members to look after the different institutions.

97965. What portion of the members of the council are members of the education committee?—There are thirty-eight members of the education committee, and there are twelve now, there used to be five co-opted members. (*Mr. Gray.*) We are recommending another seven. We have only five ladies co-opted at the present time.

97966. And no more?—No more co-opted at all.

97967. The experience of co-opted members is satisfactory, is it not?—We are increasing the number, and the practice of co-option has been adopted pretty well throughout the country. (*Mr. Pilditch.*) There was raised the same point with regard to the borough councils. In the borough councils I do not think the same difficulty would arise as might arise with the London County Council; they are not so busy or full of work that I think we should anticipate any difficulty in getting sufficient numbers to attend the meetings of the local body.

97968. (*Miss Hill.*) Have you found that the members who are members both of the borough council and the guardians work very much on the guardians?—Yes, that is exactly what I have found, that some of the men who have worked the hardest on the borough council have also worked hardest on the guardians.

97969. That is your experience, is it?—Yes, so far as it has gone; it is the hard worker does it wherever he is put. With regard to the borough council. I must point out this, under the statute by which they are constituted there may be seventy, the maximum number is seventy; I think a certain number of them have never yet taken their maximum number; they have found they could do their work with less, and it would be quite possible to increase their numbers, so far as may be necessary, to carry this scheme out.

97970. (*Mr. Loch.*) The question of the number of borough councillors who are also members of the guardians was raised. I have a return here which is not official, but I think can be trusted. It seems to show that those who are both councillors and guardians are very few comparatively. The number of borough councillors stands at 1,583, there are, I understand, 839 guardians and 132 were both councillors and guardians, showing that at present there is not a very large strength of guardians amongst borough councillors. Does that return surprise you?—Yes. (*Mr. Gray.*) I think it does. I thought the proportion was larger.

97971. So that practically one is making it apply to a new set of people to do some new work, at least that is suggested?—Yes.

97972. With regard to what was said about the guardians and their election, when one looks at your abstract, one sees that the year before the election time comes, there is a very large increase in the parochial elector—evidently he is very much looked up, the consequence is that one concludes that the political element in the election is a very strong force in screwing up the number of political electors. If you consider the guardians on the other hand, do you think the guardians ever have honours paid to them such as being chairman or vice-chairman or aldermen or anything of that sort, or receive any public honour for their work?—They never have so far as I know purely for Poor Law service, as members of the Poor Law authorities.

97973. While on the one hand in the borough councils there are many things that make honours for men, on the other hand, for the Poor Law guardians there is nothing such as men would really covet from the point of view of public honours?—No.

97974. Under those circumstances do you not think it is very natural that there should be less keenness both to stand, and less keenness to vote?—Yes.

97975. Does not that lead to this, that possibly if the guardians were treated with equal honour and respect as borough councillors, or as members of the London County Council, and had anything like the same opportunities there, the relation of the public to the guardians would be different to what it now is?—It may be that the candidates would whip up more of their personal friends and that there would be a greater interest, but I do not think that alone would carry it to the extent that we desire.

97976. I am only trying to put the other side of the question which, I think, has been rather overlooked. Even so, is it not very desirable to detach all this Poor Law work, or whatever you choose to call it, from political strife?—I am sure I do not know. The party system does prevent us getting rusty, and I doubt whether there is any greater incentive to exertion than the criticism of your political opponent.

97977. But it might cut both ways: it might, and one sees it does indeed, cut in this way, that a man who would stand firm if he was dealing with a business and not exposed to political torment would yield altogether when it came to facing a crowd; and these questions of out-relief, and so on, are questions on which you must face a crowd; they are popular questions and must remain so?—I think that the same argument might be applied to a very large number of the duties discharged both by Parliament and by county councils. There are many of these questions, in fact, I think it is an argument which is very largely used in favour of one legislative assembly which is not popularly elected, some of the questions which come before the House of Commons, and some which come before the county council, might from the individual point of view be better dealt with entirely outside all party considerations, but nevertheless, although party considerations are brought to bear on them, you get through.

97978. Of course, it all turns upon what you mean by getting through. I should have thought that a survey of Parliament in the last ten or fifteen years, if that be taken as a test, would show that questions in which private benefits were under discussion, essentially the case in the Poor Law, were questions on which it was most difficult to withstand a wide public appeal?—There is no doubt something in that. It is difficult to stand firm in a hotly contested election which is fought on party lines, but then that very difficulty brings about its own remedy. The difficulties of the individual are not restricted to one person alone, they are experienced by many, and the end of it is that the view which is taken by the individual becomes the view of the party, and instead of his having to fight his position alone, his party have endorsed his view, and I think that in a rough way you get a sort of compensation very rapidly.

97979. It is on that that you would rely?—Yes. I have been through a good many political fights, but I do find that where, perhaps, your hottest struggle is, and where hostile criticism is directed against you, those

Mr. Ernest Gray, M.A.; Mr. Philip E. Pilditch, L.C.C.; Sir Shirley F. Murphy, M.D.; Mr. Edgar J. Harper.

23 Mar. 1908.

Efficiency of Guardians and Borough Councillors, and number of men holding dual office.

Political influence on elections.

Co-option of members of L.C.C. Committees.

Mr. Ernest Gray, M.A. ; Mr. Philip E. Pilditch, L.C.C. ; Sir Shirley F. Murphy, M.D. ; Mr. Edgar J. Harper.

are the very factors upon which you get the largest support from your political friends, that you are not standing alone.

97980. Can one understand that one of the co-options that now take place in regard to, say, education, as a matter that you have referred to, or any other branch of county council work, are political: that they are all done, so to speak, on the merits of the person?—No, I cannot say they are not political because I believe our policy at the present time is to give to the political parties on the council their proportion of co-opted persons, but then each party secures people of recognised competence in the world of education, and if the same principle were followed here, while the proportion of parties would be maintained, the co-option would be that of persons acquainted with Poor Law, and indeed, such a provision could be laid down by Statute, as it is laid down by the Education Acts. You are not to co-opt all and sundry under the Education Act, there is a scheme under which each local authority has to submit to the Board of Education; you must make provision for the due representation of various educational interests amongst the co-opted persons, and in the same way I can well understand, that although the council has not pronounced an opinion upon this phase of the question, these committees will have to be constituted in accordance with a scheme which probably will have to be submitted to the Local Government Board for approval, and that we should, therefore have to follow exactly the same lines for Poor Law as we follow now for education. Mr. Harper has just put the Act into my hand, and it provides that the persons co-opted shall be persons of experience of education, and persons acquainted with the needs of the various kinds of schools in the area in which the council acts; so I can imagine persons of experience in the administration of the Poor Law, and persons acquainted with the needs of the poor in the district over which the council acts.

Question of pauperising effect of L.C.C.'s scheme.

97981. I quite clearly understand that in educational matters you are dealing with much more precise issues than you are dealing with when you deal with relief, and the question that one asks naturally after your answer is: What do you mean by your principles here? Without that this would mean little or nothing. Are the principles of relief the same as those you mentioned with regard to education, or what are they; indeed it is on that the whole issue turns. The Poor Law turns on the acceptance of certain principles. You propose to make certain very great changes. Are those principles to go forward, or what is to go forward? Judging from your statement, two of which you are in favour are not going forward; you are proposing many things which I think other people would call very pauperising?—The only proposal that I recognise as open to that criticism is the proposal I make with regard to a very very small section of persons who receive relief, that is the children who are in receipt of outdoor relief, and whether the present principle would be maintained, or better adapted is largely dependent on a careful study of the question, which the great authorities might give to it. I cannot conceive it possible that the interests of the poor, or the interests of the ratepayer in London could be worsened (if I may use a word which is not unknown) by such interests being placed under the careful and steady consideration of a great committee constituted in the form that I have suggested. There is no authority now which sits down to carefully consider whether the methods adopted yesterday are the wisest, or whether they could be improved upon to-morrow. Our boards of guardians find sufficient at hand to occupy the whole of their time, and one would like to have some sort of committee, such as this Committee of the Council, which would have power for a little scientific study, as well as for administration.

97982. Granted the utility of science by those who know how to handle it, do you think a system of administration that is not invoked by the ordinances, we will say, of a central governing body like the Local Government Board, we will say, is easy of general application all over England?—Yes; because I think that these authorities such as we have referred to in the scheme ought not to be engaged in simply relieving the poor but in striving to prevent poverty.

97983. Granted absolutely; but the question is, when we get to principles which have to be applied all through the country, whether in making this proposition to us you

have any statement to make with regard to these principles, because on that the whole thing will turn?—No, we are not prepared to say the conditions under which outdoor relief against indoor relief should be granted.

97984. Or any other proposition as to the right way of handling cases?—No, we have dealt with this from the point of view of municipal machinery; and we have set up what we considered to be a machine which would consider those principles, and reform them where necessary.

97985. That is to say, you start the machine, and you let the new aggregation of people, whatever they may be, settle the methods; does it not come to that?—You may say the same thing of every statute that has altered the constitution of the local authority dealing with a certain subject.

97986. I think this is hardly to be dealt with like that, because surely in this case it is a question whether you carry forward procedure already known, or whether you do not. That is open to anybody to judge. If you make a change in the law, you consider what the present law is, and make a change from that present law. So here with method and method. What one feels about this is one does not know where you would strand us—I am speaking for myself, of course. I cannot make out from this where we should be; certainly there would be a great shuffling of authorities?—Yes.

97987. And certainly, also, there would be possibly new methods; but what new methods, or what the new principles are to be, I think we get no idea of; upon that after all is based the constitution of your local authority because you may use it in the one way or the other according to what its purpose and constitution would be?—May I with all respect suggest that when the Technical Education Board for London and the School Board for London were abolished, and the duties of both were transferred to a committee of the County Council, no one attempted to lay down the rule to the effect that the procedure of the old school board should be adopted or should be changed, or suggested that the procedure of the technical education board should be adopted or changed. The committee was constituted. Care was taken to see that it was a fully informed committee; care was taken to secure some continuity by requiring the council to co-opt during the first year of its life some of the members of the abolished authority. Then that authority so constituted was left free to develop. One may argue from that it perpetuated all which was best in principle which had been followed by its predecessors, and improved where they found improvement was necessary. No one will gainsay the statement that the work of the old technical education board has been greatly improved upon. Parliament did not think it necessary to lay down any express opinion with regard to the principles which were to be followed; and I apply that quite recent experience, and one that is vivid in my mind, to the proposals which I have before me, if I constitute an authority which is strong and comprehensive, and give them power to discriminate the duties they are called upon to fulfil. There are certain members of the public health committee, and certain of the other committees, they have a remainder which cannot be allotted to the existing committees, and they allot that to the Poor Law committee. Then that Poor Law committee would naturally perpetuate what is in existence for the moment, it could not change in twenty-four hours; but I could not by any means guarantee that on consideration of the subject it would not bring about, not only within its own immediate range of operations, but also in the local authorities it is directing and controlling, considerable changes in their methods of treatment. They might, on a study of the question, draw lines which are not existent at the present time between outdoor and indoor relief.

97988. You would recognise the fact that the present and future of an educational development is very different from the present and future of the relief development; in the one case you can have schemes as widely apart as possible from the present administration, but in the educational development, generally speaking, in the very process of its movement, it goes from one point to another?—I do not press them as an exact parallel, but I think the one does illustrate the other.

97989. One would have wished for a little more light on that issue, that is what I should say?—Then I should be

for afraid, if I were to try to give that light, I might be expressing my private views and go far beyond the scheme that the council placed on paper.

97990. Principles are referred to by your paper and by the council, so it is natural for one to ask what are the principles—the principles of administration.

97991. (*Mr. Bentham.*) It is more necessary to lay down a principle upon which people shall be eligible to receive relief at the hands of the community rather than education, for this reason: That we expect people to provide a livelihood for themselves; that any scheme of public provision should tend towards ultimate self-support rather than to public support. The question of education is altogether different, it is on a different basis; it is impossible for people to make provision for their own education in the sense that we should expect people to provide their own livelihood and the livelihood of their children, so principles are necessary to be laid down as to what shall constitute eligibility for relief. It is no remedy merely to divide the dependent classes amongst different bodies, we must see where it is going to land us, or multitudes of people may be living upon public funds under disguise?—Surely that is a fear which we need not seriously entertain, because the people who would be administering this scheme are keenly interested in preventing the pauperisation of London.

97992. I am not so sure of that at all. They are not keen to prevent pauperism?—(*Mr. Pilditch.*) Not the central body proposed?

97993. (*Mr. Bentham.*) Not that I know of so far.

97994. (*Mr. Loch.*) You put before us very clearly, so far as possible, how the various doctors would come together in one house somewhere, but besides the doctors there are visitors, and the visitors are becoming more and more numerous. There is your education visitor and Sir Shirley Murphy's visitor and the relieving officers and so on, and by the scheme of dividing the relief work up between the education and the Poor Law, it seems to me to run yet another risk of having this duplication of work. You already have, undoubtedly, the attendance officer, and if all the work is in his hands you make of him an inquiry officer like a Poor Law relief inquiry officer. Are you not afraid that with these various visitors attached all of them to different bodies you will not make the work of relief, at any rate for the Poor Law body that has to do all this central work of relief (the main work locally), such that they will be in a very great plight, because no sooner do they come to a decision on a case than it goes to the education committee or rather the children's care committee; they may or may not entirely reject what the Poor Law people have done, then you would have two opposite views, and the people will not understand you at all. The one chance as far as my experience goes with regard to relief is to have quite a clear statement of what you will do and not do. Let that be generalised and different people will understand what your policy is. It seems to me here you have two concurrent policies which may easily mislead one, the guardians taking quite a different view to the children's committee?—Yes, but I am afraid you have not appreciated the fact that the view of the one authority would pass to the other committee *via* the central controlling force.

97995. I did not know there was any system that would affect his question?—Supposing, for example, we were working through a Poor Law committee and an education committee, the Poor Law committee would never send an imperative instruction across to the education committee; to act in that manner would certainly lead to trouble. We should probably work with this committee exactly as we are working now in the various committees of the council; we exchange memoranda as to the methods which shall be adopted in the treatment of various classes of work, and if the two committees agree, well and good; we report to the council that we agree, but if we cannot agree, if there is a difference of opinion between the two committees, then we have a special machinery in existence to which the difficulties which have arisen may be brought for consideration.

97996. You propose to have the same system locally; the borough council is to act as master settler of any question upon which these two committees differ?—

Naturally, they are the committees of the council and if those committees cannot agree without reference to their parent authority, they would go to the parent authority for instruction. This occurs now: We, as a Local Government committee, have for some time been dealing with a question of special courts for the hearing of school attendance cases; we have been in constant correspondence with the education committee on this subject with a view to coming to a closer agreement. If we had reached an agreement (the subject-matter fell through owing to the action taken in Parliament) we should have simply reported to the council that we had agreed, and the council would have authorised us to go forward through the proper committee. If conflict had arisen and we had not proceeded in that way, the subject would have been referred to the general purposes committee of the council and an attempt would have been made to bring about a reconciliation between the conflicting parties.

97997. I can quite understand this on general views, and I can quite understand it on matters on which they shall decide what shall be done, but my special difficulty is that someone must be made responsible for the family; it is the Poor Law authority at present, and it seems difficult to divide that up between two authorities in the running daily work of the two bodies; I think it is impossible. It is possible to departmentalise all work absolutely, but I do think it is extremely difficult to departmentalise a case in halves, which I think is what you are attempting; is it not so?—We have not apprehended any difficulty of that character; you perhaps will allow me to say that notwithstanding the criticism expressed in the questions to-day I do not apprehend any serious difficulty, as I believe we have overcome the other phase of London life to which I have referred so markedly to-day; all this kind of difficulty was foreshadowed when the Act of 1902 was on the stocks. I used to hear all this constantly then, and I thought there might be something in it, but these apprehended difficulties have been overcome by an exercise of common sense.

97998. You are surely referring to what is quite different from what we ever have in the relief work in individual families, there is no precedent for what you are proposing—none?—I do not apprehend any serious difficulty.

97999. One may fairly ask for a precedent when you are making such a tremendous change as you propose?—(*Mr. Pilditch.*) Would it not be an equally tremendous change if you adopt any of the other alternatives that presumably have been before this Commission.

98000. I think not. I have known of all the propositions that have been made to us, and I do not remember anywhere there has been a proposal to divide the family up? You are thinking of the children question?

98001. Yes, in relation to the Poor Law, not otherwise?—I see we have not been speaking of the same thing; I think the point to think of is the principle of the working of the main proposal.

98002. You say this Poor Law, if I may call education Poor Law, which you practically propose to create is based really on Section 3 of this Act of 1906 which is purely an Act for the provision of funds out of the rates for the feeding of the children. We have no other basis for this Poor Law unless it be the section of the Education Act, which is a very broad section, and about which there has been a recent circular. As a matter of fact, therefore, can you fairly build up on any existing statutory law what you suggest as a division between Poor Law and education?—(*Mr. Gray.*) I am not sure, but I am certain of this, that our scheme will stand without this line referring to the out-door relief of the children, and I hope the scheme as a whole will not be judged by the predominance which has been given to-day to what is really an incident in the scheme, but it is not essential to the scheme. This question of the care of a certain number of the children has throughout the day been treated as though it were essential to the main lines of the scheme. It is not. It is a reform which we would gladly accomplish in connection with the scheme, but if serious practical difficulties are considered by the Commission to stand in the way, that recommendation if dropped from the scheme, leaves the scheme without serious injury. The merit of county council central control and borough council

Mr. Ernest Gray, M.A.; Mr. Philip E. Pilditch, L.C.C.; Sir Shirley F. Murphy, M.D.; Mr. Edgar J. Harper.

23 Mar. 1908.

Proposed methods of administration under L.C.C. scheme.

Mr. Ernest Gray,
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local control remain intact, whether you treat all out-door relief of the children as a Poor Law matter or an educational matter. (Mr. Pilditch.) I should like, if I may, to emphasise what has just fallen from Mr. Gray, because as a matter of fact, personally, I was opposed to the introduction of what I considered this extraneous matter in our report, though I do not say I am opposed to it in principle. As we disentangled it in our mind, it ought to be disentangled in the Commissioners' minds, if I may so suggest, from the main principle, the point we want to advocate. It is quite outside, and a subsidiary matter. (Mr. Gray.) I have taken the questions to-day as meaning that the Commissioners saw no difficulty with regard to the remainder of the scheme, but had found a difficulty with this detail. I have directed my replies to attempting to remove their difficulties on the details, assuming there was no need to enter into a justification of the main principles as they were apparently not in conflict.

98003. To refer to Paragraph 12, as a matter of fact have you found a division of service between several local authorities has led to much overlapping in London?—I think there is no doubt about that.

98004. What would you quote as instances?—In the matter of the asylums, there is the London County Council and the Metropolitan Asylums Board.

98005. Putting aside the asylums and the lunatics?—The county council educate children, the guardians educate children, the district managers educate children, and the Metropolitan Asylums Board are educating children.

98006. The Metropolitan Asylums Board deal with one class of child?—Yes.

98007. Can it be said that there is overlapping. There are four authorities, but they are not seriously overlapping?—We have favus schools; they have ringworm schools. I think the two are the same, and economy and efficiency would probably be secured by bringing the two sets of patients under the one control.

98008. In that case one authority might take both?—We are dealing with a wide range of special classes, and obtaining the finest advice which the world can offer in the treatment of children mentally and physically defective.

98009. Has any proposition been made by the Metropolitan Asylums Board, or the Local Government Board to make this transfer?—Not to my knowledge.

98010. Why should not it be made, because then the overlapping would stop?—In that particular instance, yes.

98011. What other instances have you?—The London County Council is said to be the central health authority for London, and if I may in Sir Shirley Murphy's presence quote the illustration, I presume that the most complete arrangements which were ever made in London for dealing with infectious diseases, were the arrangements made by Sir Shirley Murphy, in connection with the bubonic plague and the prospect of London being devastated by that.

98012. That is to say by the council's plan you would wish Sir Shirley's department to take over the health part of the Metropolitan Asylums Board?—The Metropolitan Asylums Board are dealing with these infectious diseases hospitals, and I cannot help feeling that it would be far preferable for London, if the treatment of infectious diseases were in the hands of a central authority.

98013. With regard to the Poor Law proper, these of course, are extraneous things which have been started to meet some special purpose, and naturally all kinds of things have been put under one board historically, and it is quite understandable; but with the Poor Law proper, where is the overlapping there?—I am not quite sure how far our definition of what is Poor Law services would agree. I have before my eyes here the idea of the industrial schools. The London County Councils has a number of industrial schools, and the Metropolitan Asylums Board are dealing with remand homes.

98014. Could not your remand homes be by arrangement transferred?—That does not in itself necessitate an alteration of system?—Yes.

98015. You are the prison authority, therefore the Overlapping remand home might go to you. That is surely no objection?—If the four alterations which I have already quoted were to be met by a transfer, we are getting along to the accomplishment of my scheme.

98016. Instead of asking for a great alteration you by pure administrative arrangement as between two authorities, with the consent of the Local Government Board, can carry it out; but it does not touch the main problem of the Poor Law.—I find here that notification is sent to the Metropolitan Asylums Board by the borough medical officers—that is notification of diseases.

98017. Not normal diseases?—And the hospitals are under the charge of the Poor Law unions, at the cost of the Poor Law unions.

98018. Would you in sequence say that all infirmaries must be moved from the Poor Law unions?—No, not the infirmaries.

98019. Why should not this be treated as it has been treated, as an appendage of the infirmaries?—I was not aware that it had been.

98020. It is a Poor Law institution, and to it Poor Law cases are sent?—Yes.

98021. Is there any other thing that causes confusion and unnecessary expenditure? Where should the expenditure be reduced?—I think you would find it if you tried in Eltham.

98022. What have you in Eltham?—Some considerable difficulty in determining the proper assessment of property. You have the guardians in several instances still appointing assessment committees. In others, the borough councils are making assessment committees. I should be very glad if you would let Mr. Harper tell you what does exist in Eltham at the present time.

98023. That is the question of assessment?—Yes.

98024. Most of the boards of guardians have given it up?—Most have given it up.

98025. Six or seven remain?—Some remain.

98026. Is it not practically an influence almost disappearing?—An element almost removed, true; but it is one of the things that is influencing our steps.

98027. That is, like vaccination, a kind of additional task of the Poor Law; it does not refer to the main issue of Poor Law administration?—That may be. Again I say if all these instances to which I have referred are to be admitted as difficulties which ought to be removed, and if I am to understand that the whole of the municipal services of the boards of guardians are to be transferred to the borough councils, then we are getting a long way along with our scheme; but it would be just as well to have on record the trouble with regard to this Eltham case; and unless it is somebody who is thoroughly familiar with it, with the map in front of him, I do not believe any human being can keep it in his mind for twenty-four hours. (Mr. Harper.) I might say as regards that that Eltham is part of the borough of Woolwich and of the union of Lewisham. The borough council of Woolwich makes the valuation list for Eltham, and the board of guardians for the Lewisham union appoints the assessment committee which revises that valuation list. The borough council of Woolwich takes one view of an important decision of the House of Lords on rating, and the assessment committee of the Lewisham Union takes an opposite view; the consequence is that the rating in Eltham in that respect is neither on a level with the rating of the rest of the borough of Woolwich, nor on a level with that of the rest of the union of Lewisham. You have three areas: Eltham, and on the other hand the balance of the borough of Woolwich, and the balance of the union of Lewisham, all three of which ought to be subject to the same practice of valuation law; and there are practically three sets of decisions being given every quarter on this point.

98028. Eltham, of course, has been the maximum anomaly of the Metropolitan district organisations?—Greenwich district is even worse. Charlton and Kidbrook are in the Greenwich borough and the Woolwich union. The Woolwich union appoints the assessment committee, and the Greenwich Borough Council makes the valuation list.

Overlapping of various agencies for relief and education.

98029. Take the question of what is called Poor Law expenditure proper, is there any conflict of jurisdiction that makes unnecessary expenditure? These are assessment questions with regard to which I should have thought most people were in agreement. What one is anxious to have pointed out is what is ordinary unnecessary expenditure by reason of our Poor Law expenditure or Poor Law workhouses and the administration of relief?—(Mr. Gray.) I think it would be because there would be a very strong inducement brought to bear upon the borough councils to try and stop the spread in the increase of the number of cases chargeable to the Poor Law.

98030. One way of doing that would be to organise the charities?—Yes.

98031. I understand there is some feeling in favour of it?—Yes.

98032. Would it be wrong to say that hitherto the official bodies of the Metropolis have not been very much inclined to use voluntary institutions?—Let me put an illustration that occurs to my mind. It is quite a common thing for parents to send the children who are going out to work at haphazard into industries where some small wage may be found at once. There is the possibility in certain of those industries that when the child reaches the age of nineteen or twenty, and is seeking men's wages, he may be told there is no further need for him. He has learned some portion of the trade, nothing more; he has no industry at his disposal and no employment in the district. He must travel out and get where he can, wander into some other district in search of work; and far too many of them, even under the age of thirty, become registered as unemployed at the various employment bureaux. Why cannot some care be taken by a local authority to direct parents, and the lads who are going out to work, as to the chance of permanent employment in certain industries in order that they shall not jeopardise their future by getting the few shillings a week that are offered in the immediate present? I have referred two or three times to-day to these children's care committees, some of them, voluntary associations, are known as after-care committees; many of them now are doing this very work, they are trying to advise the parents and these young people so that they may look forward with some reasonable probability to some period of continued employment, instead of snatching at what they can get now, and swelling the ranks of the unemployed a little later on. I really do not see why the Poor Law authority, whatever it may be, should not direct some of its energies to methods of which what I have just referred to is a type or illustration; methods by which people could be kept out of the range of Poor Law assistance; and I should have thought if we could have secured close co-operation between the borough council, the charity organisations of the district, and the central authority, that something could be done to assist those who have no means of acquiring this information direct themselves, and thus reducing ultimately the expenditure upon the unemployed.

98033. That question has been, I may say, before us, and it may or may not be successful; but you quote that really as an instance of one point upon which you think public authorities would be willing to co-operate with private persons?—Yes.

98034. And you think that as a matter of fact that co-operation would now be willingly forthcoming which I think one would admit ten years ago was not?—Yes.

98035. In fact you think there has been a great change of opinion?—I do.

98036. May I put this question which Mr. Pilditch referred to? Would you not have to come to something like a very systematic and recognised arrangement with voluntary societies if they are to do their share on this matter? Will you not, in fact, have to throw definite responsibility upon them?—(Mr. Pilditch.) I think so absolutely. I think it is because this proposal does set up in a definite way in each district a definite Poor Law authority at the town hall, in connection with which charitable agencies might work, that constitutes one of its greatest recommendations, at any rate to my mind.

98037. What is it in your mind to propose? Would you say that there would be any standard required, or any condition to be fulfilled by charities, or would you believe in a registration of charities?—I do not know that I am in a position to formulate a scheme upon which

the various different charities and charitable institutions should work together. Of course their objects and aims are not altogether quite the same, although ultimately, perhaps, they are; and I think that that would have to be left to the various organisations themselves when such a scheme had been set on foot.

98038. That is to say, that though you cannot see your way to the details of an organisation of this kind, you think that if it could be carried out in any way, a kind of nexus between the two, the feeling of the time and the feeling of the County Council is in favour of it?—It certainly is growing that way. We know, of course, that something of the sort obtains in Germany at the present time, where the town hall, or the equivalent of the town hall, is made the centre for the charitable undertakings of the kind, where those agencies are brought into touch with their equivalent for our Poor Law; we know that that is done now in Germany; and one hopes to see, on lines more suitable to our idiosyncrasies, something of the same sort carried out here.

98039. The German relation to all kinds of associations is very different from that which prevails in our law as regards charities?—You mean it is more official there?

98040. Yes, and if I remember aright you have to say of whom your committee consists; what its purpose is; and it has to absolutely receive the approval of the Government and the municipality?—I anticipate greater freedom of action on the part of the societies in regard to anything carried out in this country, as being more in accordance with our particular individualistic way of looking at things.

98041. Quite so?—From those who have to give relief down to those who have to receive it.

98042. On the other hand, you must have a working understanding which is quite effective and responsible?—Yes. I should like to answer one or two points raised by Mr. Loch. First of all, I understand he directs some criticism towards the scheme of the Council on the grounds that it does not deal with general broad principles, or any alterations necessary in the broad principles, upon which poor relief should be given throughout the country. That is simply because we have not looked upon those matters as being within the scope of our duties. We set out first of all to consider, as a Local Government committee, of the Council, and next as the Council itself, one thing and one thing only: the question of the administration of the Poor Law in London, because that only did we think came within our proper purview. May I suggest that we rather looked upon it as being more the duty of this commission, having regard to its Reference, to deal with the question of the definition of these general principles and what alterations were required in these principles, than that we should offer an opinion to the Commission with regard to that particular point. Further, whatever these principles are, or whatever changes may be necessary in them, they would apply, one would imagine, with equal force to whatever central or other administration you set up to administer them. I do not know if I have fully understood the class of principle which Mr. Loch has in mind, but the general broad principles of Poor Law administration, the way money is to be raised for the Poor Law, and in a great measure the principles upon which it is to be given out are matter which are general to the whole country, and which would not be within the scope of what we have set ourselves out to do. I am afraid the general lines of our scheme have not received as much attention as, perhaps, a very important point, but, after all, a side issue in this scheme, namely, the question brought forward as to the Poor Law children. There was one other point; I think Mr. Loch anticipated some practical difficulties in regard to the working of the borough councils, as parent bodies, with their Poor Law committees.

98043. And the education committees?—He said if the Poor Law committee in the Borough had decided on certain things, it would be extremely difficult for the parent body to exercise control over them. I think our view was that on simple questions of detail of administration, such committees as might be set up would really be in a great measure independent of the borough councils, who would exercise their influence more over the question of finance, exactly in the same way as the London County Council would exercise its influence over the finance of its central Poor Law committee.

Mr. Ernest Gray,
M.A.;
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23 Mar. 1908.

Applicability of German system of relief to England.

L.C.C. as central authority.

Advantages of political feeling entering administrative bodies.

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M.A.;
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Advantages of political feeling entering administrative bodies.

98044. That is rather applying to a committee like the asylums committee or the education committee?—Hardly so with regard to asylums, because over its Asylums Committee the London County Council has exceedingly little, if any, financial control at the present moment. Another point is this: I think Mr. Loch rather deprecated the idea of changing from one body, namely, the board of guardians, which are looked upon as a non-party, non-political body, to a borough council, which he thought was more in the nature of a political body, as the unit for local Poor Law administration. With regard to that, I should like to say that in my experience a great many guardians' elections are fought upon purely political grounds; and, more than that, when they are not fought on political grounds they are very often fought on much worse and lower grounds namely by small cliques and sections in districts; and that as a matter of fact I think you get in elections for borough councils elections fought on a much higher plane as a general rule than the elections which are fought, in many districts at any rate, for the present boards of guardians. I should be far from deprecating altogether the introduction of political issues in borough council elections—altogether, I say. As Mr. Gray has said in other words, there is a merit in the party system. I have in my mind at the present moment a borough council which until a year ago consisted of two parties, two-thirds of one party and one-third of the other. It now consists almost entirely of one party. One stray alderman remains behind to represent the minority. I have not the slightest hesitation in saying that the late borough council was the better one of the two; there was more criticism; there was more discussion; and everything was brought out and threshed out more thoroughly than it is at the present moment, so I think the amount of political feeling which is brought into the work of the borough council is not altogether a disadvantage. If you do not have it worked on party lines to a certain extent you will have it worked on some other lines. I am inclined to think that party lines provide the cleanest, openest, and best way of dealing with matters of that kind. I merely wish to point out that I think the principle of getting the work done by a body elected in a fair and open, though it may be partisan way, is perhaps better on the whole than if it is elected in a more hole-and-corner way. (*As to the relations between the Borough Council and the Poor Law Committee the Witness subsequently sent in the following note*):—

Proposed relations between Poor Law committee and Borough Council.

"The relations between the Borough Council and this Committee would, I imagine, be similar to that between a Borough Council and one of its present spending committees, most of the detail work of which is done without reference to the Council except as regards matters of principle and matters involving expenditure above a certain amount, which are settled by the Council, being placed on its Agenda in accordance with certain rules laid down. In the case of the Poor Law committees these might provide for the

A.—Reference to it of certain matters subject to confirmation by the Council, as

(a) Changes of method.

(b) The annual budget of expenditure.

(c) Supplemental estimates involving periodical examination of expenditure on broad lines.

B.—Delegation to it of either matters not subject to confirmation by the Council, except by desire of the Poor Law Committee, or by requisition of a certain number of members of it and of the Council, as

(a) All detail matters of administration."

98045. The particular committee which would have the management of this would be political up to a point and for the rest would have a fresh, largely identical body introduced bodily into it?—If you mean by political, consisting altogether of the members of one political party, I should very much doubt that. I should think it would be like the various committees of the London County Council, for instance; each party there has its proper proportion of members on each committee. The chairman is always of the dominant party, which is undoubtedly of advantage, but the membership is divided up in that way. There is nothing to lead us to believe that either the central Poor Law Committee or the local Poor Law Committees would be constituted on any

other lines. (*Mr. Gray.*) You asked me a question about a saving of expenditure and economical administration. I suggest that the present system of keeping the accounts in connection with the Poor Law is excessively cumbrous and wasteful. That is expressed in our paper. I do not want to follow it in detail without your invitation. I want to have upon the record that that particular phase of the question I had forgotten in giving you the illustrations.

98046. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) With regard to the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund, I think I understood you to say you thought the administration of that fund might be a means of exercising control over the borough council?—Yes.

98047. What had you quite in mind?—I think that we are meeting the costs in London to some extent by grants made from the County Council; there is this Common Poor Fund not now under our control, but it would be under our control; I cannot conceive that the present system of making grants for certain objects, and making others a charge upon the Common Poor Fund could remain. I can see that we shall have to make a large grant towards the local expenditure, and a grant which would be simplified; not ear-marked for special services.

98048. That is to say, you would practically alter the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund altogether?—Yes.

98049. Practically abolish it?—Practically abolish it.

98050. Therefore, the present method by which particular expenditure is practically charged on the Metropolis would cease?—Yes. I should not imagine for a moment that after a short experience the council would maintain these separate several grants in respect of separate services.

98051. That, of course, would require legislation?—Yes.

98052. If that was so, would you have in mind a grant which was administered at the discretion of the county council. The present grants, of course, are not at all at their discretion, they have to pay them. Would you contemplate one that would be administered in their discretion?—Not at their entire discretion. I should think they would have to comply with some statutory regulation, or conceivably some instruction from the Local Government Board—preferably statutory; but that they should have a certain freedom of treatment within assigned limits.

98053. That is to say, that the general conditions being laid down by statute or order, the administration of the grant would be in the hands of the County Council, who would be, perhaps, required to satisfy themselves that the conditions were complied with; and in that sense they would have a discretion?—Yes, I feel that that must be the case, because the question of the equalisation of rate charges throughout London could not be left to the council alone, that would have to be laid down by statute; but I should think the council might be empowered to withdraw certain sums where instructions and regulations were not carried out.

98054. Is it not there that you might anticipate some friction with the borough councils?—Yes, if they had refused to carry out the instructions there would be friction before we began to withhold the money.

98055. And the anticipation of that friction might lead to opposition to the scheme, might it not?—I do not know. "A strong man armed keepeth his house."

98056. The City of London would be likely to object, would they not, to control on the part of the London County Council which would enable them to withhold the grant?—Yes.

98057. Would you not anticipate something of the kind from other borough councils?—Not to the same extent as I should expect it from the City.

98058. Still, to some extent?—The city has such a long tradition of self-government that naturally the feeling would arise much more strongly there than in other portions of London. Then, too, I think that a poor district of London, which is receiving a substantial grant through the medium of the County Council from the richer portions of London, would be more readily disposed to accept direction and advice; but the district which is having more, as it thinks, taken away from it which ought

Abolition of Metropolitan Common Poor Fund and legislative measures therefor.

not to be taken, and is at the same time being asked to comply with regulations of which it disapproves, would probably be a little disinclined; but I should hope with the exercise of some tact and care that, what indeed we had hoped, the City would come voluntarily into co-operation with us in this scheme. We expressly refrained from bringing in the City under compulsion in order that we might have the opportunity of securing them by invitation.

98059. (*Mr. Bentham.*) Was this submitted to them?—No, but we have representatives of the City on the council; and we have generally found that with the City that is far the better line of treatment. They recognise the general good of London; and they are willing to co-operate if you do not attempt to exercise direction and control. (*Mr. Pilditch.*) The City representatives raised no objection on the debates in the council to the proposals here, both central and local. May I say this with regard to the general question, the difficulty arising between the central body and the new proposed local bodies: I think it has been within the scope of our views that possibly the way out of any serious difficulty of the kind might arise by means of a reference to the Local Government Board on the lines of the sanitary references which are provided for under the Sanitary Act.

98060. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) Under the Orders, do you mean?—About the local or county councils their acting in default of the borough councils and matters of that kind under Sections 101 and 107 of the Public Health Act of 1901, I think.

98061. Those cases do not often come?—There is one now, as a matter of fact.

98062. They are very rare?—Yes; and no doubt after one or two had been settled under a scheme of this kind they would be rare, if they were ever otherwise.

98063. You gave the reason why you thought there would be considerable difficulty in bringing a county borough, like West Ham, into London. Would you have the same feeling with regard to other places outside London in which people who are employed in London live—Tottenham, and other places of that kind?—(*Mr. Gray.*) Not so strong a feeling, although I ought to say at once I do not know Tottenham, Edmonton, Enfield, and districts like that anything like so well as I know West Ham. But there is a considerable distinction between the urban district of a non-county borough on the one hand and a district which has reached the position of a county borough on the other. West Ham, of course, is a county borough, and the eighth largest county borough in the Kingdom; and I should not have quite so strong a feeling with regard to Enfield and Tottenham.

98064. You would agree, probably, that supposing it were done at all, it ought not to be only for Poor Law purposes, but general purposes as well?—There again, I think you have even a stronger argument on other purposes than you have on Poor Law. It is possible the argument in favour of Willesden coming into London in connection with a scheme of drainage is stronger than it would be on Poor Law.

98065. The great reason for Poor Law would be that the poorer districts would get the benefit of the richer district of London, that would be the argument?—Yes, I know; and much of my position is based upon the limits which one is bound to recognise are imposed upon your power of government.

98066. Still, supposing anything of the sort were done, it would be very undesirable you should have the County of London one for some purposes and not one for other purposes?—That is so.

98066a. (*Chairman.*) Is there anything further that you would like to add?—(*Mr. Pilditch.*) Perhaps I might be permitted to send you a letter containing a few remarks on the feasibility of the main proposal of the London County Council. (*The Witness subsequently sent the following letter.*)

March 31st, 1908.

MY DEAR LORD,—I fear that on the 23rd instant, the case for the municipal administration of the Poor Law in London was, to some extent, overshadowed by the prominence given to the one point of the education and maintenance of Poor Law children.

This is admittedly an important point, and the transference of all such children to the care of the central education authority, the cost of their maintenance, apart from education, to fall upon central Poor Law funds, deserves the fullest consideration.

The time, however, that was devoted to it precluded full attention being given to the question of the feasibility and the principal difficulties of the main proposal of the London County Council. The existence of these difficulties has not been lost sight of, but I think there are solutions of them.

As to the advantages of a single authority in each district for all branches of municipal work, more need not be said than was then said, assuming it to be an axiom that it is a good principle, if it can be carried out, and that the ideal system, for such a great city as London, would be one under which each of its thirty cities and boroughs fulfilled the duties of local administration, under the full control of a central body for the expenditure of centralised funds, and working according to general rules and regulations, as far as locally raised funds are concerned.

The principal difficulties to be faced in working such a scheme are:—

(1) The provision of an efficient local committee of the borough council, and the setting up of an effective working relationship between it and its parent body, securing financial control of all locally raised expenditure to the latter.

(2) The possibility of carrying out, under a system by which each Borough Council Poor Law Committee had the management of its own workhouses and infirmaries, a system of classification of inmates, and of variety in their treatment according as to whether they were:—

(a) Worthy but unfortunate.

(b) Worthless and lazy.

(c) Of low type, physically or mentally.

(3) The working out of an effective scheme of central co-ordination and control.

(a) Co-ordination of methods of treatment.

(b) Control of expenditure met out of centralised funds.

As to (1).—This is the least difficult of the three, for I believe that a committee formed of:—(a) Members of the borough council; (b) of the most effective members of the present boards of guardians; and (c) of members nominated by the Local Government Board or the central body, or both, probably including representatives of local societies, would form a more effective body for dealing with the actual management of the poor in London than any that has yet existed in this country, or than any other possible alternative not yet tried here, including a great central or localised bureaucratic system of paid officials—even if working with the aid of committees appointed in the localities. The relations between this committee and the borough council would, I imagine, be similar to that between say a borough electric lighting or works committee and the council. All of these committees are spending committees and most of their detail work is done without reference to the council except as regards matters involving expenditure above a certain amount or matters of principle, which are placed upon the agenda of the council and settled by it in accordance with certain rules laid down.

In the case of the Poor Law Committee these might provide for the:—

A.—Reference to it of certain matters subject to confirmation by the council. Such matters would include:—

(a) Changes of method.

(b) The annual budget of expenditure.

(c) Supplemental estimates.

B.—Delegation to it of other matters not subject to confirmation by the council, except by desire of the Poor Law Committee, or by requisition of a certain number of members of it and of the council. These would include:—

(a) All detail matters of administration.

Such a system, which is very briefly outlined here may I think from my experience of borough council work and what I have seen of guardians' work be satisfactorily developed.

Mr. Ernest Gray,
M.A.;
Mr. Philip E. Pilditch,
L.C.C.;
Sir Shirley F. Murphy,
M.D.;
Mr. Edgar J. Harper.

23 Mar. 1908.

Principal difficulties in carrying out L.C.C. scheme.

Relation of Poor Law Committees to Borough Councils.

Functions and duties of Poor Law Committees.

Mr. Ernest Gray, M.A. The second difficulty is a greater, but I do not think an insuperable one.

Mr. Philip E. Pilditch, L.C. In the first place, I think a body, constituted as proposed, of persons having a wide range of knowledge of the poor in its district, would be well qualified to discriminate as to the category in which each individual should be placed.

Mr. Shirley F. Murphy, M.D. In the second place I think such a body better fitted than any other yet devised to act as the nucleus through which the charitable and prevention of pauperism agencies in each district might be brought into useful contact with those administering the Poor Laws and working in connection with them.

Mr. Edgar J. Harper. And in the third place, I think that each borough represents an area large enough to permit of its providing separate establishments for each of the three before-mentioned classes of paupers.

I take the cases of three London boroughs:—

(1) The City of Westminster, of whose council I am a member.

(2) The borough of Islington, one of the divisions of which I represent on the London County Council.

(3) The borough of Bermondsey.

Westminster is a typical rich district, though as a matter of fact, 24 per cent. of its inhabitants live in tenements of four rooms or less.

Islington is a typical lower middle and working class residential district.

Bermondsey is a typical poor district.

In Westminster there are four workhouses and one infirmary under three unions and boards of guardians.

In Islington there are two workhouses and one infirmary under one board of guardians.

In Bermondsey there are three workhouses and one infirmary under one board of guardians.

The following table gives the figures:—

Borough.	Workhouses.			Infirmarys.		
	No.	Certified accommodation.	Inmates.	No.	Certified accommodation.	Inmates.
Bermondsey - - - - -	3	1,642	1,543	1	640	590
Islington - - - - -	2	2,129	(*) 2,489	1	800	789
Westminster (St. George's) - -	2	2,027	1,663	1	776	658
Strand - - - - -	1	1,166	(‡) 1,188	—	—	—
Westminster - - - - -	1	573	(†) 455	—	—	—
	4	3,766	3,306	1	776	658

It seems clear that, with the existing buildings, there should be no serious difficulty in classifying and treating differently.

In the case of smaller boroughs, each having only one workhouse, it might be possible by grouping (which has its disadvantages in a disconnection of the control of the borough council) to overcome the difficulty which would probably be of only a temporary character pending the provision of suitable accommodation in each borough.

And it appears desirable that penal workhouses for the third category, viz., the worthless and lazy might be set up and managed centrally. Not large institutions, lest the disadvantages suffered by the Belgian and some other penal workhouses be repeated here.

As to the third difficulty, that of provisions for adequate control and co-ordination by the central body, it appears certain that if the remainder of the proposal is satisfactorily arranged there will not be any difficulty in elaborating this.

The suggestion of giving this work to the London County Council and to a Poor Law Committee working in connection with it was only adopted after considering all other alternatives that could be thought of, and because of the desirability of providing that, in regard to the expenditure of money raised by an equal rate throughout the county, the body responsible for raising it should

expend it, where it was expended for county purposes, and control its expenditure, where it was expended by local bodies.

These other alternatives were:—

The guardians, or similar *ad hoc* local bodies, to be the local administrative or spending bodies with greater control by the Local Government Board or from an *ad hoc* central body.

An *ad hoc* elective central body working with and through local committees appointed by it or by the Local Government Board.

A paid central board appointed by the Local Government Board or otherwise and working as before with local bodies.

Neither system appeared to be so likely to be accepted or so suitable for various reasons as that of municipalisation.

To name the reasons would be merely to go over the whole ground again.

I remain,

Yours very truly,

PHILIP E. PILDITCH.

2, Pall Mall East, S.W.

The Right Hon. Lord George Hamilton.

* In addition 138 paupers belonging to Islington were housed in workhouses belonging to Kensington, Lewisham, and North Witchford.

† Including thirty-four patients chargeable to other unions.

‡ Including 169 patients chargeable to other unions.

ONE HUNDRED AND FIFTY-FOURTH DAY.

Tuesday, 24th March, 1908.

AT SCOTLAND HOUSE, WESTMINSTER, S.W.

PRESENT.

The Right Hon. Lord GEORGE HAMILTON, G.C.S.I.,
etc., etc., etc. (*Chairman*).
Sir SAMUEL B. PROVIS, K.C.B.
Mr. F. H. BENTHAM.
Dr. A. H. DOWNES.
The Rev. T. GAGE GARDINER.

Mr. GEORGE LANSBURY.
Mr. C. S. LOCH.
The Rev. Prebendary H. RUSSELL WAKEFIELD.
Miss OCTAVIA HILL.
Mr. R. H. A. G. DUFF (*Secretary*).
Mr. J. JEFFREY (*Assistant Secretary*).

Mr. Henry
A. Harben.
24 Mar. 1908.

Mr. HENRY A. HARBEN, called; and Examined.

98037. (*Chairman*.) You have been good enough to send us in a paper in answer to certain questions, and there is with it a Report of the Central Hospital Council; if you will kindly hand them in we will treat them as your Evidence-in-chief?—Certainly.

(*The Witness handed in the following Statement.*)

The following answers are to be taken as expressing the opinion of the council as a whole and not as necessarily representing the views of its constituent hospitals.

1. *To what extent are voluntary hospitals (in-door and out-door) used by persons able to make payment for the treatment which they receive, and do you think that methods should be adopted with a view to some part or all of the cost of treatment being provided by the patient or his friends, either at the hospital or through part-pay hospitals?*

The circumstances affecting the different hospitals of London vary so greatly that the council feels that the only way to obtain an approximately accurate answer to this question is by referring it to each hospital.

The council, in so far as the hospitals represented on it are concerned, is of opinion that there is no evidence of any general abuse of hospitals, and that there is a good deal of evidence to the contrary.

The council is, however, of opinion that if there were more provident dispensaries in London and if effective co-operation were established between them and the hospitals, the number of out-patients attending the hospitals could be considerably reduced. A scheme for such co-operation, drawn up by the council in 1905, is annexed to this Statement.*

2. *Considering the patients both from the medical and from the social point of view, to what extent is there any co-operation or overlapping between voluntary hospitals and the Poor Law in regard to in-door or out-door patients, and what suggestions would you make towards a scheme of co-operation?*

The question of medical relief in London has been considerably complicated by the establishment of the Poor Law infirmaries, consequent upon the passing of the Act of 1867. Inasmuch as the use of Poor Law infirmaries is not now accompanied by the disabilities attached to other forms of Poor Law relief, it is to be feared that they do compete with the voluntary hospitals in their work and that their tendency is probably to pauperise the poor by accustoming them to the idea of accepting relief of this kind. In some districts attempts are made at co-operation between the hospitals and the Poor Law by means of the almoners of the hospitals working in conjunction with the Charity Organisation Society and the Poor Law officers; but in the absence of any organised body working in this direction over the whole of London, it is evident that such efforts can meet with but limited success. There is, as a matter of fact, often great difficulty in getting cases of a chronic character, unsuitable for treatment in a hospital, transferred from the hospitals to a Poor Law infirmary.

It is too often forgotten that there is a very real distinction between the functions of voluntary charity properly exercised and the Poor Law, and this distinction applies equally to medical as to other forms of relief. It cannot be too often asserted that the function of the Poor Law is the relief of destitution, while that of voluntary charity is its prevention.

So long as a person is not destitute, and so long as it is possible to preserve him from destitution and restore him to independence, so long is he a fit object for voluntary charity. If illness is occasioned or is increased by want of the actual necessities of life and there is no reasonable prospect of the patient being able to obtain these for himself, then it may be desirable that he should be handed over to the Poor Law authorities to be supplied with suitable food and attendance in the infirmary. But if there is a reasonable prospect of the patient being able, when cured, to maintain himself by his own exertions, it is far better that he should be relieved temporarily by voluntary charity than that he should be forced to seek medical relief from the Poor Law. Voluntary charity, including hospital relief, is, after all, temporary in its character; State or rate-aided relief is permanent; it is always there inviting the recipient to rely on it and to recur to it, and thus to lose self-reliance and independence. It is essential, therefore, that the granting of Poor Law medical relief should be curtailed within the strictest limits, and that any extension of its operations should be regarded with grave suspicion. To this end it is desirable that a complete and organised system of co-operation should exist between the hospitals and the Poor Law authorities, so that their several functions may be clearly recognised and respected.

This object might be attained by the establishment throughout London of district relief committees, the size of the district being in all cases strictly limited, so that the members of the committee might be able to keep in touch with the poor whom they undertook to visit, and might acquire an intimate knowledge of their circumstances.

The information thus obtained, being of a trustworthy character, would be carefully registered and tabulated, and could be readily available for use and reference by Poor Law officials and hospitals as well as by other charitable agencies.

Beyond this social and economic distinction between patients suitable for charitable and Poor Law assistance respectively, the council recognises a medical distinction which should be maintained in securing co-operation between the voluntary hospitals and Poor Law infirmaries. The present attachment to the voluntary hospitals of physicians, surgeons and specialists interested in the advancement of science and in medical education makes it desirable that cases requiring the highest medical and surgical skill, and cases the study of which is likely to promote medical knowledge, should be selected for treatment in the voluntary hospitals, whilst the Poor

* For copy of the scheme see Appendix No. XVII. (B) handed in by the Hon. Sydney Holland and Mr. E. W. Morris, p. 617 of Vol. III.

Mr. Henry
A. Harben.

24 Mar. 1908.

Law infirmaries should deal with the simpler and more chronic cases. This is not only to be desired in the interests of science and of medical education, but in the opinion of the council such a course is likely to be attended with the greatest degree of benefit to the patients themselves. By care in the selection of cases for admission to the two classes of institution, and by arranging for an easy method of transfer, it should be possible to secure thorough co-operation, each institution dealing with the work for which it is most suited.

3. *What would be the effect on voluntary hospitals of a State-provided or rate-provided system of gratuitous medical relief either for indoor patients or for outdoor patients or for both?*

Effect of free
medical relief
on voluntary
hospitals.

There seems little doubt that the establishment of a State-provided or rate-provided system of gratuitous medical relief for indoor and outdoor patients would result eventually in the extinction of the voluntary hospitals.

If the well-to-do classes were called upon to provide such relief either by taxation or through the rates, it is almost inevitable that they would ultimately withdraw their subscriptions and donations from the hospitals. In some cases there would be unwillingness and, in many cases, inability to contribute to both classes of institutions*.

To the poorer classes it would be disastrous, for though a certain proportion of them might in this way be compelled to contribute to institutions for medical relief, the use made of them would probably be altogether out of proportion to the amount of their contributions, and they would thus be taught to look to the State or to the municipality for the provision of another of the necessities of life for which they ought to provide by their own thrift and forethought.

Need for
State subsidy
to provident
dispensaries.

A State subsidy to provident dispensaries on a scale proportionate to the total sum received from patients' payments, which would make the work of these institutions actually remunerative to medical men, would do much to meet the needs of outdoor patients without fear of pauperisation.

4. *What would be the effect on voluntary hospitals of State-provided aid towards building or management expenses, and if such a system were adopted, what conditions do you suggest should be attached to such grants?*

Question of
State aid to
voluntary
hospitals.

A majority of the council are opposed to State-provided aid towards either building or management expenses on the ground that it would tend to check voluntary support as stated in answer to Question 3.

A majority of the council are of opinion that if such aid were given it should depend upon the existence of voluntary subscriptions and bear some proportion thereto.

Proposal to
exempt
voluntary
hospitals
from local
rates and
from legacy
duty on
bequests.

A valuable and justifiable form of subvention to hospitals would be the relief from local rates (including water rate) and legacy duty. In the case of relief from rates in the county of London, which in 1888-9 amounted to £21,300 (not including charges for water), the unequal distribution of hospitals over the county would render it necessary that the burden should be borne by the county fund and not by the separate boroughs.

In 1900 a Select Committee was appointed by the House of Commons to consider the subject of exempting hospitals from local rates, and after taking evidence the Committee reported on 13th July, 1900, strongly in favour of the relief. Several Bills founded on this Report have been brought in but none have gone to a Second Reading. The latest Bill was presented by Mr. Hayes Fisher in 1905 and ordered to be printed (Bill 139).

Legacy duty on bequests to charities is not payable in Ireland provided the donor was domiciled there.

The relief from rates and legacy duty need not, in the opinion of the council, be subject to any condition except that the hospital should not be carried on for private gain.

98068. (*Chairman.*) I should like to supplement this statement by some questions. You have come here officially on behalf of the hospital council, I understand?—Yes.

98069. I daresay questions will be put to you by members which have, perhaps, not been in the cognizance of

the council; if you wish at all to guard yourself in those cases, perhaps you will state when they are your own individual opinions, otherwise you might find it a little difficult?—Quite so, one feels that. I do not know whether you know what the constitution of the council is? It does not represent all the hospitals in London, but twenty of the largest hospitals. It represents the twelve hospitals having medical schools, and eight other hospitals, having 100 beds and upwards, which are recognised by the Conjoint Board of the Royal Colleges of Physicians and Surgeons, or by the University of London as places for medical study.

98070. The Central Hospital Council has nothing whatever to do with the King Edward Fund?—Nothing at all.

98071. They are quite separate institutions?—Yes; it has no control, it is merely an advisory body which consists of delegates from the different hospitals. I could hand in a list of the hospitals represented.

98072. Is the chairman annually elected?—Yes.

98073. Is it the practice to change the chairman?—Not very frequently; I have been chairman, I should think, for about three years. Lord Methuen was chairman before me.

98074. To our first question as to what extent the voluntary hospitals are used by persons able to make payment, and practically whether there was any abuse connected with it, the council reply that they are of opinion, in so far as the hospitals represented on it are concerned, there is no evidence of any general abuse of hospitals, and there is a good deal of evidence to the contrary. Have you statistics as to the number of persons who are treated in each hospital?—Yes, but the statistics are not of very great value, that is to say as positive figures they are not of great value; in comparing one year with another in the same hospital they may be of some value. I have drawn up an account of the total number of out-patients treated since 1894 by these twenty constituent hospitals, and I find that they increased from 870,550 in 1894 to 1,148,190 in 1906. I have the intermediate figures also.

Statistics of
out-patients
at certain
London
hospitals.

98075. (*Mr. Lock.*) Is that in and out?—Out-patients only. I should like to say that these figures are quite untrustworthy as regards the total number of persons treated, that they must only be looked upon as partially trustworthy as regards a comparison of dates, and for this reason, that no uniform practice exists among the hospitals of London as to registering out-patients. The practice of hospitals varies as to how often a patient shall be registered. In some hospitals you used to find the attendance of patients confused with the registration of new patients. Now-a-days, I think every hospital registers new patients apart from attendances, or almost every hospital; but the practice in different hospitals varies as to what shall be considered a new patient. In some hospitals a patient has to be re-registered if he has been in attendance for a certain time. In almost all hospitals patients going from one department to another will be registered afresh. That is to say, a patient will present himself in some general medical or surgical department, and the doctor after seeing him will say: You ought to go to the eye department; then he is registered afresh as a new patient in the eye department.

98076. (*Chairman.*) Whether he has been treated or not?—Yes. No uniform practice exists; and the practice of hospitals has varied from time to time. It is getting more stringent; but until some definite system is adopted it is impossible to say these figures represent the actual number of out-patients treated. In fact they are considerably in excess of the number of new patients attending those hospitals in one year.

98077. May I put it in my own way to see that I understand? These figures show the total number of persons treated in the separate departments. If a person is treated for a long time in one department I understand that is only one case?—Not in all cases.

98078. I will put it the other way: if a person is treated for a long time in certain hospitals that counts as a double case, we may say?—Yes, according to the regulations of the hospital.

98079. Assuming the same person was to come back at an interval of say a month or so, would that be a fresh case?—It might or might not, that depends upon the

* Some evidence already exists that subscribers who are employers of labour are withdrawing their subscriptions in consequence of the obligations imposed upon them by the Employers' Liability Acts.

practice of the hospital. There is no uniform practice at all. I am merely giving you these facts to show that the statistics are not trustworthy as to positive figures.

98080. Though I suppose we can assume there has been a general increase?—I think they are fairly trustworthy as regards the increase. In fact, if anything, I should think they would under-rate the increase because there has been a tendency of late years for a more strict system of registration, and therefore the chances are in the later years of this period the numbers would be underestimated as compared with the earlier years. [*Note by Witness.*—Since the year 1906, in compliance with suggestions from the King Edward's Fund, a more uniform practice of registering out-patients has been introduced.]

98081. Now as to the in-patients, what sort of number of in-patients have you?—I have not any figures of those.

98182. They are very small compared with the out-patients?—Very small indeed. A hospital which will have several hundred thousand out-patients a year will, perhaps, only have 200 or 300 beds occupied at a time. I have brought no figures as regards in-patients because they are hardly in point. Every hospital is practically full, and therefore there is no substantial increase possible unless it increases its accommodation.

98083. Assuming that this class which gets this out-relief gets it gratuitously, there would in addition to that be all the gratuitous relief given by the free dispensaries?—Undoubtedly.

98084. And also all the gratuitous relief given by the medical Poor Law?—Certainly.

98085. So if you add all those figures together you would in the aggregate, I suppose, get a very large number?—Undoubtedly.

98086. Therefore, the assumption rather would be that there was in this huge aggregate who get this gratuitous relief a considerable number of persons who might be able to pay for it?—It is possible; it is certain there are some. There is a good deal of difference of opinion as to how many. May I say after I understood that my council was unable to answer this question in detail (the first reply is that the only way of obtaining an approximately accurate answer to this question is by referring to each hospital; and it was felt that there was no time to do that before the answers were sent in) when I received a letter from the secretary to the Commission asking me to give evidence here I immediately sent out a series of questions to the secretaries of the twenty constituent hospitals, and I have tabulated their answers, and tried to get a little more definite information, but I find that statistically I cannot add very much to what we say. Opinions differ very considerably upon the subject. In some hospitals the impression is that there are no unsuitable cases treated, or that the number of unsuitable cases treated is a negligible quantity. Where the figures are available they have been stated by the secretaries as from 39 per cent. to 20 per cent. Then, again, the statistics furnished me are statistics furnished by enquiry officers or almoners. It has been the practice since about 1898 or a little earlier, to appoint almoners or enquiry officers, but some of the hospitals have only recently done so. The almoners work on different lines. In some cases the circumstances of all patients presenting themselves for admission are enquired into, in other cases only a certain percentage; in other cases only those who from their personal appearance, or the address they give seem *prima facie* to be unsuitable.

98087. There is a system in some hospitals of small payments?—Yes, in one or two hospitals. Are you referring to the payments for medicine?

98088. I was thinking of the London hospital?—The London and Guy's make a small payment for medicines, and bottles and dressings I think, a trifling payment.

98089. Have your council any opinion upon that?—The council has expressed no opinion upon that at all.

98090. Is opinion much divided?—I think very considerably. Only two or three hospitals have started it. It is very much opposed by the medical profession on the ground that patients by paying a trifling sum, wholly inadequate to the benefit they receive, go away

with the impression that they have done all that can be demanded of them; and that, therefore, such a practice, so far from encouraging thrift, has the exactly contrary effect.

98091. That is to say, they have got medical attendance for 3d. at the hospital, and I suppose that is rather the standard of payment they think they ought to make outside the hospital?—Outside the hospital they would have had to pay the 3d. whether they were well or ill, inside the hospital they have paid the 3d. for each attendance.

98092. You mean if they belonged to a provident dispensary?—Yes; I pronounce no opinion upon it. That is the argument; they think they have satisfied all the demands that can reasonably be made upon them.

98093. Your council think that if more provident Need for and dispensaries were established in London that that would advantages tend to diminish the number of out-patients?—With of more a more efficient system of co-operation between the provident dispensaries and the hospitals. provident dispensaries in London.

98094. What should you say was the inducement for a man to belong to a provident dispensary if he was in the neighbourhood of a hospital like the London hospital?—The only inducement would be the fact that he could not get treatment at the London hospital. If every hospital refused to treat a patient who in their opinion was in a position to subscribe to a provident dispensary he would be forced into the dispensary.

98095. Do you assume that the dispensary would make domiciliary visits?—No, not the provident dispensaries.

98096. Not?—I imagine not.

98097. (*Mr. Loch.*) On the part of the medical men?—Certainly, in certain cases.

98098. (*Chairman.*) It would seem to be an attraction on the part of the provident dispensary that, assuming a certain payment was made, the person who made it would be able in certain cases to secure the attendance at his home. That would be an attraction, I should think?—That would be one attraction certainly.

98099. Is it a great attraction to this particular class of if they can select their own doctor?—Yes, they attach Advantage of allowing poor persons to select their own doctor. a great deal of importance to that, even in the largest hospitals. They will tramp a long way to come to one of the big London hospitals because they know that somebody who has cured a relative is one of the physicians there.

98100. Would you consider it an essential part of any large scheme of provident dispensaries that you should Conditions and difficulties of a scheme of provident dispensaries in London. if possible, draw in the local practitioners?—Undoubtedly, and in great quantities. In the scheme that we drew up, which I think is before you, we insist that no provident dispensary should be considered as such which did not contain at least three local practitioners.

98101. This is the scheme based largely on the conclusions arrived at by the committee of which Sir Spencer Wells was chairman?—It is not based on that, it is an independent attempt to deal with the problem. The council were approached by the Metropolitan Provident Association to discuss the question, and we formed a joint committee, consisting of members of our council and several members of that association; and we drew up that report. We found it practically ineffective, because it is so difficult to get all the hospitals to work together in such matters; one of the chief difficulties is the fact that the provident dispensaries are scattered about London, and are wholly inadequate to the supply of the whole of London; and you cannot have a complete system of co-operation unless London is properly furnished with provident dispensaries.

98102. The provident dispensaries are allocated in a sort of haphazard way?—Quite.

98103. In addition to that there are the free dispensaries of the Poor Law, and I understand there are certain voluntary dispensaries?—Yes, free dispensaries.

98104. Both, I suppose you would say, act against the provident dispensaries?—Undoubtedly, very strongly.

Mr. Henry
A. Harben.
24 Mar. 1908.

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24 Mar. 1908.

Need for
co-operation
between
Poor Law
infirmaries
and
voluntary
hospitals.

98105. Coming to the second question, your answer is you do not think there is sufficient co-operation?—That is so. Many of the members of the council, notably the medical members of our council, felt very strongly on that point. They consider there is a great difficulty in getting patients who have been treated in the hospitals, and have had done all that can be done for them in the hospitals, taken away by the Poor Law authorities. The hospital, of course, is not in a position to look after the general well-being of patients after their acuter symptoms have been dealt with; the beds are wanted for other people who are also in an acute stage; and they find difficulty very often in getting Poor Law infirmaries to take them over. May I read what the Secretary of one of the hospitals writes to me on that subject: "There is, indeed, a great need for some system of co-operation. At the present time the idea of the guardians and their relieving officers appears to be very often one of antagonism; and great difficulty arises in getting destitute patients admitted to Poor Law infirmaries after they have received all the treatment which is possible in the voluntary hospital, especially cases which have been under operation and have no proper homes where they can rest." That was very strongly the feeling of the members of our council.

98106. (*Miss Hill.*) Does that apply to parishioners, or people who have been brought into the district in order to enter the hospital?—No, to the parishioners themselves.

98107. (*Mr. Gardiner.*) Those that are settled in the union; the patients whose settlement, say, is in Southwark, in the case of Guy's?—As I understand. It is *a fortiori* in the case of outside patients.

98108. I did not know whether the difficulty was because they were not chargeable to the Southwark Union?—I believe not.

98109. (*Dr. Downes.*) Are you aware that the difficulty arose in Southwark owing to the authorities of Guy's sending the patients to an able-bodied workhouse?—No.

98110. (*Mr. Loch.*) These people who leave the hospital are destitute, are they?—Not necessarily destitute. I was not referring to cases of absolute destitution, but to cases of persons who require some after treatment; who require good food and healthy surroundings after an operation or treatment for an acute disease.

98111. You suggest it has not really to do with destitution as a Poor Law matter, but something different to that?—Not only with destitution.

98112. It is not a Poor Law question from that point of view? You use the word "destitution" in your Statement. I understand these cases are not suitable for the Poor Law from the point of view of destitution?—Some of them are, some of them are not; we are dealing with both cases.

98113. (*Chairman.*) You are looking at it more from the medical point of view?—Yes.

98114. You said there is a difficulty about moving patients from a voluntary hospital and ensuring their reception in a Poor Law hospital; I suppose the patient as a rule objects to removal?—Possibly, I do not know.

98115. He would, would he not, if in the one case he was not a pauper and in the other case he became a pauper?—Possibly.

98116. You lay down here some very sound principles, it seems to me, in regard to the distinction between the functions of the Poor Law and voluntary charity. Assume that you could start a system of voluntary dispensaries, I will take the case of a man who had made reasonable provision for the insurance of his health by joining a medical provident institution of that kind, and it becomes necessary for him to go into hospital, he would have to be relieved either in a Poor Law infirmary or in a general hospital. Would you see any objection in such a case, where the man had made reasonable provision, to the medical officer who attends him giving him an order for either one hospital or the other?—No, I see no objection to that.

98117. Because it is obvious that the cost of treatment in hospital would be, if it was prolonged, beyond the means of any workman?—Undoubtedly.

98118. When you talk of provident dispensaries, and so on, I suppose you have in your mind the idea that if the ailment was one the doctor could not deal with, which wanted special treatment, there should be facilities given to the man who insured himself?—Precisely; that is what we think is the true function of the hospital.

98119. Assuming that you want to get greater co-operation between the general hospitals and the Poor Law for that class of case, you must remove any sense of inferiority or pauperism which might be attached to a man being taken into a Poor Law infirmary?—Do you mean co-operation as to persons not destitute?

98120. At present a man becomes a pauper if he goes into an infirmary?—Yes.

98121. Assuming he had made reasonable provision against sickness, assuming that he could not be taken into a general hospital, and assuming he went into an infirmary, some principle would have to be established by which from the mere accident of not being able to get into the general hospital he would not become a pauper, or be put in the same state as a pauper, because he went into an infirmary?—Certainly, I agree to that.

98122. Your proposal is that the more acute and the more difficult cases should be dealt with by the voluntary hospitals, and the Poor Law infirmaries should take only the simpler and chronic cases. Is that not a little hard upon the Poor Law infirmaries from a medical point of view?—In what sense?

98123. Would not the service attached to the Poor Law infirmaries necessarily be an inferior service; would not their service be less valuable than that of officers in the voluntary hospitals?—Undoubtedly. As I have already told you I represent the twenty hospitals who are more or less interested in medical education, therefore I cannot help looking at it more or less from that point of view: from the fact that these hospitals ought to be provided with medical skill of the very highest character and the most difficult cases of disease; and it is necessary, if that is so, that the other hospitals, the Poor Law hospitals, should be officered by persons of not perhaps equal standing to that of our physicians and surgeons. In fact, I may say that there is a complaint that there is a growing tendency in the Poor Law infirmaries for the medical officers to take cases which we consider hospital cases, because they are interesting.

98124. But take the case of Camberwell. I dare say you know the Camberwell infirmary, which is exceptionally well-fitted?—Yes.

98125. It is practically the general hospital for that district, that is unavoidable?—Yes, it is at present, because the hospitals have hitherto been concentrated in the centre of London.

98126. Looking at it from the medical and scientific point of view, do you see any difficulty in there being medical schools in certain Poor Law centres?—That is a very large question.

98127. Your council have not considered that?—They have not considered that question. I think you may take it that the medical members of our council at least would be very much against it.

98128. The British Medical Association, as you know, are in favour of it?—Very likely. One of the great difficulties in all these matters is the peculiar relations subsisting in London between the general practitioners and the consulting physicians or surgeons, who are looked upon as a class apart, and from whom all the staffs of the London hospitals are drawn.

98129. Coming to Question 3, assuming that medical relief was made gratuitous, and supported out of State or rate funds, you think that such a system would have a very detrimental effect on the future of voluntary hospitals?—I think so undoubtedly. There can be no question about that. We should practically lose all our subscriptions.

98130. On Question 4 you also give expression to the opinion that you are not in favour of State-provided aid towards the building or management expenses of the hospitals you represent?—Yes. There was a good deal of difference of opinion on the council, but the majority were of that opinion.

Preferential treatment in Poor Law infirmaries of the fifty.

Poor Law infirmaries as Medical Schools

Effect on medical relief on Voluntary Hospitals

Effect on State provided aid on building expenses of Voluntary Hospitals

Economic and medical condition of persons whom hospital authorities desire transferred to Poor Law.

Institutional treatment for members of Provident Dispensaries.

98131. I suppose you would object to have anything like payment by result in consequence of cases treated?—Do you mean successfully treated?

98132. No, I simply take the cost of maintenance. I am thinking perhaps more of outside London than inside London; but supposing the Poor Law authorities made arrangements with the voluntary hospitals that they should take a certain number of cases—that, I suppose, is not likely to arise in London?—I do not think it is likely to arise in London.

98133. It is not a question you have very carefully considered?—No. Personally I see no objection to State-provided aid towards building expenses; that is to say the great difficulty in a hospital is in raising money for enlargement and equipment according to modern needs. I think we could accept State-aid for that without doing the hospitals any harm. I think directly you begin to subscribe towards management expenses you come to the difficulty that we have mentioned in answer to Question 3 that the ordinary subscriptions would be withdrawn. That is only my own opinion.

98134. What you would recommend, then, in order to put the various different methods of medicine into co-operation with one another, is that we should try to build up a general system on the basis of provident dispensaries?—Undoubtedly.

98135. Assuming that was done, you would have to bring some pressure or some inducement to bear upon people to join these provident dispensaries?—Yes.

98136. The difficulty in London seems to me the out-patient treatment of the hospitals?—Undoubtedly.

98137. Is that the part of the treatment which subscribers to the hospitals and the public attach most importance to, do you think?—They attach a very great deal of importance to it, especially the hospitals in the West End, where they get their own servants treated.

98138. It is a form of medical relief which is more visible to the public eye?—Yes.

98139. If that is so, there would be a great fight would there not, or a great opposition on the part of the hospitals to reducing or abolishing their system?—To abolish it certainly, but not to reduce it.

98140. What do you propose in the way of reduction, a more elaborate examination into the conditions of the individual?—Yes, I think that there ought to be a complete and uniform system of inquiries by almoners at the hospitals; that patients coming from provident dispensaries for consultative purposes, or any purpose for which the authorities of the dispensary should choose to send them, should be given, as far as may be, priority of treatment, and that other cases should be inquired into. I think every case should be treated on its first visit, otherwise some terrible disaster might happen.

98141. You would lay down this principle as regards all forms of medical relief; you would be disposed to treat first and inquire afterwards?—On the first visit, because you never know but that a patient may die on the door-step going out. It is not safe to leave the refusal of a patient entirely to a lay almoner.

98142. Have the hospitals power to recover the expenses from a patient, if they choose to press it?—I believe not. I never heard of such a thing, and I do not see how they could have.

98143. The result of the inquiry would only be that you would have to refuse further treatment?—Yes, and some hospitals do that. They treat them on the first occasion, and say: You must not come again.

98144. Would that be at all deterrent, do you think?—It is undoubtedly deterrent. The lady almoner of one of the hospitals says: "The result of more thorough inquiry and visiting in the homes of these out-patients has shown very forcibly how abuse must always tend to increase where there is not supervision. Statistics of seven years go to prove that 10 per cent. of the out-patients could afford to pay for their own medical treatment, and another 10 per cent. on their own showing demonstrate that they could easily have provided for their time of need." I should like to say that those proportions are very much in excess of the estimates of most of the other hospitals.

98145. (*Mr. Loch.*) Including hospitals where there are almoners?—The hospitals without almoners or enquiry officers can have no statistics upon which to form an opinion.

98146. Has the almoner of the hospital to which you refer had seven or eight years' experience?—There has been experience of that time in the hospital. I do not know whether this particular lady has been there all the time.

98147. Have the others had long experience?—Yes, some of them have had long experience, too.

98148. May we have what the others say?—This is a note I have made of the replies. In one or two hospitals no statistics are available for the purpose; in one or two others the proportion is said to be a negligible quantity.

98149. That is only a statement, not a statistic?—No, it is a statement by the secretaries. Where figures are available the proportion varies from 39 per cent. to 20 per cent.

98150. Are the hospitals similar?—Yes, roughly similar.

98151. General hospitals all of them?—Yes, I think about seventeen of our twenty may be considered as general hospitals.

98152. Are they all almoners who have been trained and who are of equal ability?—I should not like to say that. Eight of the hospitals employ almoners, and eight employ an enquiry officer.

98153. Do you include the enquiry officers' enquiries?—Yes.

98154. So there are two different systems practically put together: there is not one system?—Two systems put together.

98155. You have not compared the trained almoners' returns with one another?—No, I think the trained almoners' returns would probably give you a higher percentage of unsuitable cases than the enquiry officers'.

98156. It was a trained almoner who gave that 20 per cent.?—Yes, a very highly trained almoner.

98157. (*Miss Hill.*) I think the percentage might depend a good deal on the training?—Yes.

98158. We heard about one hospital that it was the porter, or the man who put down the names, who visited afterwards. One does not call that an enquiry?—No.

98159. (*Chairman.*) Assuming that the question of Remuneration of starting provident dispensaries was seriously taken up is it not necessary to try and get some standard in regard to the fee which is to be paid to the medical profession and which the medical profession of the locality will accept?—The subscription?

98160. Yes?—I think so, certainly.

98161. That is an almost necessary foundation, is it not?—I think so. That is a matter upon which the British Medical Association will be able to give you help.

98162. We have had a good deal of information upon it, but you would agree that that is almost a necessary foundation?—I think so. There is a tendency, of course, for the fee to be too low. The medical profession complain that they are practically starved.

98163. On the other hand the fee must not be put so high as to be outside the means or beyond the scope of the classes?—No, but there might be a scale according to the means of the subscriber. Some dispensaries have one or two scales, I believe, according to the means.

98164. (*Miss Hill.*) According to the wages earned?—Yes, that is a matter which requires very careful enquiry.

98165. (*Chairman.*) A system of anything like general provident dispensaries rather necessitates carrying with it the feeling of the general practitioners?—Undoubtedly.

98166. (*Mr. Loch.*) How many of the general hospitals have trained almoners?—I could not tell you. I assume the eight who replied to me that they have almoners have trained almoners. I assume by almoners they mean trained almoners.

98167. Have your council considered at all the conditions under which almoners should be appointed?—No.

Mr. Henry A. Harben.
24 Mar. 1908.

Abuse of out-patients' department at voluntary hospitals.

Mr. Henry
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24 Mar. 1908.

Almoners at
voluntary
hospitals.

Daily
number of
cases at
out-patients'
department.

Extent of
inquiry by
almoners.

Effect of
investigation
in out-
patients'
department.

Need for
almoners at
voluntary
hospitals.

98168. Have you made any representations on the subject to the King's Fund?—No, we have never made any representation to the King's Fund upon the subject.

98169. You have never considered the matter in detail perhaps?—Not by the council.

98170. Is the council, if I may ask, favourable to the appointment of almoners?—I could not say that, one way or the other; the question has never arisen.

98171. There is in the statement you have submitted to us a reference to almoners?—Would you mind showing me where.

98172. It says: "In some districts attempts are made at co-operation between the hospitals and the Poor Law by means of the almoners of the hospitals."—Yes.

98173. You assume the almoners were recognised in a manner as a standing institution?—Yes, that is merely a statement of fact.

98174. Have you ever seen the working of an almoner in an out-patients department?—Not in my own hospital. I am more or less familiar with it by conversation with various almoners and as to reports.

98175. What should you say was the general attendance of out-patient cases of a large general hospital?—I could not tell you.

98176. What would it amount to—several thousands in a week?—A hundred or two a day of new cases.

98177. How many cases do you think that an almoner can deal with, doing her best as they come through, making the necessary enquiries and notes, and be able to report about them subsequently to the medical men in charge?—I cannot express any opinion as to that.

98178. That must affect very closely this paragraph; you will see I think, at once an almoner can only do a limited number of cases, say twenty-five to thirty?—I should have thought more.

98179. Rather more, but if the cases rise to hundreds a week, it is quite clear the almoner can only follow up a certain number of cases altogether, or else scamp her work?—In one hospital there are two lady almoners.

98180. St. Thomas'?—The Royal Free.

98181. One for the in-hospital particularly in connection with that gift, and the other out-patients?—I believe so.

98182. But the casualty cases are not taken?—No, I think not.

98183. That is to say all casualty cases go free?—Yes.

98184. Generally speaking, would you not say that was equally so elsewhere?—I think so.

98185. The consequence is, whatever the benefits of this system may be, some of the cases must be left aside; that the almoner is only dealing with one small portion of the difficulty?—I do not agree to that; several of the replies show that all the cases are enquired into. I do not know how it is done.

98186. No casualty cases are enquired into?—No, casualty cases are cases that must be dealt with.

98187. Have you ever come across cases in which where care has been taken in the out-patient department the casualty cases run up?—Yes, undoubtedly.

98188. That is to say they come in by the other door?—That is the case in some hospitals.

98189. Have you ever come across a case where care has been taken in one hospital and the numbers at another hospital near have run up?—I do not know statistically, but I know it is the fact, considerably.

98190. Practically the only method of guarding a hospital against abuse is the one now adopted in quite an inefficient way, though the system has proved it is efficient so far as it has gone?—I think so.

98191. Do you suppose at all that the various hospitals would be in favour of the adoption of trained almoners right through?—I do not think they would be adverse to it.

98192. Of course, if I remember aright, the out-patient department is taken as a very cheap department?—Cheap in what sense?

98193. In this sense, they only cost 2s. 6d. a patient—that is what the calculation is, is it not?—1s. 6d., I think.

98194. If you have almoners, clearly it must become a more expensive department?—Only by the salary of the almoner.

98195. True, but if you take it that thirty or forty Extra cases is all that an almoner can do in a day?—I do not agree with that, I think she can do a great deal more than that. One or two almoners I have spoken to say they do virtually all the cases, or 80 per cent. of the cases.

98196. Are those trained almoners?—I believe so.

98197. Could you mention any hospital?—At Charing Cross there is an almoner.

98198. That is not a case to quote, I think.—Why not?

98199. The almoner has quite recently gone there?—Yes. 80 per cent. of the cases are enquired into. At St. Thomas' 30 per cent. of the out-patients are enquired into.

98200. That is nearer what I had in my mind?—At the Royal Free there are two almoners and 75 per cent. are enquired into.

98201. That is to say in-door to a certain extent and to a certain extent out-door, but none of the casualties?—Probably not.

98202. As to this system you put forward, may I not say that unless it is made very much more perfect you cannot expect co-operation to arise out of it?—No, I think not.

98203. Take a comparatively small hospital like the Royal Free, they have, as you say, two almoners, but have also assistant visitors?—Yes, that is essential to the system.

98204. Practically you would have at the Royal Free sometimes as many as five persons?—Yes, but I do not think, so far as I understand, that the assistants are required so much for enquiry as for the purpose of following the patients to their homes and looking after them. The functions of an almoner are something beyond mere enquiry.

98205. The persons at the Royal Free who are doing voluntary work are almost trained almoners?—Yes.

98206. Can you say at any other hospital that even from the voluntary point of view that is forthcoming?—Yes, several lady almoners have told me they have quite an army of voluntary assistants.

98207. At what hospital would those be?—I think Westminster and St. George's.

98208. Generally speaking it would not apply, would it?—I think wherever there is an almoner she is in touch with a number of voluntary agencies.

98209. Therefore you think that these hospitals have a sufficient supply of almoners?—No.

98210. I think it is very important, because here is a proposal made for bringing about co-operation. It seems to me, on the reading of your paper, that it would be much more expensive than is generally thought if you are dealing with 600 or 700 out-patients in the course of a week, including casualties, or not including them; you must have a strong body of enquirers to do the work properly, it would mean 250, 300 or 400 reports on those cases?—I should not have thought it would amount to that. In the case of patients who had been to the hospital before it would generally be only necessary to turn up the name in the register.

98211. Have you ever considered out-patient cases in connection with the homes of the patients?—The almoners consider them.

98212. True. Have you considered what it means to have the case dealt with on that side as well as the other, in the way of expense and time?—It is done in those hospitals, where it is done, by voluntary agencies. It is a question how far the hospital would be justified in spending money for the purpose of following patients to their homes.

98213. Am I not justified in saying on behalf of many medical men that they say unless the home life is attended to properly the relief they get at the out-patient department would be of very little value?—I think it is probably true.

98214. Unless the home life is somehow brought more in connection with the hospital through the almoners or in some other way, their work is a failure more or less?—I will not say it is a failure: I think you put it too strongly when you say a failure.

98215. More or less, that is the problem?—Undoubtedly the relief would be much more efficient if you could follow the patients to their homes.

98216. Therefore a hospital, to be of its perfect use, should be connected somehow with the local agencies?—Certainly.

98217. You refer here to co-operation and so on. What is your scheme, for uniting the hospitals, if I may say so, with the local agencies?—Through the almoners principally, and district committees if possible.

98218. I thought you would say district relief committees. That seems to me a possible method, but do you think that the hospitals would be prepared to associate themselves very closely with district relief committees as set down here?—Of course, I may say the managing bodies of hospitals have quite enough to do to manage their hospital without going into these questions very closely. They will not go into these questions very closely unless they are almost forced to it.

98219. Would it not be a fair criticism to say unless there is someone going into this question closely the hospital can hardly serve its true purpose as far as out-patients are concerned?—That is my opinion.

98220. With regard to these hospitals, it is suggested there should be some arrangement between them and the Poor Law. Do you think that there is any way of binding a hospital to accept a certain policy?—No, not at present.

98221. Is it possible to talk really of any organisation at all amongst them if they will not accept a common policy on any point?—It is possible to talk about it.

98222. That is to say, all this about statistics and their want of common form statistics and all other arrangements being different is practically the habitual state of them, which must go on habitually?—Which I hope will soon cease. For example, take the question of accounts, their accounts have already been brought into a uniform system by the pressure brought upon them by the Funds. I do not see why the same should not apply to other things.

98223. The question of funds brought them to uniformity on the one point which is absolutely essential because so much of the effort of a hospital secretary has to do with funds. If that point is not clear, naturally it will affect their whole finance, but these other points do not affect finance?—No.

98224. There has been no improvement made except in so far as the finances have come in?—Oh, yes.

98225. When you come to deal with Poor Law authorities and have, as is suggested, a common arrangement with them for the cases that should leave the hospital, is it not necessary that on the side of the hospitals themselves there should be some uniformity?—Undoubtedly.

98226. How is that to be won?—Only by a central body, I think.

98227. With regard to that central body, do you think the King's Fund is that central body?—It is not an ideal central body, because it is not representative.

98228. You know the question was raised in a most absolute form of having a representative central body?—Yes, Lord Sandhurst's Committee.

98229. And that was rejected practically?—Yes, practically rejected.

98230. Your council has never expressed itself in favour of it publicly, has it?—The Central Hospital Council?

98231. Yes.—No, the Central Hospital Council arose when the other scheme was rejected, as a sort of make-shift.

98232. It rejected this very scheme of representation which is referred to?—Oh, no.

98233. Undoubtedly, because that was the key to the proposal that Lord Sandhurst's Committee and the subsequent committee made?—Our council have never objected to those.

98234. Since Lord Sandhurst's Committee and the other committee reported and made that scheme, your council has never said a word in favour of a representative system?—Our council did not exist at that time.

98235. It was formed immediately after, I know.—Yes.

98236. The issue is alive now, as you yourself say?—To my mind.

98237. But they have never suggested anything about it?—No, it would be rather to magnify their own office; they thought they would do what good they could by consultative work.

98238. If we are to have a central body, as you suggest, is there room for a central body as against the King's Fund?—I think so. I think there are a large number of powers that, as you have just pointed out yourself, cannot properly be dealt with by the three Funds.

98239. Do you think that a central body might be established which would take account of both Poor Law medical relief and voluntary medical relief?—Yes, but I do not care to give an opinion upon such a question off-hand.

98240. You see the question is raised of a central body, and the question turns on the formation of it.—Undoubtedly.

98241. Have you at all tried to get a uniform system of dealing with out-patients, so far as the regulations go. Take the Northern Central regulations or any of those, have you tried to get them accepted in common?—No, my council has never taken up that question.

98242. There is nobody doing that in London at all?—No, I think questions of registration statistics might properly be dealt with by the King's Fund.

98243. But they have not done it yet?—No, not yet.

98244. Nor has your council?—No.

98245. With regard to these provident dispensaries, does it not seem that very interesting statements are made in this, and have been made in many reports, but the movement as a movement ancillary to the hospitals simply goes drifting along?—Yes.

98246. Therefore, so far as that goes, all this is really walking on sand, is it not?—I hope not.

98247. Where is your point of progress, that is what I cannot see. It is quite easy to recognise dispensaries as to such points as a letter coming from the secretary, and so on, but do letters come from the secretary or dispensary doctor referring to the out-patient department at all on the lines you have suggested?—It is not so at present, undoubtedly, some of us are trying to make it so and put forward these reports and recommendations in the hope that in time something will be done. There is a body called the London Provident Dispensary Council, which was founded a year or two ago with the object of drawing the provident dispensaries together and that council meets frequently, and nearly every provident dispensary in London sends representatives to it. We are trying to get a little co-operation among them.

98248. This report is dated April, 1905, and whatever movement there has been among provident dispensaries is quite recent, and there does not surely seem to be very much propagandist work done by hospitals to promote provident dispensaries?—Absolutely none.

98249. Does it not come to this, that we have a very large income in Poor Law relief, and a very large amount of money and many patients dealt with by dispensaries of the Poor Law, and a very large amount of charitable income and all this is now simply in so many heaps without any real organisation?—Yes.

98250. Is it possible on a basis like that, if we are to accept it, to find lines of progress unless some very powerful central body uses its influence?—No, I think not.

98251. That body you say should be representative?—I think so.

98252. It would not necessarily be the King's Fund? Not necessarily. If it were the King's Fund, the constitution of the King's Fund would have to be amended so as to make it partially representative.

98253. The King's Fund's objects are chiefly, if not entirely, connected with the holding of funds, the possession of securities and so on; their function is that of a big trustee and collector?—Yes.

Mr. Henry A. Harben.

24 Mar. 1908.

Need for Central body of management for Voluntary Hospitals.

Need of Provident Dispensaries to be ancillary to Voluntary Hospitals.

Mr. Henry A. Harben. 98254. It is also definitely under the care of the president?—Yes.

24 Mar. 1908. 98255. It is not in any way a hospital body?—No.

98256. (*Miss Hill.*) I was very much interested to read this report, which is dated April, 1905. I had not seen it before, and I was not aware of any actual co-operation which had resulted from it. I suppose one difficulty about it has been that the basis of it is the idea that the provident dispensaries shall have certain advantages for its members when they come up for special consultation?—Yes.

Preferential treatment for Provident Dispensary members.

98257. I gather that the hospitals, or many of them, receive such a recommendation from a dispensary if it comes from the secretary or medical man connected with it?—Yes, I think so.

98258. If they have no special facilities, owing to the whole body of the people really coming in free, which is what they do in the out-patient department, of course, it does not help a provident dispensary or a subscriber to it. If you give everything free to everybody the member of a provident dispensary has no advantages?—No.

98259. Therefore it seems rather as if you need not only to give the provident dispensary people a nominal advantage, but you must curtail your others, must you not?—Undoubtedly.

98260. And that has hardly been done at all?—It is being done more or less; that lady who says that she sends away 10 per cent. as being unsuitable is doing something in that direction.

98261. As Mr. Loch remarked, that is done so little. I was astonished to hear what you thought was the number of enquiries a person could make in a day. Do you think a person really could make more than thirty a day?—It depends on what you mean; I rather meant she could set more than that on foot by means of her voluntary assistants.

98262. As you say there are hundreds coming?—Undoubtedly.

98263. It depends a great deal on what you mean by enquiry. If hundreds are dealt with in a day it cannot possibly mean what we are accustomed to think of as enquiry.—We recognised that in drawing up the memorandum, and we point out that hospital enquiries should only be made in cases where the result of other enquiries is not available. We thought we could economise labour by receiving reports on the subject from other people.

98264. I see somewhere you say "Cases of poverty as evidenced by letters from the clergy, district visitors or other charitable agencies." Do you think there is much discrimination among the clergy and district visitors?—I am afraid not.

98265. You would not be astonished to hear that some of them give letters to their servants to give away at the door?—It certainly would not surprise me.

98266. You know that sort of thing is done?—I did not know it was done, but it would not surprise me. I am afraid I am not very familiar with this branch of the question.

98267. It is such an admirable paper one would like to see some results from it, but there have been three years idle?—It fell very flat; it is only fair to tell you that.

Effect of Employers Liability Act on Voluntary Hospitals. 98268. (*Mr. Gardiner.*) In the footnote to your statement with regard to Question 3 you say that subscriptions are falling off in consequence of the Employers' Liability Act. What evidence is there of that?—That is not intended to go very far.

98269. It says: "Some evidence exists"?—I have seen letters myself in the case of my own hospital from local tradesmen who have said they were withdrawing their subscriptions because now they had to insure their employees against accidents.

98270. Previously they regarded their subscription in the light of insurance against their employees' accidents?—A very large number of subscribers to hospitals do, especially the wealthier classes.

98271. Therefore to that extent they expect to have their servants or employees treated free?—Not only treated free, but to have exceptional treatment.

98272. Would you like the law altered so that hospitals might recover the cost of treatment?—I do not see any objection to it. It would be an extremely difficult thing to put in force.

98273. In consequence of what you said to Mr. Loch, I thought it was essential you should have the power?—It would be an extremely difficult thing to put in force. I do not think you would get any hospital board to put it in force and bring an action against a patient.

98274. Then it seems to me, unless you have that as a last resource, all contributory schemes will break down?—You could never prove means.

98275. You cannot prove means?—Not so as to satisfy a court of law; it would be impossible.

98276. If they signed a contract to pay so much a week, you could enforce that?—Yes, you could enforce that.

98277. (*Dr. Downes.*) There was a conference in 1906, I think. I have a print of the *British Medical Journal* of February 15th, and it is headed: "Proposals as to Administration and Management of Hospitals and Kindred Institutions, drawn up in 1906 by a Joint Medical and Non-Medical Committee, with a Note of Proposed Amendments of a Committee appointed by the United Kingdom Hospitals Conference, December, 1906." Then follows a long list of proposals?—I think that was the proposal of the conference at University College.

98278. That is so. Was there any subsequent meeting with regard to those proposals?—I thought there was a meeting last year. There is going to be one shortly I know—next month.

98279. Have any of those proposals been definitely adopted?—No, I think it is still under consideration. The whole thing was referred back to them. They were very crude proposals, and it was referred back to a committee; I believe they are now reporting. I do not know what stage it is in.

98280. I observe that in this preface to the Hospitals Year Book (*Burdett*) it is said: "A practical scheme should be forthcoming in the course of the present year." That is last year. I may take it that anticipation has not been yet realised?—No.

98281. Is there any probability of an early conclusion being come to by this conference?—The conference is a conference promoted mainly by the British Medical Association. I do not think the lay element is very strongly or enthusiastically represented on it. The proposals are mainly in the direction of the interests of the medical profession, but it will all help.

98282. Will these proposals come before the conference this year?—I think they are new proposals formulated by the committee. I believe all these proposals were sent back to a committee and that committee was to bring up fresh proposals, which I think it is going to do now.

98283. Should you consider that the future policy to be adopted will largely depend upon what the conclusions of the Conference may be?—I should not like to say that they will have any more effect than anything else has had.

98284. The British Medical Association is a very powerful representative body, is it not?—Undoubtedly, but it is not represented on the London hospitals in any way. The staff of the London hospitals consists of a body of gentlemen who have no particular interest in the British Medical Association.

98285. At the same time, you cannot very well get along without the medical profession?—We are not dependent upon the general practitioner.

98286. The views of the general practitioner and of the medical profession must have a considerable influence on the future policy of hospitals?—In the provinces probably more than in London.

98287. Coming to the relations between the voluntary hospitals and the Poor Law, you speak of cases of difficulty; there is often great difficulty in getting cases of a chronic character unsuitable for treatment in a hospital transferred from the hospital to a Poor Law infirmary. Do you know the circumstances of such cases?—No, I cannot say that I do myself.

Payment by patients in Voluntary Hospitals.

Medical Conference at University College, 1906.

Representation of London hospitals in the British Medical Association.

Transfer of cases from Voluntary Hospitals to Poor Law Infirmary.

98288. You cannot say what the particular difficulty is ?
—No, I do not know.

98289. Are you aware that in some cases the relations between the hospitals and the infirmaries are quite satisfactory ?—So I have heard ; I have heard they are in some cases.

98290. We have heard evidence from the London hospital that that is so, that they are satisfactory ?—Yes.

98291. You are not prepared to dispute that ?—Oh dear no.

98292. If you do not know the difficulties, you are not in a position to give us any suggestion as to how to remove them ?—Not on that branch of the question. I am not very familiar with it.

98293. Have you considered what the effect would be on the education both of the medical students and of the nurses if the classification suggested in your statement were carried out to its extreme limit ?—What classification ?

98294. That the simpler and more chronic cases should all be relegated to the Poor Law infirmary ?—Yes.

98295. Would that not leave the students of the hospital and the nurses of the hospitals with experience of acute cases only ?—Undoubtedly.

98296. And would not that be a disadvantage ?—I do not think so. The student life is so short, so very little time is available for clinical instruction, that I think it must be devoted mainly to the acute cases.

98297. Most of us have the misfortune to suffer from chronic diseases, so what is the newly fledged doctor to do if he has only seen acute cases at the hospital ?—In comparing the two the other is more important.

98298. The acute ?—Undoubtedly. I do not say it would not be very desirable if he could spend four or five years in receiving clinical instruction.

98299. And then a very large number of people hope to die of old age, and an increasing number of people are dying of old age. Where are the nurses experienced in nursing old age ?—In these infirmaries, undoubtedly.

98300. Then they would be old age nurses only ?—Undoubtedly they would. May I say that if the hospitals were filled, as they easily could be in a week, with chronic cases there would be no room for any acute cases upon which this part of medical education has to be maintained.

98301. The point I am putting to you is, if there is too complete a classification, unless some alteration in our system of education follows it, we should have persons specialising and having no general knowledge ?—Yes, that is so.

98302. I think I understood you to say in answer to the Chairman that some of the medical members of your council might object to the utilisation of the Poor Law infirmaries for the purpose of medical education ?—I do not think I put it in that way ; I think that the class of consultants would rather object to medical education being handed over to a general practitioner or a person who takes rank with a general practitioner.

98303. I do not quite follow you. What do you mean by "a person who takes rank with a general practitioner ?"—I take it an infirmary doctor takes rank rather with the general practitioner than with the consultant ?

98304. Do you know anything of the work of the infirmary doctors ?—No, I do not, I believe it is improving, as I say.

98305. Are you aware that considerable advances of medical science have been made in the Poor Law infirmaries in this country and elsewhere ; are you aware that Charcot in France did most of his work in institutions equivalent to our Poor Law infirmaries ?—Do not think I am objecting to any such advance ; I only tell you the difficulty we find in London in the matter.

98306. You speak of a State subsidy to provident dispensaries ?—Yes.

98307. Do you consider that a necessary condition to the success of provident dispensaries ?—At present, as I think Mr. Loch pointed out, the provident dispensary movement is almost at a standstill. I think

it is most desirable it should progress, but I do not see how it can progress without a State subsidy. *Mr. Henry A. Harben.*

98308. If a State subsidy were given, what representation of the State should there be ?—Some, undoubtedly. 24 Mar. 1908.

98309. There should be, I take it ?—I think so. I do not see any objection to it. State subsidised provident dispensaries and effect thereof on Poor Law Dispensaries.

98310. In what form do you suggest it should come in ?—Probably in the direction of some kind of control.

98311. As to the audit of the accounts of such dispensaries, would you have any State control there ?—Yes, I see no objection, except that State audits are generally not so efficient as private audits.

98312. What would be your recommendation with regard to the Poor Law dispensaries, in such an event ; would you still leave them in their present organisation ?—In what sense ?

98313. If you are giving a subsidy to provident dispensaries and you are promoting the growth of provident dispensaries, you may have to consider another class of dispensary which is giving gratuitous relief, which would be in a sense competing with the provident dispensary, namely the Poor Law dispensary ?—Yes.

98314. I am asking you what would be your view with regard to the position of those dispensaries ?—I would give them less to do, by the establishment of more provident dispensaries, and forcing the people into the provident dispensaries. The Poor Law dispensaries should refuse, as the hospitals should refuse, to treat patients who are in a position to provide for themselves. Need of increasing provident dispensaries

98315. Would you attach any disability to people going to a Poor Law dispensary ?—Yes, I am inclined to think so. Preferential treatment for thrifty people.

98316. If a man had not made provision in the provident dispensary and went to the Poor Law dispensary, do you consider that he should be entitled to vote ?—No, I do not myself ; that is only my opinion.

98317. Would you give a man in a Poor Law dispensary the same choice of doctor that you would in a provident dispensary ?—No, I do not think so.

98318. So you would give the man in the provident dispensary a better choice ?—Certainly.

98319. On the question of rates, I see you say that the form of subvention to hospitals might be a relief from local rates ?—Yes. Effect of subvention to hospitals.

98320. I suppose you are aware that some of the local authorities contend that the presence of a large hospital increases their rates ?—No, I did not know that.

98321. And increases the number of cases chargeable to them ?—I did not know that, but I would not make it local. The relief would not be local, as I point out in the statement, it would have to be a relief which would have to be borne from the County Fund.

98322. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Do you know if there is any dispensary that really gives the whole medical relief that a person requires ?—I think not. Quite few dispensaries are equipped with special appliances for eye and ear cases, and so forth. Extent of medical relief provided by dispensaries.

98323. So a man gets partially relieved from his burden by the organisations that are subsidised by charity in other ways ?—Yes.

98324. Of course, he is partially a pauper in a sense, is he not ?—Yes, if you like to put it in that way.

98325. So it depends really upon how far a person is ill or how much medical attendance he gets whether he pays for it himself or whether he does not ?—Undoubtedly. I think that almoners and enquiry officers take that into consideration. The enquiry can never be purely one of means in the positive sense, it must be relatively to what he is suffering from.

98326. I suppose also relatively to his ability to pay ?—Yes, relatively to his ability to pay for treatment for that particular disease.

98327. Would you say that all the persons who get relieved in an infirmary are people who might have made provision for themselves, or that in a Poor Law dispensary they are people who might have made provision for themselves ?—Oh dear no, I should not think so. Extent to which relief should be deterrent.

98328. Why should they be disfranchised ?—I do not say they should be.

Mr. Henry
A. Harben.

24 Mar. 1908.

Extent to
which
gratuitous
relief should
be deterrent.

98329. Would you discriminate between those who are to be disfranchised and those who are not?—I am afraid I did not quite follow your question. I see what you mean now, because otherwise I do not see how you are to keep them out.

98330. Why should you keep them out, if a person is ill and has not means to provide for that illness?—I might ask why a pauper in receipt of indoor relief in the ordinary sense should not have a vote.

98331. Except that sickness is another matter, is it not; it is a matter to do with the community; we do not want sick people roaming about, in case we catch their diseases ourselves?—Only a comparatively few diseases are infectious. I do not think that is the ground.

98332. I am not a doctor, only one hears from some doctors that all diseases are infectious?—I am not a doctor either.

98333. The only point I want to clear up is this point of disfranchisement. A person gets part of his relief by charitable assistance from someone or the other because his means are limited; another person whose means are more limited still has to get it at the cost of the community, and you think he should be disfranchised?—I think you must put some kind of pressure on them to keep them out of the infirmary just as you put some kind of pressure on them to keep them out of the work-house.

98334. You think the pressure ought to be disfranchisement?—I do not commit myself to that; any other pressure would be equally agreeable to me, or more so.

98335. You would agree that a person must be medically treated by the community, would you not?—Undoubtedly; and he must be fed. }

98336. And, of course, when it is medical treatment it has to be the best, on purpose to get him well quickest.—Yes.

98337. So that you cannot punish him that way?—No, you cannot punish him by giving him ineffective medical treatment.

98338. So in the end, because you want to punish him he must lose his vote?—No, I do not want to punish him? I want to keep him out.

98339. It is punishment?—By way of punishment.

98340. It is the penalty he pays?—Yes.

Organisation
of Central
Hospital
Council.

98341. (*Prebendary Russell Wakefield.*) Are there many hospitals not represented on your council?—Yes.

98342. Of any standing in London?—Yes, there are a few; I should think perhaps half a dozen or a dozen large hospitals.

98343. Did they stand out themselves purposely?—No, the council was originally started for the representation of those hospitals having medical schools, the twelve; and then subsequently eight other hospitals were added to them.

98344. Were those eight hospitals asked to join?—Yes, I believe so.

98345. Would it be wrong to ask the reason of the exclusion and not asking the others?—I do not know at all. Personally I am in favour of enlarging the council, and I hope to take steps to do so.

98346. In order to get the full judgment of the whole of the hospitals of London, there ought to be rather an enlargement, ought there not?—Undoubtedly. The difficulty would be in that case as to the representation of very small hospitals; they would overweight the large ones.

98347. It does make those that are excluded naturally rather antagonistic to the judgment of the council; if they themselves are out of it there is a prejudice?—I do not know whether there is such a prejudice or not.

98348. Is there any co-operation between the Central Council and King Edward's Fund?—No, I think not.

98349. You are a body that is advisory, but has no authority?—Absolutely no authority.

98350. That will account to some extent for the ideas which you set forth not having received any general acceptance by the hospitals, would it not: the fact that you have no power to enforce them?—We have no power to enforce.

98351. That would make you desire all the more a central hospital body?—Undoubtedly.

98352. When you say that should be representative, might I ask whether you have thought, or whether your council have thought, over what the representation should be on the central hospital body?—It should represent all the hospitals. Need re-
presen-
tative
Centr
Hospit
body.

98353. What I rather want to know is whether it should represent anybody outside the area of the hospitals?—I do not think we have ever considered that.

98354. The hospitals are a little inclined to desire to keep the power in regard to themselves in their own hands, are they not?—Very much so.

98355. But they do not refuse the money of the public at large?—No.

98356. Does that even to some extent affect the hospital doctor? He is a specialist rather, is he not?—Yes, in the modern sense of the term.

98357. And his touch is not very close, very often, with the ordinary medical practitioner?—No in one sense it is very close in that he depends largely upon the recommendation of the medical practitioner for his private practice.

98358. But the view and judgment of the ordinary practitioner on such matters as come before your hospital council would not necessarily be in close association of agreement with the views of the hospital doctors?—No, they would have a tendency to be in antagonism.

98359. It was suggested to you that there might be propaganda work done by the hospitals with regard to provident dispensaries. I should like to ask: Is it not the fact that at the present time the boards of ordinary hospitals have really almost more than they can do with their ordinary work?—Undoubtedly. Provident
propaganda
work done by
Voluntary
Hospitals.

98360. And that their great difficulty is how they shall live from year to year, almost from month to month?—Undoubtedly.

98361. And unless they were relieved of some part of that pressure it is very difficult for them to go outside their own immediate necessities?—It is difficult.

98362. It would be very desirable if they were able to take a broader view?—I think it is almost essential.

98363. (*Mr. Loch.*) The almoners often are, I think, the propaganda body, in so far as they often tell the people, as far I as know, at the hospital that they should go to some dispensary?—In my hospitals we have no almoner, but an enquiry officer, and his enquiries are reported to an enquiry committee which sends the patients to provident dispensaries, or declines to treat them further unless they go to provident dispensaries.

98364. (*Prebendary Russell Wakefield.*) You said that one of the inducements which might be offered to people in regard to joining a provident dispensary would be that they would be visited at their homes from a provident dispensary. You are aware that that is now done by some of the free dispensaries?—Yes, I think that is very undesirable. Undesir-
ability
domestic
visiting
Free
dispensary
doctor

98365. It is done?—Yes. Any objections that may be made to free treatment in hospitals appear to me to have double force with regard to free dispensaries. I should abolish all free dispensaries absolutely, speaking for myself. Abolition
of free
Dispensaries.

ONE HUNDRED AND FIFTY-FIFTH DAY.

Monday, 30th March, 1908.

AT SCOTLAND HOUSE, WESTMINSTER, S.W.

PRESENT.

The Right Hon. Lord GEORGE HAMILTON, G.C.S.I.,
etc., etc., etc. (*Chairman*).
Sir SAMUEL B. PROVIS, K.C.B.
Mr. F. H. BENTHAM,
Dr. A. H. DOWNES.
The Rev. T. GAGE GARDINER.
Mr. GEORGE LANSBURY.

The Rev. Prebendary H. RUSSELL WAKEFIELD.
Mrs. BERNARD BOSANQUET.
Mrs. SIDNEY WEBB.
Miss OCTAVIA HILL.

*The Rev.
Peregrine
S. G. Propert.*

30 Mar. 1908.

Mr. R. H. A. G. DUFF (*Secretary*).Mr. J. JEFFREY (*Assistant Secretary*).

The Rev. PEREGRINE SYDNEY GOLDWIN PROPERT, called; and Examined.

98366. (*Chairman*.) You are, I understand, Chairman of the Fulham Board of Guardians and you are appearing here on behalf of the Metropolitan Committee of the Poor Law Unions Association?—Yes.

98367. You have prepared for us a paper which, I think is of a very interesting character and which we may take as your Evidence-in-chief if you will hand it in?—Very good.

(*The Witness handed in the following Statement.*)

1. Scheme outlined by London County Council.
2. The general effect of the municipalisation of the Poor Laws.
3. Importance of local Poor Law authority.
4. The multifarious duties of Boards of Guardians.
5. The effect of transfer of the duties and powers of the Metropolitan Asylums Board to the London County Council.
6. Effect of proposed transfer upon records of cases.
7. Centralisation possible within present metropolitan Poor Law parishes and unions.
8. Recovery of cost of relief to paupers from relatives made more difficult.
9. Difficulties arising in connection with guardianship and control of children as a result of transfer.
10. Advantages of the laws of settlement and removal.
11. Control by London County Council involves equalisation of rates.
12. Principles more important than machinery.
13. Proposed change necessitates the limitation of power of control of the Local Government Board.

1.—THE SCHEME OUTLINED BY THE LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL PROPOSES TO MERGE THE POWERS AND FUNCTIONS NOW EXERCISED BY BOARDS OF GUARDIANS IN THE GENERAL MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.

If effect be given to this proposal, it would involve—

- (a) The transfer to Borough Councils of the local duties at present exercised by Boards of Guardians, with the exception of the administration of institutions for children.
- (b) The transfer of all institutions at present administered by the Metropolitan Asylums Board to the London County Council.
- (c) The transfer of all institutions for the reception of Poor Law children to the Education Committee of the London County Council.
- (d) The assumption on the part of the London County Council of the control of Poor Law administration in London.
- (e) The necessary and corresponding limitation of the functions of the Local Government Board.

2.—MUNICIPALISATION OF POOR LAW.

To merge the administration of the Poor Laws in effect on the general municipal government is, I submit, a pauperism retrograde step. It is, in principle, a return to the unreformed Poor Law prior to 1834, when the distinction between pauperism and independence was practically non-existent.

I believe if this proposal is carried out pauperism will increase. In support of this argument I would point out the effect of what may be regarded as a partial transfer of functions. In Fulham, during the winter of 1904-5, the work of receiving applications from unemployed workmen under Mr. Long's scheme was performed at the offices of the Guardians; the number registered was 667.

The following winter this work was transferred to the Town Hall; the number registered rose to 2,479.

In the same manner, if the work of general relief now performed by an *ad hoc* body were transferred to the Borough Councils, it would encourage an increasingly large class to apply for relief. Borough Councils would not be able to resist the pressure of applications so well as the present authorities. Party political considerations would be more influential.

3.—IMPORTANCE OF LOCAL POOR-LAW AUTHORITY.

I submit that the authority which in the first instance receives applications for and determines what form poor relief shall take is necessarily the most important body; it is the sieve or net through which applicants have to pass, and the meshes of this would be wider in the case of the Borough Council—*e.g.*, if the Poor Law infirmaries were detached from the workhouse, as proposed, they would rapidly tend to become general hospitals, and very largely-increased accommodation would be required. Any proposal to weaken or lessen the importance of this first authority or to reduce its sense of responsibility ought not, in my judgment, to have the support of the Royal Commission. The London County Council suggests that this highly-important authority should be a committee composed partly of borough councillors and partly of a number of co-opted or appointed members.

Experience shows that in consequence of the introduction of party politics co-option offers no guarantee that the persons best qualified to do special work will be appointed. Political services or a reputation for philanthropy, rather than experience, coupled with sound judgment, has been the determining factor in electing aldermen or members of distress committees. Committees appointed by methods such as these will not be efficient substitutes for authorities elected for specific purposes, such as the present boards of guardians.

Political influence on co-option of Poor Law administrators.

4.—WORK OF A BOARD OF GUARDIANS.

It is almost impossible in a brief statement to give any adequate idea of the amount of work imposed upon a Metropolitan Board of Guardians in the course of a year.

[The Rev.
Peregrine
S. G. Propert.]

30 Mar. 1908.

Onerous
duties of
boards of
guardians.

The work in connection with a number of large institutions is extremely onerous, and demands constant attention and supervision, but more important is the work in connection with the individual cases which are presented for consideration. Unlike other authorities a Board of Guardians cannot dispose of large sections of its work by a few general orders. On the contrary, so changeful and complicated are the affairs of human life, and so varied the different cases which have to be adjudicated, that each case must be dealt with independently by itself, and often necessitates the expenditure of a considerable amount of time.

In Fulham 7,553 such cases were heard and decided upon during the year 1905. If an average of five

minutes per case only were allowed, this would alone entail 210 sittings of three hours each.

The appointment of officers to fill vacancies which occurred during the year required much time and attention. Allowing but half an hour for each appointment would have required 15 sittings, each also of three hours' duration.

MEETINGS AND ATTENDANCES.

The number of meetings and attendances of guardians, excluding rota committees, are shown in the following table:—

Year ended	No. of Board Meetings.	Committee Meetings.	Total.	Total Attendances.			Average Attendances of Guardians.
				Board Meetings.	Committee.	Total.	
15th April, 1902 -	25	226	251	495	1,623	2,118	88
15th April, 1903 -	26	328	354	493	2,013	2,506	104
15th April, 1904 -	24	365	389	371	1,965	2,336	97
15th April, 1905 -	27	375	402	526	2,010	2,536	106
15th April, 1906 -	23	365	388	406	1,875	2,281	95
15th April, 1907 -	26	390	416	445	1,751	2,196	91

To add this work to that of the already-overburdened borough councils would lead to inefficiency, maladministration, and therefore increased expenditure. I need say no more upon this head.

5.—EFFECT OF TRANSFER OF METROPOLITAN ASYLUMS BOARD, ETC.

Effect on government of extension of functions of London County Council.

In taking over the work of the Metropolitan Asylums Board and the supervision of the Institutions and Homes for Children now administered by Boards of Guardians, the members of the London County Council would be confronted by a physical impossibility. To add to this the function of central control and co-ordination would involve such a mass of work that the elected members could do no more than initial the reports presented by officials. Sound and healthy government would be replaced by bureaucracy.

6.—RECORDS OF CASES.

Confusion of case-paper-system under suggested London County Council scheme.

The effect of a general transfer must now be considered in relation to the records of cases.

It is becoming increasingly clear that efficient administration of the Poor Law depends upon permanent and complete records of cases being preserved. These records are commonly called case papers.

To distribute the relief of the poor among and between a number of different authorities would lead to great confusion and a possible breakup of the present case-paper system.

7.—CENTRALISATION WITHIN POOR-LAW AREA.

Need of centralisation within present Poor Law areas.

We would urge that centralisation within the present Poor-Law areas is more promising, and would more certainly be productive of efficiency than the splitting up which would follow the adoption of the council's proposals.

This centralisation is now being largely secured by means of case papers, and wherever complete centralisation has been secured, as at Fulham, where all officers using the system are located at one centre, it is difficult to see how the machinery can be radically improved.

8.—RECOVERY OF RELIEF GIVEN TO PAUPERS.

Difficulty as to recovery of relief under London County Council scheme.

This is one of the most important branches of the work of guardians. The moral effect upon relatives is impossible to estimate. If some paupers go to the Asylums Committee, others to the Education Authority, others to a local committee, each responsible for its own particular class, the work of Poor Law will become more complicated, rather than simplified—e.g., if an inmate in the workhouse absconds,

leaving his children with the Education Authority, who will proceed against him? I assume that this work would be undertaken by the council.

9.—GUARDIANSHIP AND CONTROL OF CHILDREN.

If the institutions and homes for children are transferred to the London County Council, it is assumed that the guardianship, control, apprenticeship, boarding out, emigration, and placing out in service would as a natural consequence pass to the Council. The amount of work in this connection is so onerous that it requires personal attention and supervision—such a supervision as no London County Councillor, if he performs his present duties, has time to give. The evils and difficulties which would follow as a result of transfer would be far more serious than those which now exist.

10.—THE EFFECT UPON SETTLEMENT AND REMOVAL OF PAUPERS.

Large numbers of poor persons drift into London by a process of gravitation. The laws of settlement, although unnecessarily complicated, provide an outlet. The Asylums Committee of the London County Council have made a proposal to split the work up, giving themselves a share in it. If effect be given to this proposal it would tend to close this outlet. For purposes of irremovability the unit of area would be extended for the Poor Law area to that of the county. This would enable poor persons to become irremovable more easily in London than in any part of the country. The settlement and removal laws lead to searching investigations into the circumstances of paupers, and these should not be allowed to lapse.

11.—CONTROL BY THE LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL.

The Council, while asking for powers of general control, does not suggest that Poor Law expenditure should be distributed equally over the area for which it acts. In this connection the proposals are nebulous and hazy. Equal distribution of expenditure would necessarily involve such control as the Council suggests, and it is submitted that it would be opposed to all accepted and established principles of local government to give to an elected authority, such as the Council, control without at the same time adding financial responsibility. The body I represent does not advocate this distribution of expenditure, neither does it advocate the relieving of distinct localities from their plain responsibilities.

The Board of Guardians should be retained as the local authority for the administration of the Poor Laws, and the present manageable areas should also

Capability of London County Council to provide for pauper children

Importance of recognition of settlement laws.

Financial responsibility should accompany control of elected authorities

be retained. Experience shows that an extension of the area of administration involves a loss of local interest, and a consequent indifference to increasing expenditure.

12.—It is difficult, in the absence of knowledge of the changes likely to be recommended by the Royal Commission in the fundamental principles laid down in 1834, to speak of the machinery by which the relief of the poor is to be administered, but on behalf of the Poor Law Unions Association I would strongly urge that the Royal Commission should not expect too much as a result of mere changes in machinery, but that it should point out where error has crept into the present system, and set forth in unmistakable terms the fundamental principles upon which the authorities now charged with relief of the poor should act.

13.—LIMITING THE CONTROL OF THE L.G.B.

It is not my intention to deal with this at length. Experience and history both show that continuity of policy can only be assured by elimination of party-political considerations. The Local Government Board as a controlling force would be far more effective than the ever-changing character and policy of a directly-elected authority such as the London County Council. The Poor Law Unions Association is therefore opposed to the scheme outlined in the proposals of the Council.

98368. (*Chairman.*) We have taken so much evidence about London, and we know so much now about all the details of the administration not only of the Poor Law, but I think we may say generally of local government in London, that I do not think it is necessary to go into that subject?—I have no desire to speak upon details in the least and I am sure you have all the details before you. I am chiefly here to deal with the proposals of the London County Council from a general point of view.

98369. Taking your Statement in the order in which it stands I see you think that the Poor Law authority should be a separate authority?—Yes, very strongly; that is, that it should not be handed over to the municipal authorities. I hold very strong opinions upon that point, and I also represent that very strongly from the Metropolitan Committee of the Poor Law Unions Association. We met last Wednesday and we thoroughly discussed the proposals of the London County Council and passed two resolutions expressing that view very strongly. Our first disapproved of the proposals of the county council—that was our unanimous opinion; and the next was that we felt that the local government of London was so very complex that before any drastic changes were made in the Poor Law another inquiry should be held specially for London; we felt the Metropolitan problem was one by itself.

98370. Our reference is to report on the system of Poor Law administration?—We met as a special body on Wednesday, and we met as the Metropolitan Committee of the Poor Law Unions Association, looking at it therefore only from the Metropolitan point of view. We were not really regarding Poor Law from the rural point of view, but we discussed it as Metropolitan guardians, and that is our view as Metropolitan Guardians.

98371. Taking the present system, you are in favour of an *ad hoc* authority for the Poor Law?—I suppose it would come to that. I should personally be in favour of a specialised *ad hoc* authority for dealing with the Poor Law.

98372. Are you in favour of that *ad hoc* authority being an elected authority?—That raises, of course, a very important question. Looking at the administration of the Poor Law in London I cannot help feeling personally that popular election has not somehow or another secured a perfect Board of Guardians. There is no doubt about that; popular election has to some extent failed. But I think that you have to take another point into consideration, namely, why it has failed? I think the Boards have been allowed to drift, and I think that the control of those Boards has not been, in my humble opinion sufficiently definite and strict.

98373. That is rather a question of administration, is it not? The objections that have been urged against the directly elected system is that the class of person, the specialist, that you want to get interested in this sort of work, is very often not the person who is necessarily popular?—I can only speak from my own experience,

which has been gained in Fulham. I have been a guardian of Fulham for many years, and in Fulham popular election has secured a very good board of guardians, judging by results. I do not want to blow the trumpet of the Fulham Guardians, but I think there the law has been administered with a due regard to principles, and of course that board has been secured through popular election.

98374. Do you find that there is much interest taken in the guardians' election as shown by the number of votes recorded?—The number of votes recorded does not show a very deep interest. I may say that I have had to fight every time, and to fight very severely for my seat, because I have taken a definite view of the Poor Law; I have tried to take the legal view, and I have been opposed on each occasion. The last time I was opposed by the Socialist Party, who think my views are somewhat severe. My election has secured great interest in the ward which I represent. But I would say this—that in the wards where the guardians have not been opposed some of those elected have been the best guardians. I can safely say that they were regarded as so good that I think the people had confidence in them.

98375. It has been represented to us by a good many witnesses that in Poor Law administration, if a strong man, or a set of resolute men—a limited number of them—get on a board, they can to a very large extent dominate the policy of that board; I assume that perhaps Fulham has been fortunate in that respect?—I think a group of men may dominate it either way—either away from the law, so to speak, or in accordance with legal relief. But then I think there is a corrective to that, and that is the Local Government Board; there is a corrective to departure from the law in the central control. The very function of that board is to control, and it is imposed upon them by Act of Parliament.

98376. What has struck me, coming in with quite an unbiassed mind as regards the Poor Law administration in London, is the extraordinary difference in the ideas of a administration shown by the various Poor Law guardians of London; that you admit, do you not?—Undoubtedly the want of uniformity in London is very glaring. It is an evil, I think.

98377. What is felt, I think, by those who wish to reform the Poor Law is that one ought to be prepared to sacrifice a good deal if one could establish something like uniformity of principle in the administration throughout London?—I do not exactly see the reason for what I should call sacrifice. Surely the guardians can be informed by a superior authority when they do depart from the strict principles. For instance, there is the power of order, there is the power of inspection, there is the power of audit, and there is the power of dismissal; those are very strong powers, and if they are exercised I should not call that a sacrifice.

98378. I was putting it rather from a personal point of view, and meaning that those who perhaps hold strongly value of to direct election might be disposed to sacrifice some of popular their ideas upon the subject, provided they could get election. uniformity of administration?—I see the point, but I must say that one rather clings to the idea of popular election, because I think it is so educational. I think it is in harmony with the genius of our people that they should elect those who represent them, and I do not think we are nationally bureaucratic. A popularly elected authority kept on the lines for which it was created is to my mind something which we should not lightly give up. I am in rather a difficult position. I am representing the views of the Poor Law Unions Association, and I do not like to express my own views, or I could say a good deal on that point. For instance, personally I think a stipendiary guardian might be very useful. But I am representing the Poor Law Unions Association, and I am instructed on their behalf to say that they strongly oppose the transfer of the work of the guardians to the municipal authorities, and that they are in favour of the retention of the present areas of authorities. That is their view, which I am here to represent.

98379. Going to another point, the sub-division of London into so many districts, is an impediment to an effective system of classification, is it not?—Do you mean classification by institutions or in institutions? Pros and cons of classification of paupers by institutions.

98380. By institutions?—Classification by institutions has been very extensively adopted, I think, and is going

The Rev. Peregrine S. G. Propert.

30 Mar. 1908.

Election of Poor Law guardians in Fulham.

Lack of uniformity in Poor Law administration in London.

The Rev.
Peregrine
S. G. Propert.

30 Mar. 1908.

Pros and cons
of classifica-
tion of
paupers by
institutions.

on now in London ; but of course such a classification has its limitations. To aggregate in one building a large number of infirm men would necessitate a considerable expenditure in attendance and nursing, while, on the other hand, to bring together in another building a similar number of women capable of work, but without sufficient employment, would involve a corresponding loss and would have a bad moral effect. The proposal to classify by institutions regardless of the localities to which families belong may be scientific, but it would inflict hardships upon many poor people, and would in many cases result in the total estrangement and dispersion of the family without any possibility of re-union. Such a proposal is, I think, ethically bad.

98381. Of course, the facilities of communication in London are very much increased, and people can now almost get from one end of London to the other as easily as they can get from one part of their union to another ?—The facilities are no doubt improving, but there is a humanitarian and human point of view. Supposing an institution at one end of London is selected because it may be in a nice situation, or, for some other reason, it is selected for a definite class, say the old and infirm people, I doubt whether the old and infirm woman, for instance, would not resist a proposal to be dragged from one end of London to the other, and to have her relations compelled to come all that distance to visit her. You see these people are working-class people, and they cannot afford the time off that we can. We are very apt to look at it from our point of view, but these people cannot afford the time to travel from one end of London to the other, and they cannot afford to give up a day, even where the facilities are so improved. I feel that.

98382. Of course, if you could have something like a general service throughout London with promotion it would tend to bring a good class of servant into the Poor Law service ?—The *personnel* perhaps of the service might be raised that way ; but there are other methods, for instance, if boards of guardians were not to be too local in their view of the appointment of officers and would always try and look at the applicant from the point of view of the work he has to do. In Fulham, we have examinations of a minor character for them. We ask them what their experience is, and, if possible, we encourage them to get certificates ; in fact, most of our relieving officers hold certificates for knowledge in various branches of the work which they have to do. In that way I think we have secured a very good type of man there ; and I think that might be done generally.

98383. You are well satisfied with your officers then ?—I think the proof of the pudding, if I may use a very homely phrase, is in the eating, and our results at Fulham are satisfactory. I have here, which I shall be glad to hand in,* the latest Return of the Local Government Board, showing the weekly cost of the maintenance of paupers in the various workhouses of No. 1 District for the year ending Michaelmas, 1907, and the classification of the inmates in such workhouses. I find that we are 10d. below the average for the whole of London per week for provisions, clothing and necessaries ; but while we are 10d. below the average for the whole of London we are not the lowest in any particular item, that is to say, we have got a good low average. Some go as much as 22d. above it, and 17d. above it. That is due, I think, to our securing good officials and administering strictly.

98384. Now passing on to what you say about relief committees, your view is based on experience that it is the relief committees really, who, more or less, supply the principles of the policy of Poor Law administration in the areas ?—I think the first body is very important ; it acts as a net ; it receives the applications and hears them. I think that is a very important body indeed. It does not matter much when the body has received it whom it hands it on to ; but there is the body which receives the applications and determines what relief shall be given.

98385. That being so it seems to me that it is essential that whatever may be the authority which is connected with the relief committees it should carefully consider its decisions, otherwise the relief committee's views will dominate the people above them ?—Yes, I see that point. That is why I think the first authority is the more important ; practically the first authority decides how the case shall be adjudicated upon.

* Not printed.

98386. Taking that part of the London County Council's scheme, assuming that you turned over to thirty-one borough councils the work of the relief committees, is there any reason to think that there would be any more uniformity under that plan than there is now ?—No.

98387. Unless the London County Council were to strictly nominate them ?—I think that a borough council would not be so efficient an authority for receiving and hearing applications for relief and adjudicating upon them. Only persons familiar with the work can do that well. Then there is the strict supervision of the relief lists and admission lists, and the consideration of the circumstances under which the relief is obtained. That is, to my mind, most important work. When I look at the borough councils, I think that their attention would be divided and they would not be able to give, as guardians do at present, undivided attention to that particular work. The borough councils have become more or less trading concerns ; and in addition they have public health, the management of the streets, and the sewers, and other things. We have some borough councillors on our board of guardians, and from what I hear from them, it seems to me that their borough council work occupies a great deal of their attention. To do that, together with the receiving of applications such as the guardians receive now, I think, would be beyond their capacity.

98388. I have attended several of those relief committees, and I have been struck by the time that is required to consider the cases. In Paragraph 4 you give a list of your board meetings ; assuming that a guardian at Fulham properly attends to his duties, how many hours in the week should you say he would occupy ? His work would take a considerable portion of the week, would it not ?—That is rather a difficult question to answer. I give statistics in that Paragraph which I think I should prefer to stand by than to give another opinion now. This is based upon actual work in Fulham. There were 7,553 cases heard and decided upon in the year 1905 ; allowing an average of five minutes per case only, that would alone entail 210 sittings of three hours each. (*The witness subsequently added the following note*). The work requires more time in winter than in summer. In winter the Committees sit at 2.30 p.m. and frequently continue sitting until 8 p.m.—in summer till 6.30 p.m. There are three Committees which sit independently. If the whole of the work were done by one committee this alone would occupy about twelve and a half hours per week. In addition the following meetings are held fortnightly: Board Meetings, two and a half hours ; Children's Committee, two hours ; Stores and Contracts Committee, one and a half hours ; Sub-Committees, three hours. If, therefore, all this work was done by one Committee it would take thirty-four hours each fortnight. This does not include the Visitation of Institutions.

98389. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Would they be all new cases ?—They all had to be heard.

98390. Would they be all new cases ? Would not there be a good many of them review cases ?—That is the number according to the census of cases that we actually heard.

98391. Were they new, I mean ? It makes a great difference whether those were cases where you had simply a report or whether they were fresh cases ?—I could not say whether they were all absolutely new applications, but those were all cases in which the circumstances had to be laid before the relief committees, and had to be considered. We are very careful in Fulham not to accept old cases always as remaining in *statu quo*. The circumstances may alter, and we are very careful to inquire whether the circumstances have altered. Allowing for those cases which we have actually heard you will see that that would work out at nearly four days a week.

98392. I would like to ask you whether you could give us an analysis showing how many of these cases were only reviewed and how many were new cases, because that does affect the whole question ?—Yes, I think we could.

98393. (*Chairman.*) How many committees have you sitting ?—We have three relief committees. We have just had a discussion on the board on the subject, as some of us feel that we are not giving sufficient time to the work of relief. I feel that that is really the important

Personnel of
Poor Law
service and
effect on
administra-
tion.

Importance
of relief
committees.

Multiplicity
of duties of
borough
councils.

Time given
by Fulham's
guardians
to duties

work. There was a discussion as to whether we could not devote another afternoon to other committees, such as the finance, workhouse and infirmary committees, and then we should have a fuller afternoon for the relief.

98394. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Do you enter the time a committee rises?—We have a definite time. The other committees are not supposed to begin until the relief committees close; but I must confess myself that if I am sitting on a relief committee I do not allow any rule of that sort to interfere with my work; I think the case must be heard and not hurried over.

98395. If you have got a record of the time your committees sit, instead of having an average like this in Paragraph 4 you might let us have a return showing the actual time?—Yes, I think we could provide you with pretty well what you ask for. I could also provide the Commission with the figures you have asked for with regard to the number of cases that were new and the number that were old. (*The witness subsequently added the following note.*) The number includes all cases, both new and old, requiring consideration. The fact that some require a longer time than others has been taken into consideration in fixing the average at five minutes. (*See reply 98388.*)

98396. (*Chairman.*) Do the cases come up for review before the board? I suppose as a rule the board accepts the decisions of the committees?—As a rule, yes. There are sometimes guardians who may be interested in particular cases and may not quite agree with the decision of the committee; but that is not a common occurrence at all. As a rule the decisions of the relief committees are accepted by the board.

98397. It has been represented strongly to us as regards this relief work that it is undesirable that persons who are directly elected by constituents in a certain area should have the power of giving relief to those resident in that area; what do you say upon that point?—In principle, I do not see anything against it; in practice sometimes it might work out badly, but I think in principle it is not objectionable.

98398. As far as I know we are the only nation in the world who have directly elected bodies for relief of this kind?—A good many of the Continental people come and visit us at Fulham; and they seem to think that our Poor Laws are on the whole very good, I think. At any rate they do not find fault with us very much.

98399. Now going on to the asylums or institutions, I see you think it would be difficult for the London County Council to take over the work of the Asylums Board plus the institutions and homes for children?—Yes. We are opposed to that.

98400. We have had very strong evidence from the Metropolitan Asylums Board to the effect that they are ready to undertake any amount of duties in connection with institutions and asylums, and they contend that there is very little difficulty in it; I do not see they propose to take over children, but the other institutions?—I am not quite sure that I have caught your meaning. Do you mean that the County Council should take over the work of the Metropolitan Asylums Board, or that the Metropolitan Asylums Board should have part of the work of the County Council transferred to them?

98401. The Metropolitan Asylums Board were prepared to largely add to their existing duties; therefore, I suppose, we may infer from that that the London County Council might make use of the same argument and say that their asylums board is also ready to increase the number of institutions?—Yes; but I think the evidence is against the County Council taking more work. I think the Metropolitan Asylums Board, for instance, might possibly take over the administration of lunacy. The administration of the London County Council has, to my mind, been extravagant, judging by the increase in the cost of maintenance. They do not seem to have kept a good grip of the work. I notice, for instance, that the cost per head to the guardians is gradually rising, which shows, to my mind, that the county councillors are not keeping that tight hand over maintenance which they should do, and rather points to them being overworked. In 1889, for instance, the cost per head for maintenance was 9s. 0½d.; it rose in 1890 to 9s. 4d.; in 1891 to 9s. 11d.; in 1893 to 10s. 2½d.; in 1901 to 10s. 9½d.; and in 1902 to 11s. 8d. Now that represents,

on the numbers, an increase on the cost of maintenance of over £100,000 per annum.

98402. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) What are you including in the cost of maintenance?—I have a memorandum here, to the effect that the cost per head represents the maintenance, salaries, and maintenance of officers, but excludes the cost of housing; it is the maintenance of the inmates, I presume, and the salaries and maintenance of the officers. But buildings are excluded, and that shows to my mind that there is rather a want of grip of administration there. If the London County Council undertook further work I think that figure would be likely to still further rise; it shows want of attention to that particular point. I believe it will be found that the present work of the council is beyond its capacity to grip. I have here an agenda of the county council (*producing same*);* I think it is quite impossible for any busy man to really even read it, it is so long, let alone to administer upon it. I may say that I attended the debate of the county council—I think this is evidence—upon these proposals, and I made notes on the margin of this agenda. As they were very important proposals I expected to see a very full council. I counted never less than fifty vacant seats, and the number of vacant seats during the greater part of the afternoon rose to as many as eighty. The Councillors were not there—they were too busy; they were not listening, at any rate, to those very important proposals, and those who were there, I submit, might have given more attention. That is only evidence of the immense amount of time that is imposed upon them. I do not mean to say that they had not come to the building, because the division list in the evening showed that they were not far away. On this question of the transfer of further work to the council I think the evidence is all against it, and I think also that sound and healthy Government would be replaced by a bureaucracy. It must be so, because the county councillors would simply have to initial the work that is placed before them; they could not go through it. Here is the agenda showing the immense amount of work and the variety of it which county councillors have to do. I should unload the county council rather than load it.

98403. (*Chairman.*) I will come back in one minute to that point, but now I will just go on with your statement. Admitting, as I think everybody will do, the great advantage of the case-paper system, I do not see why transferring the work to the borough councils, or to any other authority, would break up the system of case-papers, because that would still remain in each locality available for whatever is the authority?—In thinking about the record of cases to which I refer in Paragraph 6, I had in my mind the whole proposals of the county council, which mean the dismembering, so to speak, of the work of Boards of Guardians, and handing over portions of it to other authorities. It would mean that the children would go to the education authority among other things, and they would want a record. Suppose we keep the family together, then we have a complete record centralised within the area, but if you have the father, we will say, in one institution, the mother in another, and the child in another, each of those authorities would have to keep an independent record, and the correspondence relating to the transfer of information from one authority to the other would be enormous. I think the system would break down.

98404. You were thinking then of the proposals to transfer all the children—both the children who are in institutions as well as the children whose parents are on out-door relief—to the education committee of the county council?—I am thinking that the general result of the transfer would be that each authority would have to keep a record, and I think that that would mean a multiplicity of work—it would mean overlapping and great confusion, and I think you would lose your cases.

98405. There were no other cases which would be transferred to the central authority. I understood that the work was to be transferred bodily to the borough councils except the work relating to the children. Do you believe it would be practicable to transfer the control of the children to the education authority, leaving the maintenance of the parents to another authority?—I think it would be almost impossible to carry it out in practice and to administer it; that is what I feel. As an academic proposal it may be very good.

* Not printed.

*The Rev.
Peregrine
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30 Mar. 1908.

Disadvantages of burdening London County Council with increase of duties.

Confusion of case-paper system under proposed London County Council scheme.

*The Rev.
Peregrine
S. G. Property.*

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case-paper
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98406. Are you thinking of out-relief?—I am thinking of the breaking up of the family, and the transfer of it to the various authorities. I think that that would lead to great confusion and to greater expenditure. You must remember that these pauper families are a type, and if you transfer the children to the education authority and the man is in the workhouse, we will say, and the wife in the infirmary, the man might come before the committee and, as they very often do, wish to have a day out in order to look for work; we should have to get information as to where the children were, but it is possible that we might forget, as they would not be under our authority, and perhaps we should be anxious to let that man out to look for work and we should do so. Many of the guardians, I believe, would under certain circumstances wish him to go. The children would be under the care of another authority; he would go out and he would feel himself free, and he might abscond—quite possibly he would. It would be a direct encouragement to him to do so. Which authority would proceed against him? The present system of keeping the family together under one authority I think is better. I am strong on that. I think we want one specialised authority for the relief of the destitute; I am very strong on that, and so is the Association.

98407. Taking the case of the children—because we heard a good deal about that last week—you think it is hardly practicable for the education authority to deal with the children, and another authority to deal with the parents who are in receipt, say of outdoor relief?—Yes. It is overlapping, it means confusion, and I think, it would lead to a great evil.

98408. Going on to another point, which raises a question of principle, you think it would be contrary to all precedent to give an elected authority, such as the London County Council, control over the Poor Law administration in London, unless it was financially responsible for the results of that administration?—Yes, I feel that. It seems to me that the proposals of the county council on this point are very hazy; they are not clear. Each borough council will become the local relief authority providing out of the rates for indoor and outdoor relief. The London County Council, I presume, is to have the power to make or refuse grants-in-aid in place of the Local Government Board and the Common Poor Fund; if it has not this power there will be the same lack of uniformity in administration as now and I think that seeing the borough council was paying for its own relief, it would probably wish to decide upon its policy. I think if the county council is to claim a controlling power it must go on to equalisation of the rates, and the county council does not propose that.

98409. Do you think it is practicable to regulate and control expenditure simply by refusing certain grants?—I have something to say on that, although I am not instructed by the Association.

98410. I should like your opinion on that, because you have had a great deal of experience?—It would be outside my instructions.

98411. It is your own personal opinion?—It is my own personal opinion, and therefore I hope you will not take it to be representing the opinion of the Poor Law unions Association. They are considering it as I brought it up before them. I feel strongly that the entire system of grants in aid of Poor Law expenditure both Imperial and county, should be revised and take the form of block grants distributed in proportion to the needs of each locality. These should be conditional upon the Local Government Board issuing certificates based upon statutory declarations made by the guardians (and inspection by the board itself that the provisions of the law had been carried into effect, the orders of the board applicable to the district observed, and the union efficiently and economically administered, I think that there is a weapon which might be used to bring about uniformity.

98412. That is to say, the grant should be a general grant, not applied to any one particular and specific purpose?—It should be a grant made conditional upon the efficiency of the administration; but I do not think the county council should be the authority for exercising that power.

98413. It would be very difficult, would it not, to refuse those grants in times of emergency?—Yes, it would perhaps be difficult, but then, as I think, that is just

where you have the weapon. Supposing they spend more than the central authority was supposed to give them, then the local ratepayers would be called upon to make up the deficiency, and they would very soon exercise some discipline upon the board of guardians, and want to know why they were called upon to pay more. It would have a disciplinary effect.

98414. One of the difficulties is that as a rule the parishes that get the most are the poorest, and it probably would be there that if there was any distress that the pinch would be most acute?—That is a very difficult point. One speaks of a parish being the poorest, but I think that a parish may be made poor. I speak now for my own district, which I know very well. I am quite sure that Fulham could be very easily pauperised; but after ten years of hard work the people have been taught that there are higher methods of help, namely self-help, than merely receiving help from statutory authority. That has stimulated a great deal of thrift in the district. I helped, with working men, to establish in a very poor district there, a co-operative society, and we are now doing a turnover in that poor district of £50,000 a year; it has some branches outside, so perhaps the whole of the turnover is not there. We have got £13,000 of capital subscribed by the working classes there, and we are paying 5 per cent. on that capital, we are paying a dividend of 10d., and we are paying 2½ per cent. towards the educational fund. That has all been organised by the people themselves.

98415. But that is outside the Poor Law?—That is outside the Poor Law entirely; but it shows that you can, I think, alter the character of a district through your Poor Law. The Poor Law used in the right way may be a most useful weapon for raising the people if the destitute are relieved in accordance with the fundamental principles of the Poor Law; but if you go outside those principles I think you may make the parish poor and pauperise it. I think those grants-in-aid, both Imperial and county, might be a weapon for securing sound administration in the district.

98416. Coming back to London, if it is represented very strongly to us that there is a great want of uniformity in the administration, and that certain evils ensue, what is the remedy? You think the London County Council is overworked, and could not undertake fresh duties?—I feel almost certain of it.

98417. I will put an alternative. Would you like the idea of a directly elected authority for the whole of London to administer the Poor Law?—That would involve so much. That would involve equalisation of rates; I think Professor Smith has something to say on that point. I think it would lead to extravagance. I think that the present system—I am instructed to give evidence on these lines—gives you areas of comparison. We can compare one district with another. We can point to a parish of a similar character with the same industrial conditions and we can say: "Here is a parish which spends so much, and there are so many paupers per 1,000 of the population there." We can compare it with another parish. If you centralise it and have a central authority, all that useful comparison will go and you will simply have a great big bog, so to speak, and whichever way it goes it will go altogether. Expenditure will rise, and it will go together in one mass. At present you have a corrective.

98418. I do not know that it necessarily follows that the expenditure will rise?—Experience shows that it does. *(The Witness subsequently added the following note.)* Take for example the case of the Metropolitan Asylums Board. From 1870 to 1904 the average number of persons maintained in reased about 60 per cent. whilst the expenditure increased by 250 per cent.

98419. You are evidently strongly of opinion that whatever system of Poor Law administration is adopted of local in London it is essential that the relief committees should be composed of persons who have an intimate knowledge of the locality?—I quite agree with you there. That is really the important authority—the first authority for hearing and receiving applications. That is the important point, and I feel strongly about that.

98420. That is knowledge of a necessary kind?—Yes.

98421. I suppose you also attach great importance to persons having what I might call a judicial temperament?—Yes. I do not want to mention Fulham too much, but

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we have taken a great deal of trouble there in getting up our knowledge of the Poor Law; we have lectures on it, and we take an interest in it. I think that if that could be done generally guardians are quite capable of doing work well.

98422. What is the result of the lectures? We are told that only 28 per cent. of the electorate in London voted at the last Poor Law guardian elections; was the percentage higher in Fulham?—I could not give you the exact percentage. As you know, the elections are triennial, and they come after the others, and interest has to some extent been absorbed by the others. I must confess from my experience of Party politics and so on, that the interest shown by the voter is in exact proportion to the interest shown by the Party wirepullers and the money put into the election; interest is created by those.

98423. (*Prebendary Russell Wakefield.*) Was it in that way that the interest was created in Fulham?—I do not think our percentage is anything like what we ought to have had.

98424. (*Chairman.*) It has been represented rather strongly to us that this multiplicity of elections is a misfortune?—Yes, it is. If I may be allowed to repeat what I said just now, some of our very best guardians come from wards in which there was no contest.

98425. (*Prebendary Russell Wakefield.*) When you were present at the London County Council, that was at the consideration of something that had been threshed out very carefully in committee before it reached the full Council, was it not?—No doubt those proposals were threshed out in committee, and therefore the other members of the Council ought to have been interested in knowing what that committee had sent up.

98426. You sometimes go to the House of Commons, I suppose?—Very seldom.

9 427. Is it not the case there that people are away until the Division is about to take place very constantly?—Yes, I think that is quite true.

98428. A great deal of the work that the London County Council has done, must be done in committee, must it not?—Yes, I think that.

98429. And the people on the committees are, generally speaking, those who are closely interested in the particular subject which is before that committee?—Yes, there is no doubt about that; but as they were representatives of localities that had Boards of Guardians, and many of them were guardians no doubt, I was very surprised at the number of vacant seats.

98430. Would you at all be reconciled to the idea of the London County Council as the authority for the Poor Law if there was an increase of numbers in that Council?—No. I am against the municipalisation of the Poor Law; I am dead against that.

98431. It is rather to that you object?—The old Poor Law, prior to 1834 was administered by vestries, that is, borough councils under another name, and it was not until the Poor Law was placed under special authorities elected for the purpose, that is, authorities away from the vestries and separate from them, that real reform took place. Then there was a Poor Law Board created which was a special Board for the purpose of assisting the reform, beginning with just a triumvirate of three. It exercised controlling authority over these Poor Law authorities, and I venture to say that when the Poor Law Board which was specially charged with looking after the administration of the Poor Laws was merged in the Local Government Board in 1871 and became part of the Local Government Board, that the control has weakened since then. So that you have an example there of municipalisation. Prior to 1834 it was practically municipalised Poor Law and then it was separated and the Poor Law improved under that change, in other words, reform took place.

98432. Practically, you are in favor of local administration and of a very tight hold on the part of the central authority?—Yes, I am; and that central authority I regard as the Local Government Board.

98433. I was interested in your statement with regard to these block grants. May I take it that to some extent the kind of grant you mean is to be administered in the same way as the Exchequer grant has been administered

under the Unemployed Workmen Act, and that it is to be specially given to districts where there is special poverty?—No; I should think more like the education grants. *The Rev. Peregrine S. G. Frobert.*

98434. There has been an attempt in the case of the Exchequer grant to discriminate between places that were really badly off and others?—Yes, there has. In the case I put forward, grants would be made conditional upon a statutory declaration being made by either the chairman or the clerk or some representative that the law and the Orders had been carried out. *30 Mar. 1908.*

98435. The only difficulty I see is that you do not bring the ratepayer directly in as a responsible individual until the pressure has become very heavy, do you? If the grants are made from the centre, the ratepayer would naturally go on spending as much as he could and getting as much as he could until the moment came when you said he would have to pay out of his own pocket?—Supposing a board of guardians is very generous and goes in for indiscriminate relief, and it is found upon examination by the controlling authority that the administration has been lax, and that a certificate could not be produced showing efficient administration, then you withhold the grant. Of course the money would have to be paid, but it would have to be paid by the ratepayers; they would have to make up for the loss of the grant, and this would exercise a great check upon the guardians—it would have a disciplinary effect upon them like a school losing its grant.

98436. It would make the central authority rather an unpopular body in that locality, would it not?—The central authority you see, is so separated, as it were, from local considerations that it would not mind its unpopularity.

98437. Is that really the case with regard to the central authority that it does not mind what the locality thinks about it?—The central authority is independent. The dissatisfaction of course might be expressed at the next Parliamentary election.

98438. Or even before that by a series of questions in the House addressed to the then President of the Local Government Board?—Yes, I think you take rather an extreme view.

98439. You say that the fact of there being a variety of authorities is really a corrective, and that if one authority spends a very great deal more money than another, people might reasonably be expected to object, because they would see what has been done in other localities. That is rather one of your points, is it not?—The variety of authorities supplies a standard of comparison. *Corrective value of various authorities.*

98440. Is it not just possible that instead of that, it might be an encouragement sometimes to an extravagant authority, and that they might say: "See what they are doing in a particular district; why should we not do the same?"—I think it would be the other way about. Here is a very useful method I should say, of getting uniformity. If the Local Government Board, for instance would select one of these unions which they, after inquiry, found to be spending a fair amount under these particular headings and then would issue an order pointing out that they require such a standard to be observed, I think you would get a very fair uniformity in that way. I should say Fulham is rather low—we are economical, no doubt; we have had very good officers, and we have had a very good workhouse master, from the economy point of view. So Fulham might be considered too low, but at any rate they might select one Board, and in that way might very well secure uniformity through administration by selecting what they regard as a fair Board, spending a fair amount of money and requiring the others to work to it.

98441. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) You said you believed in a specialised *ad hoc* authority?—Yes, I do, for Poor Law. *Need of specialised ad-hoc authority.*

98442. Would you tell us exactly what you mean by a specialised *ad hoc* authority? You want it directly for Poor Law elected, I understand?—I am giving evidence for the administration of Poor Law Unions Association, and they want it directly elected. *Need of specialised ad-hoc authority.*

98443. I must again ask you how you can get it specialised, because our ideas of specialists vary considerably?—I used that word, perhaps, in rather a loose sense. I mean

*The Rev.
Peregrine
S. G. Probert.*

30 Mar. 1908.

that this authority should be elected for the definite purpose of relieving a particular class in the area. That is what I mean by a special authority—an authority that does not have its attention divided like a borough council would—which can give undivided attention rather should I say.

98444. You have some men on your board of guardians who are borough councillors, have you not?—Yes.

98445. Are they good guardians?—I would rather not answer that question. I think that would be making invidious distinctions. I think we are all good guardians.

98446. I really wanted to know whether they did their work; that is all?—May I say on that point that I have a little bit of evidence which might be useful? There was a conference held in London some time ago of representatives of the City and Metropolitan borough councils, convened by the Paddington Borough Council, as to precepts. The document I have before me says: "We beg to state that we have now received a report from this council's delegates containing the following resolutions passed at the conference: Resolved that in the opinion of this conference the administration of the Poor Law should be in the hands of borough councils who are called upon to levy the rates for this purpose." That came up as a motion at the Fulham Borough Council, on which there are guardians, and the guardians were against the transfer—in fact the resolution was lost on the question of the transfer. The motion was: "That this council concurs in the resolution set out above, and that authority be given to its representatives to support the views contained therein at the next meeting of the conference"—that is, that the work of the guardians be transferred. That was lost. The councillors who are on our board of guardians feel that it would be a mistake to transfer the work of the Poor Law guardians to the council, on the ground that they could not do it—that the work would be too much.

98447. But supposing it is agreed that the borough councils should not be a new board of guardians, as it were, is there any objection to the setting-up of a composite committee on which some members of the borough council as now, and other people outside, should sit with them and form the committee to which you attach so much importance, that is, the committee which investigates the cases? They would then all be people with local knowledge and would know the local circumstances. Is there any great objection to a proposal of that kind?—Only on the general grounds which I have stated.

98448. They are very general, are they not?—No. I think I have given in my Statement very special reasons.

98449. They are really that you object to the mixing-up?—Yes. I do not think the distress committees, for instance, have been a success.

98450. Excuse me, this committee would not be specially called into being to do any other work, as I understand it, but the work of receiving applications for relief?—As evidence I put forward this fact that such composite committees were called into existence by the Unemployed Workmen Act, and their duty was to hear applications and adjudicate upon them. I do not wish to be in any way unfair, but I think I should be supported by the experience of those who have sat upon distress committees that the borough councillors found the work very uninteresting and were very poor attendants in London, thus showing I think that the mixed composite committee of borough councillors and guardians is not altogether a success.

98451. Have you any evidence as to the last winter's work on those committees?—Only the evidence which my personal experience of those that I know gave me. I think most of the borough councillors resigned. (*The Witness subsequently added the following note.*) In Fulham, of the ten councillors elected to the Distress Committees in November, 1903, six have since resigned, whilst of the six guardians elected to the Committee in April, 1907 not one has resigned.

98452. That is rather beside the point that we are on just at the moment. Do you know for a fact whether the work of those committees—it was purely a novel experiment you know—has improved or got worse?—I do not know from experience, because I am not on the Distress Committees.

98453. So you are only giving us a pure opinion on the matter, and an opinion not based upon very much knowledge of the circumstances?—It is an opinion based upon the general observations which I have heard from those who have been on the committees. Capability of borough councillors to act as guardians.

98454. It is not an opinion based on first-hand knowledge?—I suppose you would hardly call it first-class evidence, but still I hold that opinion very strongly.

98455. What I want to get you down to is that a committee selected in the way I have just proposed would not have any other duty as a committee but the duty of receiving applications for relief?—Exactly.

98456. I have not heard yet any reason put forward why such a committee should not be as efficient an instrument as the present committees of boards of guardians?—The committee, *qua* committee, would have no other duty, but the members of that committee would have other duties.

98457. And so they have now?—Those who represent the guardians would have only one duty to perform, namely, the hearing of applications and adjudicating thereupon. But the representative from a borough council would have a dual duty—not as a committee man, of course, but his attention would be divided, although *qua* committee, they would only hear applications.

98458. Certainly; but what you are really arguing, if there is anything in your argument, is that a public man, if he wants to interfere in Poor Law work should have no other public office, except under the Poor Law. That is what you drive yourself back on, is it not?—That is a deduction which I think is a fair deduction, and I base it upon my own experience as a guardian. I have been for many years a guardian, and, although I give a great deal of attention to the work, I find that I could give far more. For instance, there is the hearing of cases, the sitting on the board, the administration through the board meetings, the sitting on committees hearing relief, the inspection of buildings, the inspection of institutions—I really could spend the whole week on the work.

98459. As a matter of fact, it is just like what is sometimes said about paupers—it is said that you can have as many paupers as you like, and so you can give as much time to this as you please?—Yes; and I feel that I should not be giving too much.

98460. How many institutions has Fulham?—In Fulham we have the workhouse with 727 inmates, I suppose; then there are the infirmary (with 500 beds), the casual wards, and the Nurses Home. Then there is the Children's Home at Parsons Green with about eighty children. Those make altogether five institutions. Say that you pay a visit once a week to each of them— Amount of attention required on guardians.

98461. Do you consider that on any board of guardians each member is called upon to inspect every institution once a week?—I am on the house committee of the workhouse; there is a visiting committee at once. That necessitates once a fortnight a formal committee meeting. Then I am on the Rotal Committee for visiting. Then I should like to be on the Children's Committee, which meets at the Children's Home once a week; but I cannot afford the time.

98462. Are you going to seriously argue that a member of a board of guardians must be on every committee?—No.

98463. Then there is not much in it, is there, in piling up the work on paper in the way you do?—I think the reason the Poor Law has got into this need for inquiry—as a proof, this Royal Commission on the Poor Law—is perhaps the fact that members of boards of guardians have been public men, and have not had the time, or have not given the attention to the Poor Law which I think they ought to have done. Where you have instances in which members of boards of guardians do give almost their whole time to the work, at any rate the whole of the time that they can give, there you do get excellent results.

98464. But they are only excellent results according to certain people's opinions, are they not?—No. The results, as published by the Local Government Board, are what I go by. I will give you one instance. Take the work of recovering the cost of relief from relatives legally liable. I look upon the recovery of the cost of relief as most important work, because the moral effect it has is enormous. We have given a good deal of attention to that at Fulham; and the result is that the amount

Transference of Poor Law work to borough councils.

Capability of borough councillors to act as guardians.

recovered from the relatives has doubled in a few years, because we had a special committee to give attention to that work. In the year 1900, we got £1,053 from relatives—I must tell you that in 1899 we were separated from Hammersmith and became a separate union, and so we tried to begin well by starting on this work. In 1901 it rose to £1,528, in 1902 to £1,542, in 1903 to £1,982, in 1904 to £2,045, in 1905 to £2,249, and in 1906 to £2,581. That is the work of that committee, simply in the recovery from relatives of relief given to paupers. Supposing we had all been so busy as to say: We will not bother about this. That would mean that it would have gone the other way.

98465. But you employ an officer surely to make your inquiries?—Yes, but we look after the officer.

98466. But the whole of the investigations of those cases had to be made for you?—On our instructions and orders.

98467. Certainly; it was on your instructions to the collector. I suppose you are aware that most unions in London, certainly within the last ten years, have appointed collectors especially for this work?—Yes.

98468. I suppose every union in London would be able to show an increase in the amount they collected?—All the well-administered unions would.

98469. We differ, do we not, as to what is well-administered?—Yes.

98470. I put it to you whether it is not a fact that the whole of the Metropolitan unions show an increase in the amount that they get *pro rata* from the relatives of the cost of maintenance?—I think that recent inquiries and the general feeling about Poor Law is that guardians are beginning to feel that they are under the public eye, and that they must do their work better, otherwise they will go. That is the feeling we have had.

98471. That is the feeling which has hustled you up?—I quite agree. I do not wish the Commission to misinterpret that remark of mine; it is the same in everything—it is the general law.

98472. There is the fear of votes in our minds?—It does not mean that boards of guardians have been bad; it means that they have been badly administered. I think the system is excellent, but what is best is the best administered.

98473. I do not want to enter into an argument with you whether you ought to recover or whether you ought not—that is a question I will leave?—I only gave that as an answer to your question as to the amount of time for the work.

98474. I am only suggesting to you that the bulk of that work is done by a paid official. When you were joined with Hammersmith, did you have a man specially to do that work?—No. It was done by a clerk, and it was very badly done.

98475. Of course, you appointed a new officer?—We appointed a collector. We found that the orders of the guardians were not carried out.

98476. Under the old system?—Under the old system.

98477. But they were when you appointed a man specially to do it?—Yes; and we see that they are carried out.

98478. Still you appointed a man whose sole business was to do that?—That is so.

98479. Surely that makes all the difference, whether the job is going to be properly done, or not?—It is better administration, of course. (*The Witness subsequently added the following note.*) An officer cannot do all that is necessary. The guardians must devote a considerable amount of time to the work. The amount of the contributions have frequently to be varied, as the circumstances of the contributor change. This cannot be left to the discretion of an official.

98480. On this question of separating the family, I take it that Fulham occasionally sends children to the Metropolitan Asylums Board?—Yes.

98481. You have no control over the children there, have you?—No, but we have the case paper.

98482. I think you said a very true thing a little while ago, namely, that so long as you had one committee making the inquiries at the beginning, it did not matter where the people went to afterwards, because there you had a complete record?—Yes.

98483. What I want to find out is what is the objection when the children or the parents of the children have gone before your committee to handing the children over to the education authority, any more than handing them over to the Metropolitan Asylums Board to be dealt with?—Because we do not lose our authority over them now; they are still our children and we can withdraw them.

98484. You would not lose it then. If the parent wants to leave the workhouse, and the child is in a fit condition to leave the institution of the Metropolitan Asylums Board, the child is got out on your order and joins the parent?—Yes.

98485. You have to decide whether the parent can go out or not without his child?—Yes.

98486. I suggest to you that supposing a child is taken to one of the institutions under the education authority, the same thing would happen that happens now when you bring a child to the Metropolitan Asylums Board?—I do not think it is quite the same thing, because I think the proposal of the county council is much more drastic than that. The education authority becomes the authority for the child, and in the case of the Metropolitan Asylums Board, it is not. The Metropolitan Asylums Board has only to receive the children under certain physical conditions, and in fact, we do not lose the child at all, and we do not give up the child.

98487. You give up the child for the time being?—Only so long as it is in a certain physical condition.

98488. I understood the point was that you could not collect the children together when the parent took his or her discharge?—Should we have power to get the child discharged? The proposals of the County Council are so hazy that I do not know what the power would be.

98489. Let us put it the other way on then. Supposing you had authority to ask for the child to be returned to the parent, is there any valid objection to a scheme of that kind as impracticable?—I think there is. I think it would lead to great confusion and great difficulty.

98490. It does not do so now with the Metropolitan Asylums Board, does it?—No.

98491. Nor with the Catholic Schools, and all those institutions?—We do not transfer the child there.

98492. You surely transfer it to the institution?—To the institution, but we do not concede any authority over it whatever.

98493. You would lose your authority over the child in this sense, that you have nothing to do with the administration of the institution to which the child goes?—Yes; we visit it, and we make a point of visiting it.

98494. But you have no control over the administration, have you?—Yes, we make reports upon it. We have had several on those institutions, and the reports have considerable influence.

98495. On the institutions of the Metropolitan Asylums Board?—Not the Metropolitan Asylums Board, but you mentioned other homes.

98496. Stick to the Metropolitan Asylums Board for the moment?—You mentioned the other homes.

98497. All right; probably I ought not to have mentioned them for the purposes of my argument. The Metropolitan Asylums Board, after all, is a public authority and does stand very much in the same relation as it is proposed the county council should in regard to education; I am not suggesting to you that you have no control over the administration of its institutions?—We visit the homes for children of the Metropolitan Asylums Board, and we report upon them to our guardians. If we find anything in the nature of the circumstances which we think requires attention, we should report it to the Metropolitan Asylums Board, and I presume we should also ask our representative on the Metropolitan Asylums Board to move in the matter. Therefore, we do indirectly control the Metropolitan Asylums Board.

98498. I am suggesting to you that you should do exactly the same thing with the county council, by asking your representatives on the county council to inquire into anything that you think is wrong with the administration?—No. The county council is so distinct an authority, and has such powers of its own, that I do not think we should have any *locus standi*. The Metropolitan Asylums Board is composed of guardians and

*The Rev.
Peregrine
S. G. Probert.*

30 Mar. 1908.

Advisability
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The Rev Peregrine S. G. Probert. nominated members, and therefore the Metropolitan Asylums Board, is, so to speak, an extension of the Poor Law.

30 Mar. 1908.

Advisability of placing pauper children under education authority.

98499. Do you seriously argue that you have control over the children who go to the Metropolitan Asylums Board?—I certainly claim that we have control through our representatives. We are dealing now with the county council's proposals, not our own proposals.

98500. I put the other things to you as being somewhat different?—I am here, of course, to more or less deal with the proposals as set out by the county council, and you are putting a suppositious case to me which might put me into a difficulty, I quite admit, without time and notice. These are very difficult questions, and one has to consider them. The county council suggests that the homes and the Poor Law schools should be managed, I presume by the local school managers. They say nothing as to the cost, and they do not indicate to whom this cost is to be charged. By implication the school managers are to be responsible for the relief of school children. If so, then there are two authorities responsible for the relief of the same family, and in that way you get overlapping and confusion. This is my note upon the general proposal of the county council:—The education and care of children in Poor Law schools and institutions is satisfactorily carried on. The results are excellent and very few fall back into the ranks of pauperism. It should be borne in mind that the parents of those children frequently belong to the in-and-out class. I do not think guardians would object to the provision of schools by the education authority—now this is your point—if the guardians were free to send children or order their discharge, paying only for the maintenance while under the care of the education authority.

98501. It seems to me that that is the whole point?—But the proposals of the county council are quite indefinite upon that.

98502. (*Prebendary Russell Wakefield.*) Is that purely your own note?—That is purely my own note.

98503. That has not been considered by the Association?—No.

Attitude of Poor Law Unions Association to equalisation of Poor Law rate for London.

98504. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) I understand you are against—and there again I do not want to labour the point—the equalisation of Poor Law charges for London?—Yes.

98505. Is the Poor Law Unions Association against it?—I presume by implication they would be, because they unanimously opposed the proposals of the county council which seemed to them to involve equalisation.

98506. There have been conferences in London, have there not, which have carried resolutions in favour of equalisation over and over again?—Yes.

98507. So perhaps your council is not really representative?—I am speaking for the Metropolitan Committee of the Poor Law Unions Association.

98508. How many are there on that committee?—I could not tell you how many.

98509. Did you have a big meeting the other day?—We had a representative meeting of guardians, and they appointed two of us to come here.

98510. You could not tell us how many there were present, could you? It was summoned rather hurriedly, was it not?—Yes; it was summoned rather hurriedly.

Danger of multiplicity of authorities administering Poor Law.

98511. I put it to you that the public authorities in London have over and over again carried resolutions at conferences called for the purpose, in favour of the equalisation of rates and the central control of Poor Law expenditure?—You are more familiar probably than I am with them, but I believe such resolutions have been carried. I do not want to detain the Commission, but on the point of the education authority being a relieving authority, we have considered the question at the Fulham Board of Guardians. It was in relation to the feeding of children that we considered it, but this will show the confusion just the same. The effect of the proposal generally, so far as boards of guardians are principally concerned, is to establish new relieving authorities acting not in co-operation with the board of guardians, but with over-lapping powers. Within the area of the Edmonton Union, for instance, there would be no less than twelve authorities with statutory powers and

public funds at their command engaged in the relief of the poor—namely, one board of guardians, eight education authorities, and three distress committees. This number would be further increased if the recommendation of the Vagrancy Committee to make the police the authority for the relief of the casual poor is adopted; but even without that, there would be no less than twelve authorities.

98512. Of course, the redeeming thing about the county council's proposal was that it did want to get rid of one authority?—Yes. But it is a purely academic proposal, and I think that those who proposed it were unfamiliar with the technical difficulties in the way of it.

98513. Still, everybody agrees, do they not, that we have too many authorities at present dealing with the matter?—I do not know that everybody agrees.

98514. You agree, surely—what you have read out just now is not good, is it?—I certainly would say that it is an evil to multiply authorities doing the same thing, and therefore overlapping.

98515. You are face to face with this, that public opinion, wisely or unwisely, has said that certain children shall not be treated as paupers if they are fed; it has also said that certain people who get what you would call relief through relief works, etc., shall not be treated as paupers. Therefore, you are driven back, it seems to me, on to the municipal authority as the authority to do this kind of work. We may not like it, or you may not like it, but you have either got to have this multiplicity of authorities or you have to merge it all into one as is suggested?—I do not quite follow your reasoning on that point. I come here to give evidence on the question of the transfer of the work of guardians to the municipalities, and I strongly support the idea of one specialised authority for Poor Law administration.

98516. (*Mr. Bentham.*) I understand that you do not consider the administration of the Poor Law over the whole London area to be quite satisfactory?—No. There is one very important point which has not been touched upon, namely, the effect that that would have on settlement; I am against it on that ground.

98517. I do not mean one area now; I am taking the administration in the various unions. There is a great difference in that respect between one and another, is there not?—Yes.

98518. They are all supposed to be elected in the same way, and yet you get different results in different localities?—Yes.

98519. Do you consider that desirable?—In itself it is undesirable, but I think that to have one uniformly badly administered area would be worse.

98520. Probably; but it would probably soon be remedied, too?—It is the lesser of the two evils, I mean.

98521. You no doubt feel as some other guardians feel who are connected with other unions, that the particular union you are connected with is well administered; but upon the present system of selecting guardians do you feel that it is permanent? Might you not all be swept away some day, and another set put in that will change the policy? Has that not been the rule?—Of course, that is always one of the great disadvantages of a popular election; but still, there is something healthy to my mind in what I call local government.

98522. Of course, it is always healthy when it is going one's own way?—It is a principle worth preserving if you can protect it from these unhealthy signs. If you make London one area it would make it very much easier to get a settlement. If the county council were the controlling authority then, of course, you would get one area.

98523. It would make it easier to get a settlement?—Much easier, because plenty of people come to live in London for five or six years, but do not live in one parish for one year. I think I might provide the Commission with statistics showing that for every one pauper settled in London we might move two out. So you have an outlet, and a healthy outlet now, which would be closed if you made London one area.

98524. Suppose we abolish settlement altogether?—That is a very big question. I think it would lead to great changes indeed in the Poor Law, in fact it might lead to the nationalisation entirely of the Poor Law.

Need to recognise laws of settlement.

Danger of multiplicity of authorities administering Poor Law.

of 98525. Do you see any reason to oppose the abolition of settlement? What would be the net gain of it, taking the country as a whole?—Just what I have been saying. You get administration now within areas, and you are able to check any bad tendency. You can see a danger taking place in another area, and you are able by a standard of comparison to check what you believe to be a wrong tendency. Once you have nationalised it, I think that the whole thing will go together, and you will not be able to correct a wrong tendency. The question was placed before the Commission in 1834, and I think they reported very strongly against nationalisation.

98526. I do not think nationalisation was suggested in my question?—No, but it led to it, I think. In my opinion settlement is a kind of legal right; a man has a right to say he is a parishioner, and that right would be abolished entirely; and that I think would be bad for the poor.

98527. You do not usually agree with all legal rights, do you?—I do not want to be taken off into controversy, but I am rather an individualist; I do believe in individual rights, and I do believe in individual responsibility and individual freedom.

98528. Suppose the right to relief is maintained as it is at the present time, it is immaterial whether the person is relieved from one parish or another, is it not? If in one area the Poor Law is administered in such a way as to attract people to it, of course they would suffer the penalty, as they would not be able to remove them; so that it would correct itself in many ways, would it not, that way in particular?—The strongest argument against the abolition of settlement, I think will be found in the Report of 1834. I wish I was able to give you the reference, but there is a long detailed argument there which I agree with.

98529. You have more faith in an elected body for Poor Law purposes than in a selected body, have you not?—I think it would be better if you could get a combination of the two. To abolish the elective principle altogether I think is a very drastic change. I think there are the same objections to co-option that there are to election; I think that an elected authority generally co-opts people of the same kind, and who have the same views. I think if you could in some way nominate members of boards of guardians that would give it stability.

98530. Who should nominate them if the body itself does not do it?—I should think the Local Government Board.

98531. All over the country?—Of course it is a difficult question. I do not feel that I am here to construct theories or practical schemes this morning. I am here more or less to give evidence upon the proposals of the county council. Whatever I should say upon the point you put to me, I should have to say with some reservation.

98532. You say that in your experience the consequences of co-option do not offer any guarantee that the persons best qualified to do the special work will be appointed; that means really that you object to co-option altogether, does it not?—Experience shows that in consequence of the introduction of party politics, co-option offers no guarantee that the persons best qualified to do special work will be appointed. Political services, or a reputation for philanthropy, rather than experience coupled with sound judgment, has been the determining factor in electing aldermen or members of a distress committee. Committees appointed by members such as these will not be efficient substitutes for authorities elected for specific purposes, such as the present board of guardians.

98533. That means that you adhere entirely to an elected body for this purpose?—That is my evidence for the Metropolitan Committee of the Poor Law Unions Association. My personal opinion is that that perhaps might be modified by nominating members, or even in some instances by appointing a stipendiary; but I am not asked to give evidence upon that point.

98534. The number of people who take part in an election in London particularly is very small, is it not?—Yes, the proportion is small.

98535. Can it be said that the elected representatives are really representatives of the feeling of the locality?—Yes.

98536. On the ground, I suppose, that those who have any interest at all have voted?—Yes.

98537. On the other hand, if any particular section of the community are aggrieved, as possibly it might be on some points other than of Poor Law administration, a very small section of the community can organise themselves together, run their own candidates and win—with a poll of 20 or 30 per cent. only, it takes very few to turn an election?—Yes.

98538. So that upsets altogether the balance, as it were, of fair representation when the election attracts only so small a percentage of voters?—As I said before, those who do not go to the poll, I take it, are willing that those who are elected should represent them. I do not think it is fair to say that because a man does not go to the poll, therefore he takes no interest whatever in the candidate; he may say: "I am content with this candidate," and the ward may be content with the candidate. As I say, I am quite sure that some of our best guardians come from wards where there was no contest: the ward was content to accept them. Looking at our boards of guardians, it is no exaggeration to say that in the case of some of the best, their election was not contested.

98539. (*Chairman.*) I assume that they had proved their merit before, and that the electors therefore elected them without contest?—Yes, they were known.

98540. (*Mr. Benthams.*) It seems as though the different boards of guardians in London, if they remain as separate Poor Law authorities, will continue to be representative as it were in one locality of one class of thought, in another locality of another, and probably one electoral area will oscillate between one and the other?—Yes.

98541. So that the present lack of uniformity between one area and another in London may continue for all time?—Yes. I presume what we are now discussing is the method of election—that is what it comes to. I do not believe myself that machinery will make much difference, although you may alter your machinery as much as you like. What you want is principles in the administration of the Poor Law. We are merely discussing new methods of election, and I do not believe that changes of machinery are going to make such great difference.

98542. Let us examine that for a moment. Whatever sort of machinery you have got, I suppose human beings have got to carry it out and to administer the law?—Exactly.

98543. The point is, how best can we get the suitable persons to administer this particular law?—Yes.

98544. Principles may be laid down in the law and in the orders of the local Government Board, but if in one locality they are interpreted and administered differently to another, how are you going to get over that?—As I say, statute made authority does not work automatically; it is composed of men and women, and if they are ignorant of the principles, no amount of legislative machinery will prevent or remedy it. We want a clear understanding of principles. If this Royal Commission can lay down the principles in clear and unmistakable language, there will be hope of reform. We cannot get reform through mere changes in machinery.

98545. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Do we not all disagree on principles?—I think the Royal Commission will probably agree on principles—let us hope that they will.

98546. (*Mr. Benthams.*) However carefully principles may be laid down in the future, it will be most difficult to get bodies in all the various localities of London to administer it in the same way throughout London; London being a large area, is it advisable there should be this difference of administration between one locality and another?—Supposing the principles are laid down very clearly, and on the evidence you have before you no doubt you will be able to deduce principles—such a mass of evidence will enable you to do so—if these principles are clearly laid down, it will then become the duty of the authorities to issue orders embodying those principles clearly, and using the necessary amount of control to see that they are carried out. That is where the whole question of the Poor Law depends on its administration.

98547. As a guardian of experience, you know that if you lay down a principle like this, for instance, that only destitute persons shall be eligible for relief, although the

*The Rev.
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30 Mar. 1908.

Pros and
cons of elec-
tive system
for Poor Law
guardians.

Need of
fundamental
principles
rather than
legislative
machinery
in present
Poor Law.

Divergent
views of
guardians on
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guardians on the different boards may agree that the principle is right, what they understand to be destitution is, in each case, totally different; and it is a very difficult thing to get them to administer alike, although they may be attempting to do it on the same principle. That is really the main cause of the differences between the administration of one board and another when they pretend to have principles. But in some localities they do not pretend to have any principles, and then there is the difficulty of getting an elected board to see what principles they are working on. They say they represent the ratepayers, and it is rather difficult to get them to toe the line, as it were, to any orders laid down by the Local Government Board. If the Local Government Board lay down principles as carefully as possible, you are face to face again with the point that it is more difficult to get the principles of the central body carried out by an elected body than by a selected body?—I quite follow that, and if I may be allowed to say so, I represent to-day the British Constitution Association which has just formed a special Poor Law Committee including Sir William Chance, Mr. W. A. Bailward, Sir Arthur Clay, Mr. S. Hutchinson Harris, Mr. Mark H. Judge, Mr. Thomas Mackay, Mr. W. V. Cooper, and myself. They concur in the general evidence which I have given to-day, and we are having a meeting this week. If we might make a written statement and send that in, I will take into consideration this very important point as to elected authorities which is now being put to me.

98548. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) We have heard Sir William Chance and Mr. Mackay?—But we are meeting as a committee, and I should be grateful if you would allow us to send in a written statement. We do not ask to give evidence. My colleague of this morning has definite opinions on this question of elected authorities, but as the witness of the Poor Law Unions Association, I am not prepared to give my own opinion on this question fearing it might to some extent be found that it was not quite in harmony with that of some of the members of the association. I believe the British Constitution Association would be in favour of the present elected authorities. I think such a written statement would be of value to the Commission, because they are men of authority.

98549. (*Chairman.*) Will you send it in?—Thank you I will do so with pleasure. (For copy of Statement see Appendix No. XX. (A).)

98550. (*Mr. Bentham.*) I wish to ask you one or two questions with regard to the children. As you point out there would be very great difficulty in dealing with cases of relief by separate authorities?—Yes.

98551. Particularly where the areas are not the same?—Where the areas are not coterminous.

98552. With regard to the recovery of costs in a family there would be possibly recovery on behalf of the children and recovery on behalf of other members of the family which would have to be dealt with, and if they were under different authorities it would mean duplicating the same machinery?—I entirely agree with your view that there would be great confusion and difficulty in the recovery of the cost of relief.

98553. With regard to keeping records of the cases, a record really of a case is the record of the family and not one single individual member of it, particularly minors?—Exactly.

98554. With regard to the recovery of costs, do you get separate accounts as to the recovery for lunacy cases and for ordinary relief. Have you them separately indoor, outdoor, and for lunacy?—Yes, we have a case paper in each case.

98555. You have given us here the total amount that you have received in the respective years from 1900 to 1906, amounting in 1906 to £2,581. Could you say out of the £2,581 how much is recovery for lunacy cases, how much for indoor cases, and how much for outdoor cases?—I could not give you those figures now, but I can supply them. *The witness subsequently supplied the following figures:—*

	£
Lunatics	1,410
Indoor	1,066
Out-Relief	40
Other Expenses	65
	2,581

98556. The increase in lunacy will have added to it considerably, paying cases that cannot pay the full amount in a private asylum, are more largely dealt with under the Poor Law, and that has increased the amount enormously in different unions.—I could give you the figures as I gave them in our report, but they are not broken up in the way you suggest; they are simply the total figures for the recovery.

98557. (*Dr. Downes.*) I think it was suggested to you that statements of comparative expenditure as between different authorities might have the tendency to encourage extravagance. I believe such statements have been circulated amongst the guardians?—It is the other way, I think.

98558. I think that was suggested to you?—Yes.

98559. Such statements have been circulated amongst the guardians?—Yes.

98560. As a matter of fact is it within your experience that the guardians have rather looked into their expenditure and tended to reduce it than to increase it?—On my particular board?

98561. We will take your particular board.—We have been looking into the matter for some time, and I think that such a comparative statement as I have here is most valuable in the direction of producing uniformity and care in administration.

98562. And in your experience would the tendency be to reduce expenditure rather than to increase it?—The tendency of such a statement as this I think would be to increase efficiency. I regard this as a most valuable statement.

98563. I take it you would welcome statements of that sort if issued from a central authority?—I should welcome them and we should find them very valuable, in fact as the result of a visit I made some time ago to the Local Government Board I saw some statements in the room of an inspector there, I thought them so valuable that I mentioned them to my board, and they are now keeping, for the purpose of giving the guardians an opportunity of seeing how the relief is given and so on, charts marked up, and they create great interest.

98564. In your statement as to the work of a board of guardians you do not suggest you exhaust the whole of the work?—No.

98565. You do not tell us the time you spend in supervision of cases and call-overs?—No, that is in addition. This is what I should regard as the official minimum required; it does not mention inspection of institutions, for instance.

98566. With regard to the question of old cases, some old cases must give you a good deal of trouble from time to time?—They do.

98567. And would it not be a dangerous thing to pass an old case as a matter of routine without special investigation?—I should regard that as improper administration. Each case should be considered as it comes up.

98568. The question of the guardians' control over children in the Asylums Board institutions was referred to. You send those children in those institutions essentially to receive special treatment?—As soon as that special treatment is efficacious we have the children returned.

98569. The whole time the question of their chargeability remains in your hands?—Entirely, they are our

98570. You could at any time cease to relieve them?—Yes.

98571. So that the essential relief control remains in the hands of the guardians the whole time?—Yes, the Metropolitan Asylums Board charge us for the maintenance of the child, which we pay of course.

98572. If the general administrative control over guardians were assumed by the county council would there not be a danger that the county council standard would not be that of the whole country. There would be a tendency for the county council to set up its own standard?—I think that would be a danger.

98573. As compared with the Local Government Board the London County Council would not range over such a wide area?—By no means. I think we have a sort of parallel in the transfer of the education to the county

Effect on
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authorities
administer.

Official
minimum of
time required
on behalf of
guardians.

Treatment
of children
by Metropolitan
Asylums Board.

Transference
of Poor Law
to county
council and
analogy of
educational

council. One sees there what has happened. I think although not on all fours it does give one kind of hint as to what would occur in the case of the transfer of the Poor Law guardians to them.

98574. (*Mrs. Webb.*) What has happened about education under the London County Council?—So far as I am able to judge (I was a school manager) as a manager of schools there is far greater separation now between the county councillor and the school master and the county councillor and the children than there appeared to me between them and the old school-board member. There is a less human touch, the county councillors seem to me to act more officially and the whole working is more official than it was under the old school board, and to be less human if I may say so. That is what I think has happened.

98575. It was suggested at the time that that particular interest which the local member took in his own school did not on the whole lend itself to efficiency, especially in the appointment of teachers?—That I am not prepared to answer, but what has happened I think I have indicated.

98576. There is more efficiency, an official usually is more efficient than a representative?—In some cases there may be more efficiency, but he is not so interested for instance in some of the human questions that come up, and which are very important, which form, I consider probably the most important part of education. Education is not a question of machinery, it is a question of forming the character of the child, and I think that a member of a board charged with the care, that being the only care, of the educational development of the child, is more likely to do it than if his attention is drawn off by tramways, sewers, bridges and rivers.

98577. As I understand, the member is not responsible for the teaching of the child, it is the teacher. The system would be best which got the best teachers?—The teacher has to teach according to the code, and the member practically draws up the code, therefore if a member is out of touch with his children, he is not so able to draw up a code suitable to those children as a member who is in touch with them.

98578. (*Mrs. Bosanquet.*) I gather you attach great importance to the control of the Local Government Board?—Yes.

98579. Would you wish to give it increased powers?—I should certainly. I think the Local Government Board needs strengthening in its controlling powers. I think under the Act it must have power. I think it wants to exercise it more strongly. I very strongly support that view.

98580. Would you suggest any modification in the constitution of the Local Government Board to enable it to exercise those powers?—I indicated in the earlier part of my evidence that the old Poor Law Board when it was composed of three experts appeared to me stronger in its control than when the centre was merged in local government practically in 1871. It seems to me that the control of the Local Government Board has rather weakened since 1871. That is since its attention has been more or less divided between Poor Law and other things.

98581. Do you attach any importance to the fact that the appointment of President is a political one?—I cannot help feeling that that does influence the position. I am rather a careful reader of the circulars issued by the Local Government Board, and I cannot help feeling that sometimes that influence is indicated in some of the circulars—the political side.

98582. You would prefer that the power of control should rest with the Local Government Board rather than with the county council?—Decidedly.

98583. You think it would be more effective?—I think it would be more effective.

98584. (*Miss Hill.*) The field of Poor Law duties is very special, I think?—I feel it is very special.

98585. And the borough councils have too much to do to execute these duties satisfactorily?—I feel that strongly.

98586. And a body specially elected for the purpose would be more interested in the work?—I feel that to be true.

98587. I gather that you do not consider that uncontested elections for guardians are necessarily unsatisfactory, because in many cases there is no contest because the guardian is known and trusted?—That is my own experience in my own borough.

98588. Would you say that if those who are interested in the election have an opportunity of voting there is no reason to regret the abstention of those who are not interested; in short, the small number who vote at guardians elections is not necessarily an evil?—Yes, I can put it in that way. I regret for their own sake that they do not take a greater interest, but I do not think the evil reacts so much upon the guardians.

98589. You regret it for the electors?—Yes, more for the sake of the electors.

98590. A good deal has been said about uniformity, but its desirability, I suppose, would depend upon whether it was a uniformity having brought up or lowered the standard of efficient work?—Exactly.

98591. We might have uniformity which is rather more disastrous than the present state of things?—Yes, which would be a greater evil than the present want of uniformity.

98592. You think it would be impossible to get that sort of work from a body already so busy as the county council or the borough council?—I feel sure it would be wholly impossible.

98593. Would you feel it would be very important to direct the attention of all concerned rather to the efficiency of the work than to the machinery by which it is executed. Are we rather apt in trying perpetually to reconstruct the machinery to divert attention from securing better work?—I have made this note on that point. It is difficult, in the absence of knowledge of the changes likely to be recommended by the Royal Commission in the fundamental principles laid down in 1834, to speak of the machinery by which the relief of the poor is to be administered, but on behalf of the Poor Law Unions Association I would strongly urge that the Royal Commission should not expect too much as a result of mere changes in machinery, but that it should point out where error has crept into the present system, and set forth in unmistakable terms the fundamental principles upon which the authorities now charged with relief of the poor should act.

98594. Would you agree that it was very regrettable that so many of the paupers who come under the control of the guardians more or less are not regenerated or influenced for good by their action at present?—Yes.

98595. The influence of the present Poor Law is not a regenerating influence except, say, to the children or the sick?—That is unfortunately my experience. I find that once a man comes into the workhouse he is disposed to remain there.

98596. We have not been successful in bringing such influences to bear upon him as to improve him?—No.

98597. You would rather see attention drawn to that fact?—Yes. I find that once people come within the influence of the Poor Law they tend to remain there.

98598. And a change of the machinery does not necessarily alter that?—No.

98599. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) You told us that you recover a considerable amount of relief in Fulham?—Yes.

98600. In respect of what particular class of pauper do you find you recover most, lunatics?—Mr. Bentham asked me that question, and I will give the figures upon that, because an answer now might not be quite absolutely correct. (*See Appendix No. XX. (B).*)

98601. Do you recover any medical relief?—Yes, sometimes we make a charge of so much per head.

98602. Do you ever take proceedings for the recovery of medical relief?—May I put that in my reply to Mr. Bentham? I should like to put in some evidence on the question of medical relief which I think would interest you. I have a comparative statement of outdoor medical arrangements in the years ended 25th December, 1899, 1900, 1901, 1902, 1903 and 1904. We will take the North Relief District. In 1899 the number of orders for medical attendance received by the district medical officer was 1,828, in 1900 it fell to 1,147, in 1901 it fell to 634, in 1902 it rose a little to 661. Now in 1903 and

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1904 there is a slight rise, 1903 was 615, 1904, 705. As to the south district, which is a poor district including the gas works, in 1899 there were 958 orders, in 1900 676; 1901, 536; 1902, 532; 1903, 451; and 1904, 562, a slight rise there, so that the total number of orders in 1899 for these two districts was 2,786 and they fell to 1,267 in 1904. Of course, we are somewhat strict in our administration.

98603. (*Dr. Downes.*) Do you attribute that fall to your administration?—Yes, they were exactly the same people. We were separated from Hammersmith in 1899, and became a separate unit for Poor Law administration.

98604. What has become of the people who used to come to you for medical relief?—They go to doctors and hospitals, I presume. Then as to midwifery orders, which require watching (they are really included in the above, but this is a section which will show you what happened), there were fifty-two orders given in 1899, and they fell to sixteen in 1904. To show you again how the medical relief decreased under what I regard as correct and proper administration, these are the figures as to the prescriptions made up by the dispenser. In 1899 there were 3,126 prescriptions made up, in 1900 it fell to 2,244, in 1901 it fell to 1,849, in 1902 it fell to 1,592, in 1903 it rose again to 1,763, and in 1904 (I see there is an upward tendency) it rose to 1,910. I think that shows the administration of our outdoor medical relief.

98605. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) Does that arise from the fact that on investigation of the applications you have refused them, or do they not apply to you?—We should not refuse them, we should investigate them and decide whether they were really Poor Law cases.

98606. Does the large fall mean that a large number of cases have been actually refused who have applied for medical relief, or does it mean you have had a smaller number of applications because you have been more rigorous?—The policy of the guardians has become well known, and we get very few speculative applications now. The people really know beforehand what our decision will be. We are very uniform in our administration, therefore people say it is no good coming.

Law of
Settlement
and effect of
its abolition.

98607. You spoke about settlement, and one reason you mentioned why you thought settlement was an advantage was that it was an investigation of the cases?—Yes, I have a note here on that. Large numbers of poor persons drift into London by a process of gravitation. If settlement is abolished London will become practically a sink for the whole country. London has attractive powers of its own, there are immense charities distributed in London, there are the head-quarters of the Salvation Army and the Church Army and various charitable institutions which would, I think, operate in attracting a large number of people. The laws of settlement, although unnecessarily complicated, provide an outlet for many of these people who come into London. The Asylums Committee of the London County Council have made a proposal to split the work up, giving themselves a share in it. If effect be given to this proposal it would tend to close this outlet. For purposes of irremovability the unit of area would be extended for the Poor Law area to that of the county. This would enable poor persons to become irremovable more easily in London than in any part of the country. The settlement and removal laws lead to searching investigations into the circumstances of paupers, and these should not be allowed to lapse. That is my note upon that question. I could supply the Commission with figures as to how many we remove. The clerk to the Fulham Guardians told me last week that he thought for every one that was settled we removed two, so that the balance of advantage is in favour of retaining the outlet.

98608. (*Mr. Bentham.*) Does that mean outside the London area?—Yes.

98609. (*Mrs. Webb.*) Not out of London?—Yes.

98610. When you say an outlet, it is not an outlet to the individual, you do not put him where he can maintain himself, do you?—My point is that now a man may come up to London, and he may live in London for perhaps five or ten years without securing a settlement, he may roam about from parish to parish, whereas if the law of settlement was abolished living in London for that period he would obtain a settlement more easily.

98611. I want to go back to your phrase "having an outlet," is the outlet in favour of the man relieved?—No, Settlement and effect of its abolition. the outlet is in favour of London.

98612. In favour of the London ratepayers?—Yes.

98613. Not in favour of the man?—Certainly not. The ratepayers as a whole deserve consideration more than the individual.

98614. You do not say you are removing the man to a place where he can earn his livelihood?—The outlet is certainly in favour of reducing the number of paupers in London.

98615. Let us follow the man, where do you remove him to?—His place of settlement.

98616. Is there any suggestion that that is the place where there is work?—That does not concern us.

98617. Quite so, I want to bring that out, the outlet is for particular ratepayers, not for the man?—That is so.

98618. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) Would the difficulty necessarily be quite so great as you imagine, because in Ireland there is no settlement?—No, I understand that in Ireland the population is still decreasing.

98619. Yet we do not hear much question of difficulty between one union and another in Ireland?—That is so; but I think again there are very important questions involved in the abolition of the law of settlement other than the main question; it might lead to nationalisation of the Poor Law.

98620. It has not in Ireland.—Then you can retain the parochial area without settlement?

98621. Yes.—The abolition of settlement appears to me to carry with it the abolition of the local area, a man obtains relief wherever he happens to be.

98622. Are your expenses heavy in relation to removal?—Not very.

98623. Your law charges are not heavy?—We had one leading case the other day which went up to the House of Lords which I think will need an Act of Parliament to put it right. We have settled a very important point there as to settlement of an illegitimate child apart from its mother.

98624. (*Chairman.*) Who deals with these settlement cases?—The clerk.

98625. You say it does not come to much, but it must take up a great deal of his time, does it not?—Of course, it does take a great deal of his time, but he is quite an efficient clerk in other respects.

98626. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) What do you pay him for that?—Nothing.

98627. It is part of his duty as clerk?—Yes, in the olden days we used to pay a definite sum for it, but it was not better done.

98628. (*Mrs. Bosanquet.*) Does he actually remove paupers?—He gets an Order.

98629. Who goes with them?—I presume an official would. I am not sure of the technical part.

98630. Then there is his time?—Yes.

98631. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Who goes to make the enquiries?—A general relieving officer or members of the staff.

98632. They are taken off their ordinary work to do these other things?—Yes, but I regard it as valuable.

98633. (*Mrs. Webb.*) Who benefits by it; if one ratepayer escapes another ratepayer gets the cost, and the man himself does not benefit?—As I said before, I think there is distinct value in settlement; I do not think you should take that away without consideration. I think the poor would lose a very valuable right; they would be simply moved about from post to pillar and pillar to post if it was not for the law of settlement. We only take a man in at Fulham because we know perfectly well that if he be not settled in Fulham he can be removed in a perfectly honest way.

98634. If a man had a right of relief he would have the right to relief where he stood if there was no law of settlement?—These are abstract legal questions which I do not think I can answer.

98635. Could you explain who benefits by it, because it costs money; who benefits by it?—So far as the union which I represent, Fulham, Fulham benefits by it.

98636. I mean from the larger point of view?—Take Hammersmith, next door, they have an immense Rowton House there, and they have a hospital. I think there that Hammersmith benefits very largely by the law of settlement; there are also common lodging-houses there. If they come there is Hammersmith to relieve them?

98637. Somebody has to relieve them?—Then there is Wormwood Scrubs Prison, are all those people to be saddled on the population of Hammersmith? I think it would be manifestly unfair; you disperse them by the law of settlement.

98638. The community has to keep them and yet it has the cost also of the removal of the paupers?—Which is very much less than the cost of maintenance for an indefinite period.

98639. But the community as a whole has to keep them anyhow—some ratepayer has to keep them?—We do not have to keep them, anyhow.

98640. But some ratepayer has?—They would not all go to one parish.

98641. Some ratepayer has to keep them?—They may come from all parts of the world.

98642. Still some ratepayer in England has to.

98643. (*Miss Hill.*) You do not want to attach them particularly to London?—I do not think any ratepayer necessarily has to keep them. For instance a man comes to Wormwood Scrubs Prison. If he is going to receive relief on the spot at Hammersmith he is going into the workhouse and stay there; Hammersmith will not have him, and rather than be removed to his place of settlement where he is known he prefers to earn his own living.

98644. (*Mrs. Webb.*) That is a supposition?—I think it is quite a justifiable deduction.

98645. (*Chairman.*) What your argument really comes to is you think the abolition of settlement would enable persons to get relief more easily than they do now?—I think so and it would take away the right of the poor to relief in their own parish.

98646. (*Mrs. Webb.*) No, it will not.—I will not say right to relief, but the law of settlement does convey to my mind, I think, a right.

98647. (*Chairman.*) He would have a sort of legal status?—It would take away his status.

98648. He would have a general status instead of a parochial status?—Yes.

98649. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) You said that some of your relieving officers got certificates, I think; who grants those certificates?—The School of Sociology, which has its headquarters at Denison House. Professor Urwick is the head of that.

98650. Is there an examination for that?—Yes, and very good examiners indeed—excellent examiners.

98651. In general principles of Poor Law?—There is the general principles, and history and keeping Poor Law accounts and the law of settlement and removals. I regard that as really very valuable.

98652. Do they reckon that they should have any training before they go in for the examination, or do they simply present themselves for the examination?—At Fulham we encourage the relieving officers as much as possible to study principles, and we lend them books to read, and the clerk holds a sort of trial examination and trains and coaches them. They used to meet in the evenings and talk over questions and put problems. The result was that they passed, even our youngest relieving officer passed, and, from what I heard, very well. A theoretical knowledge helps them enormously in their practical work.

98653. Do you find those men who pass those examinations have been better relieving officers than others you have had?—I should say without hesitation that the old-fashioned relieving officer is quite out of it. The old-fashioned relieving officers seem to me to have no grip of principles. These young men who are taught history and a little economics get a grip of principles which is most useful to them.

98654. You are rather in favour of a bulk grant?—Yes.

98655. Would you apply that principle to the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund. You know quite well that the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund only charges a certain specific charge, which is 5d. a day for the indoor relief?—I concur in the evidence which Mr. Mott gave on that point. He gave evidence on the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund, I have a copy of it here. I think those conclusions of his are very much what I approve, and, generally speaking, I think the system upon which grants-in-aid are made, both Imperial and County, needs revision.

98656. The point of making a grant for a specific purpose has this advantage, has it not, that it enables you to encourage expenditure on a particular system of administration?—Yes.

98657. There is some advantage in that, is there not?—There would be distinctly.

98658. I suppose that the payment of 5d. a day has tended to encourage indoor relief?—I may say when we hear cases at our relief committees I do not think I ever remember a single instance in which any person seem to be influenced by the effect of grants. We adjudicate upon the cases, and upon the facts laid before the Committee, without reference to anything else, simply: Is it an indoor case? Is it an outdoor case?

98659. You do not think the fact that you get back 9d. makes any difference?—No, I do not think that that has come into our minds. It might do perhaps if we were discussing it at a Finance Committee, or from a financial point of view in order to save the money. I do not think that ever comes in; I frankly confess it never comes into my mind on relief work.

98660. Do you not think the 4s. grant for lunatics has induced boards of guardians to send more lunatics to asylums than otherwise would have been sent? I have heard that urged at conferences, but it has not come within my own knowledge in my work as a guardian.

98661. It would not be quite so strong in London, would it?—No, I should think not.

98662. Because of the Metropolitan Common Poor Law Fund?—Yes. I do not think it arises so much, but certainly it does not seem to influence us at all in our work.

98663. If you have a bulk grant it must be given at discretion I suppose to a certain extent, I mean the discretion of the Government Department?—I think it should be conditional upon its issuing certificates.

98664. Is there a difficulty there?—That certificate should be based upon a statutory declaration.

98665. Take the statutory declaration, you would say either the clerk or the chairman should make a declaration that the guardians have observed the law?—Yes.

98666. Is not that a little difficult for a clerk to do?—Yes, I think it would be difficult.

98667. It would even be difficult for the chairman, who is in a more independent position?—Yes.

98668. Would you not rather put it, not that the law has been observed, but that it might be considered that the discretion which the guardians had has been wisely exercised?—Yes.

98669. It is difficult to give a declaration that the board of guardians have not wisely exercised their discretion?—I see your point that it would be difficult to express an opinion.

98670. It would be rather invidious?—Yes, I see that is a difficulty, but at the same time, I take it that difficulty must be got over somehow. I think there is something in this proposal if such difficulties as you mention could be avoided. I really firmly believe that it is worth consideration.

98671. Did you read the Report of the Local Taxation Committee about that?—Lord Balfour of Burleigh's Committee?—Yes.

98672. They were against a bulk grant?—Were they against this proposal that I am indicating?

98673. Yes, the majority were. They say: "We have considered the relative merits of such a scheme of Poor Law grants as we have recommended, and we have selected certain items of expenditure in respect of which

The Rev. Peregrine S. G. Probert.
30 Mar. 1908.
Effects of grants-in-aid on Poor Law administration.

*The Rev.
Peregrine
S. G. Propert.*

30 Mar. 1908.

Proposal for
Poor Law
grants-in-aid
to be given
in bulk on
certification
of efficiency.

we think the Government grant might be given, and the scheme of bulk grants to be given to boards of guardians not based on selected items of expenditure. We do not see how the latter scheme could be worked in connection with the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund or in such a manner as to encourage or reward good Poor Law administration. So they were against it. ?—I have read that report carefully, but that paragraph you have read is not very familiar to me. I felt rather strengthened on reading the whole of the report, in supporting my view. The general drift of that report I feel is not entirely against this proposal.

98674. (*Chairman.*) I am a little ignorant about this proposal with regard to a general grant; is it the people who are to receive who are to make the certificate, or the inspector? The board of guardians discharge certain functions, and they do so legally, are they to get the grant irrespective of other considerations?—The grant now is not conditional upon efficiency, but rather upon mere numbers.

98675. Your proposal would still make the grant dependent on numbers, would it not?—No, not entirely.

98676. There is to be a certificate, signed by whom?—The Local Government Board would issue the certificate that it is to be paid—empowering payment. They have inspectors, and they would be in a position to ascertain whether the Poor Laws had been administered in that locality and whether the orders had been carried out. They could find that out through their inspectors.

98677. (*Mrs. Webb.*) Would there not be a difficulty with regard to the different presidents? You might have Mr. Chaplin giving a certificate for the greatest amount paid to old people and the next president giving it to the least amount?—There might be.

98678. (*Chairman.*) Would it not be putting a very great deal of discriminating authority into the hands of the inspectors?—I quite appreciate the difficulties which are being put to me, but yet I feel that here is a weapon which might be used with good effect in securing good administration. I am not familiar with educational administration, but is there not some parallel to be drawn between this proposal and the principle upon which grants are made for education?

DR. WILLIAM ROBERT SMITH, called; and Examined.

*Dr. William
R. Smith.*

30 Mar. 1908.

Qualifications
of witness.

98686. (*Chairman.*) You are a doctor of medicine, a doctor of science, and a Justice of the Peace?—I am

98687. You are ex-mayor of the borough of Holborn, a member of the Metropolitan Asylums Board, and chairman of the guardians of the poor for St. Giles and Bloomsbury?—I am.

98688. I only propose to ask you a few questions in connection with the scheme of the London County Council. I understand that is the primary object of your evidence, is it not?—Yes. Would you allow me to say, first of all, what I think may be considered as qualifications why I should venture to give evidence before this Commission. I have been for nineteen years a member of the St. Giles Board of Guardians, of which board I am at present the chairman; I have also been their representative for the past fifteen years upon the Metropolitan Asylums Board, and I think for rather a longer period than that (I am not quite clear about the dates, but certainly for some nineteen or twenty years) I have been a member of the local authority for Holborn, and, since the incorporation of the borough, a member of the borough council; and, latterly, mayor of that borough. In addition to that, I have had executive duties of a nature which I think it will be admitted gives me some experience. For twelve years I was medical officer of the school board for London; for ten years I was medical officer of health for Woolwich; and I am at present principal of the Royal Institute of Public Health, a body which is very much interested in public health work, and is engaged in the training of medical officers of health and others for the diploma in public health.

98689. The scheme of the London County Council has been before us and we have had several witnesses upon it, and Mr. Propert has given rather exhaustive evidence on certain points, and we may, perhaps, cover

98679. (*Mrs. Webb.*) There is the police force. With the police it is the maximum amount of service that is rendered. The grant of the police depends on the efficiency of the police, and the amount of police that they have. How is it ascertained whether the police are efficient?—By the inspectors. They really base their judgment on the amount of service rendered. If you applied that to the Poor Law it might be awkward—if you got a grant according to the amount of medical relief that you give.

98680. (*Mr. Gardiner.*) Is not the result of the education grants a much closer parallel?—I think so; is not that by efficiency?

98681. Then you create a sort of undue influence by the grants?—I am not very familiar with education.

98682. (*Chairman.*) Of course there is a danger when you make a grant depend on an inspector's certificate. The tendency in human nature I think is to take rather a lenient view of things and only refuse where things are very bad?—Yes.

98683. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) Is it not the case with regard to the police grant that the grant is only withheld when the Secretary of State certifies it has not been efficient? He does not certify that it has been, but that it has not?—Yes.

98684. (*Mrs. Webb.*) With regard to the police, and education, it is an increase in the service that is desired and not a diminution in the service, and all the grants-in-aid tend to increase the amount of service? That may be so. I am not putting this forward as an alternative to the abolition of the boards of guardians as proposed by the London County Council. I am putting this forward as a proposal which may be considered as a method for bringing about Poor Law reform.

98685. (*Chairman.*) What you mean is this, that you have an idea that the money which is granted might be made a more efficient instrument for efficiency, than it is under the present circumstances?—Exactly, although I have not sufficient knowledge to say in what way exactly.

the same ground. Do you agree with the last witness that a very important, if not the most important, work in connection with the Poor Law is the local investigation of cases by the relief committee?—I do. I cannot conceive anyone who has had a thorough acquaintance with the public work of London seeing any connection whatever between Poor Law work and so-called municipal work. The two departments of work are, in my opinion, totally distinct, and, as you have pointed out, very much of the importance and the successful result of Poor Law work depends upon the work of the local committees in connection with outdoor relief.

98690. The work done by the local committees really regulates the principle and the policy of Poor Law administration?—It is practically the basis, the rest of the Poor Law work is built upon the outdoor relief.

98691. Following that up, the scheme of the London County Council, by which the boards of guardians are to become the relief authority, would be unworkable unless the London County Council had control over its relief work?—Yes, but in a word, I venture to submit that the London County Council's proposal is absolutely bad from beginning to end. It would be most detrimental to the best interests of London government if adopted.

98692. Perhaps you would like to develop that statement?—I should. Let us take the London County Council, what is the London County Council? It is practically a political body made up of representatives of two political parties elected on a political basis. We know that every third year there is an election, and that the party organisations endeavour to obtain candidates, not necessarily because of their acquaintance with municipal work, but candidates purely and simply to fill seats in the various boroughs of London,

Work of
local com-
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Reason why
London
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London.

why and gentlemen are obtained and set forth as candidates, and seats are won; that is the main object of the political parties who govern the county council, and if you take the present county council, I do not know whether this Commission has thought it worth while to enquire, but I doubt whether twelve members of that county council have ever had any practical experience of Poor Law administration in London. Certainly, from my own knowledge, candidates are put forward for the county council irrespective of any knowledge of municipal work. Seriously looking at the matter, not as a politician (I am as strong a politician as anybody where politics are rightly concerned), but purely from a municipal point of view, I think it is not of advantage to the municipal life of London that persons should be introduced into boroughs with absolutely no knowledge or connection with the municipal life, or the wants and requirements of those boroughs, and returned as their representatives to the London County Council. It is common knowledge that that is the case, and I say it is not to the advantage of the municipal life of London as a whole.

98693. Should you say that there was a greater want of local connection between the London County Council candidates and the localities they represent than there is, say, in the borough councils?—Certainly there is a connection between the members of the borough councils and the districts they represent.

98694. There is more local connection, you would say?—There is always a local connection. I do not think the objection I have urged holds good at all so far as borough councils are concerned. There the members of the borough council certainly have a direct connection with the boroughs they represent, but the members of the London County Council may or may not have, and most frequently have not, any connection with, or any real interest in, the work of those boroughs, other than the mere accidental fact that they have been for the moment returned to represent it on the County Council. That is my fundamental objection to the London County Council. It is suggested that that body composed in that way should govern and take over this important work of Poor Law administration, dependent in the main on local knowledge. I know that the County Council has certain co-opted members as aldermen, but it is also common knowledge that those aldermanic vacancies are allotted in proportion to the strength of the political parties on the County Council; that is the main consideration in the selection.

98695. As you know, the London County Council have had educational functions imposed upon them for the whole of London?—I do, and I think it was a great mistake of the Legislature ever to give it to them. I think the London County Council ought not to have had education.

98696. Coming to the Poor Law, of course, it is not very difficult to frame objections against almost any scheme of reforming the Poor Law in London, but as to your own idea, would you leave the Poor Law guardians as they are?—May I, with your permission, finish what I had to say on the county council's proposals. These proposals further suggest that the Council shall have a statutory committee, that certain powers should be given to this statutory committee upon which they propose to co-opt certain persons who, it is suggested, should have experience in the Poor Law, that this Committee should have more or less the control of local institutions, and that the Poor Law locally should be administered by borough councils, and then that the borough councils in their turn should appoint committees, which would have duties allotted to them as outdoor relief committees of the borough council. So far as borough councils are concerned, I think the functions of a borough council are entirely different (the same argument applies to a county council) from those of a board of guardians, and their work is, I think, sufficiently onerous to occupy their time. Most of the men who are on borough councils are not men who have perfect leisure; they are men who have occupations, and they can only afford a certain amount of time for public work. They certainly have, speaking as far as my own knowledge of the Borough of Holborn is concerned, quite enough to do now, without additional work.

98697. Should you say that your borough councillors are of much the same stamp as the Poor Law guardians?—I can only speak of my own borough. They are, I think, very much of the same stamp. Several members of the borough council are also members of the guardians. The abolition of the qualification for guardians has not affected the composition or character of the guardians of which I am chairman, viz., St. Giles'.
Dr. William R. Smith.
 30 Mar. 1908.
 Guardians holding office as borough councillors.

98698. It has been suggested to us by various witnesses that persons become Poor Law guardians in order to make it a stepping stone to the borough council?—That is not my experience.

98699. You say that people come on from an innate love of the work, or a desire to participate in that work?—That is so far as my own knowledge is concerned of my own board of guardians; they are men who are very kindly disposed, humane, and charitable, who are taking an interest in the work and have done so for a great number of years, and many of those men to my own knowledge have been invited to become borough councillors, and have refused to do so.

98700. You think the London County Council could not undertake these central duties? What should you say as regards the proposal of making the borough councils the relieving committees. Do you think that unworkable?—I do. Of course, I object to the scheme altogether. I object to this scheme of the London County Council entirely. I cannot understand anyone with any knowledge of the subject suggesting such a scheme, therefore I object to the borough councils undertaking Poor Law work, it is only part of the scheme of general municipalisation.

98701. Do you see any advantage in having one uniform system of Poor Law for London?—I do see advantages in that.

98702. Perhaps you will go on with your other objections to the scheme?—I should like to say in reference to boards of guardians, that I think they have done their work extremely well in the past. I feel the country really ought to recognise a great debt of gratitude to the boards of guardians all over the country. The administration of the Poor Law is not very showy work; it requires a great deal of care and patience and kindness of disposition on the part of the individuals, and they have done this work in the past, I think, in a fairly creditable way and without any reward, because the State has never recognised, so far as I know, the Poor Law services of any guardian, or anyone connected with the Poor Law work. We know that the chairmen of district councils, urban and rural, and borough councils and the like, are *ex officio* magistrates. There is very much reason why the chairmen of the guardians should have had the same privilege extended to them. That has never been done, and I think it is only fair to say, so far as my experience goes, which is absolutely disinterested and of a somewhat varied nature, that I think the boards of guardians, speaking generally, deserve well of the country. So far as London is concerned, I know difficulties have arisen, but I submit that these difficulties are in the main attributable to the action of the Legislature by which they abolished the qualification of guardians. They, first of all, reduced the qualification from £40 to £5 a year in 1892, and then, two years afterwards, they abolished it altogether. The result of that has necessarily been that it has enabled persons to be elected to boards of guardians actuated strongly by sentiments which may or may not be in the right direction, and naturally they have given expression to those feelings in the discharge of the duties which they had to undertake. The abolition of the qualification and the exclusion from the boards of guardians of the *ex officio* guardians—the magistrates resident in the district—which all helped to raise the tone of the board, has done a very great deal to account for the difficulties which have arisen in connection with various districts in London.

98703. You would say, I understand, that the administration of the Poor Law has gone back since the qualification for guardians has been abolished?—Of course the board of guardians only act under instructions from the Local Government Board. If those instructions and the law had been rigidly enforced by the Local Government Board, possibly those troubles would not

General excellence of services of Poor Law guardians.

Effect of abolition of qualification of guardians.

Dr. William
R. Smith.

30 Mar. 1908.

Multiplicity
of duties
of London
County
Council.

have arisen, but the Local Government Board may have been aware of them, but it is extremely difficult, even for a Government Department, under the pressure of Parliament and the like, to give effect entirely to their views on a subject, but I think the reasons I have given are mainly those why there have been difficulties and the consequent necessity which everybody admits, of providing some proper system of classification and some scheme of uniformity in the Poor Law administration of London.

98704. If you have done with your objections to the scheme, I should like to ask you what suggestions you could make for the purpose of attaining this uniformity and improving the existing classification?—There is only one thing I should like to add to what I have said and that is with regard to the work of the London County Council. Everybody who knows anything about it knows that it is so enormous that it is extremely difficult to understand how they get through it. In my idea, knowing what the education work of London was and what it must be now with the addition of all the non-provided schools, it is a work which requires the attention of a proper and independent educational authority, but when this is added to the already numerous duties of the London County Council, in my judgment it would be impossible, apart from all other questions of the wisdom of the step, that such a body as the London County Council should be expected to undertake this additional work.

98705. (Mrs. Webb.) Have you ever served on the London County Council?—No.

98706. How do you know what the work is? You said just now only twelve members of the London County Council presumably had served on the guardians, therefore they could not judge of the work of the guardians. How can you judge of the work of the London County Council?—You have only to take the agenda paper of the London County Council to form a very clear idea of what their work is.

98707. The elaborations of the agenda paper may only show how admirably they do it. Perhaps your agenda paper does not show the work to be done so well?—I have a fairly good knowledge of the admirable way the London County Council does its work.

98708. How can you judge of the County Council work?—We generally judge by results.

98709. So do we by the results, the guardians administrations?—We know it by the rates going up in London and by other means.

98710. (Chairman.) You think the London County Council have quite as much as they can do?—Unquestionably.

Disadvantage
of multipli-
cation of
elections in
London.

98711. It has been represented very strongly to us that a multiplication of elections in London is generally disadvantageous, the people take less interest in them, and that there is difficulty often in getting proper candidates. What do you say on those points?—I think that is quite a right view of the matter. Of course I know a great point is made of the want of interest taken in guardians' elections. That election comes at the end of two other elections; there is the County Council election, the borough election, and then, within a few weeks, the guardians' election. For the County Council election, I have already indicated the cause of the enthusiasm which is created in the district and the manner in which it is brought about. To a less extent that is the case with the borough council, but with the election of guardians, for some reason or other the political parties have never thought it worth while to interfere in the same active manner, but the multiplication of elections is undoubtedly an evil. The people do not take the interest in these matters which theoretically it is suggested they should take.

98712. We are in this difficulty, are we not, we must either face what you believe to be a serious evil and leave the work to a certain number of bodies, or we must continue this multiplication of elections? I believe that the idea of the Legislature, or of the public, in recent years is that by setting up committees which are statutory and not necessarily elective and the appointment by them of persons of special knowledge, the amount of work which falls on the actual original authority gets largely diminished, and in that way the difficulty is overcome?—

Yes, I know that view, and I think there is a very great delusion in it. Of course, I am not now expressing the opinion of the association for which I have been asked to give evidence, and which sees no good reason for interference with the present boards of guardians. I think if there is anything like a central authority connected with the Poor Law in London, that you really have the nucleus already at hand in the other central board, the Metropolitan Asylums Board. That is a great central authority dealing with many important branches of Poor Law work in direct touch with the boards of guardians, and it might be possible to build up some scheme of centralisation upon it.

98713. The Metropolitan Asylums Board, as far as we could judge from the evidence before us, are willing to undertake any amount of extra work?—I think perhaps that might be explained. Of course, the work which they have to do is work which might be arranged in classes; it can quite conveniently be so arranged. It is not of such a varied nature as the work of the London County Council. They have certain asylums, they have the fever hospitals, certain kinds of schools, and they have the ambulance work. A certain amount of that work is carried out by sub-committees, which sub-committees are controlled by a committee for all special work, and their decisions are the subject of approval by the board. It is purely a question of machinery there, and I think they could take, with some increase in their membership, probably, work of an institutional character, but whether it is the Asylums Board, or whatever board it may be, I think the board should be solely and separately appointed for Poor Law administration.

98714. Just following that up; you see the Metropolitan Asylums Board is a central authority, but it is not really a controlling authority so far as the other boards of guardians are concerned. It is a central convenience so to say, for them?—That is so, created by order of the Local Government Board.

98715. Would you contemplate at all a central authority which should have any control over Poor Law guardians as regards matters other than institutional?—The simplest plan of all would be a central authority for London for Poor Law purposes, with the appointment of local committees for outdoor relief.

98716. Have you ever thought of a scheme of that kind at all?—Yes, I have.

98717. What do you think of that?—I think there is a great deal to be said in favour of it.

98718. That is to say, to have a central authority who would be able to establish uniformity, take charge of institutions and have local committees with thorough knowledge who can investigate the local cases, and do relief work?—Yes, in such a scheme I see no difficulty from the institution point of view; that is purely a question of arrangement and method, but the main difficulty of that scheme, or in fact, any scheme which is suggested for Poor Law work, is the outdoor relief, because it is the basis of all Poor Law work, and it wants inquiry made into every individual case by persons who are interested from every point of view in the circumstances and the local condition of things.

98719. I suppose you would go so far as to say that whatever the central authority is, it can never be efficient unless this local work is properly done?—Obviously, this local committee might be representative of local charitable interests, persons interested in the work, who are both judicious and tactful, there is no reason also why the borough council should not have representatives on such a committee; it is a pure matter of detail how this should be arranged, but you must have a local committee for outdoor relief.

98720. Your objection is not so much to the central authority, as that it should have time to attend to the Poor Law, and that you should have persons who have special knowledge of it?—It is not only time, but it should be the sole duty of the authority. The Poor Law work is of such importance, that it ought to be the only work of such a Board.

98721. You have special knowledge of the subject. Would you keep to the Metropolitan Asylums Board disease the health work that they do with regard to infectious hospitals?—That is, of course, a form of medical relief,

Disadvantage
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Proposed
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to Metro-
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Need
Poor Law
administra-
tion to be
local.

Gratuitous
assistance
for infectious
disease and
classical
hospitals.

and we know that medical relief under the Poor Law is available, and does not pauperise; the person not necessarily becoming a pauper. In my mind the only difficulty in the whole case is the question of the fever hospitals, because the fever hospital work is a very important branch of the machinery which is dealing with infectious disease in London, and you have the borough councils on the one hand dealing with some part of the work in connection with the prevention of disease, and the Asylums Board with another. It has been suggested that that part of this work should be handed over to the county council, but the county council has nothing to do with infectious disease in London at the present moment. The notifications are made to the medical officer of health; the necessary action which is taken is under the direction of the local authority, the borough council, viz., disinfection and enquiries into causation, etc., and all necessary steps for prevention. The case then goes to the Asylums Board hospital, and these hospitals, together with the ambulance service for the removal, are all under the control of the Asylums Board. At the present moment the London County Council have no active duties in connection with infectious disease in London. This medical treatment in hospital is, of course, a form of medical relief, and anyone from a peer to a pauper can get gratuitous treatment in those hospitals, and there is a question in the minds of a great many whether that is quite right; whether that exclusive privilege which is confined to London should not be looked into; whether it is a fair and a right thing that all those hospitals should be open for the gratuitous treatment of the infectious sick of London. It is a remarkable thing, and it perhaps may not have come to your knowledge, and it might be interesting if I told you, that of all the cases of infectious disease notified in London at the present moment, or up to the time that I got this return, something like 90 per cent. are admitted into the hospitals of the Metropolitan Asylums Board, so there is an enormous amount of work which is being done in this connection; these hospitals were erected under the impression that it was for the benefit of the public that these cases should be isolated, and that the public therefore ought to pay; and that is the reason why in London these hospitals have been thrown open to the public gratuitously. The money spent in the cost of building and equipment up to Michaelmas, 1906, comes to nearly £3,000,000, and in spite of the enormous accommodation the number of cases notified and the incidence of disease in London has not been diminished as was thought would have been the case; so really these hospitals are, in the strict sense of the term, a form of medical relief; it is therefore desirable that they should still continue under the Asylums Board.

98722. When you called attention to the large proportion of infectious cases which these hospitals deal with, did you infer from that there was a considerable number of persons went there who could afford to pay?—A large number.

98723. That was rather the point of your figures? Not altogether that point. It is within my knowledge that a very large number of persons, in fact perhaps the majority of persons, who obtain admission into the hospitals of the asylums board, are persons who do not get admission through the Poor Law machinery, and, therefore, presumably they are able to pay.

98724. What I gather is that your objection to a central scheme for London would be a great deal mitigated if that central scheme was not associated with the London County Council, and if a body so constituted gave up the whole of its time and attention to Poor Law work?—Yes.

98725. Of course, you have had a great deal of experience in a number of ways, and in all branches of local government. I suppose, as a medical man, you do feel there would be a considerable advantage if we could establish something more like uniformity under a better system of classification for London?—Undoubtedly those are the two great arguments in favour of such a board. It is more likely to get uniformity and a better classification.

98726. Taking your own profession, and the other branches of Poor Law service, if you had a uniform service you would be able to offer better attractions for entering into the Poor Law service which at present cannot be given?—I am afraid I cannot quite follow that question.

98727. If you had a uniform service there would be more chance of promotion and not the difficulty about superannuation which arises, and that kind of thing?—

The medical profession of the Poor Law is a district medical service and no salaries are ever given sufficiently high to command the full service of the medical practitioner, and the only appointments really open to the medical profession of an important character where the whole time could fairly be demanded, and where it is demanded is in connection with the medical superintendentship of large Poor Law infirmaries. Such a Board might tend to create a service, in the stricter sense of the term, than that which exists at the present time.

98728. I quite agree, I only wanted to get your general opinion about a central board. I think I understand you have only given what I call a very conditional assent to the proposition?—Yes. I should like to say I have heard suggestions made about the objections to these elections, and the difficulty is to find a means by which the *personnel* of such a board could be built up. It has occurred to me that that possibly might be got over by giving the borough councils representation on that board, because I think, although the majority of a borough council are not guardians, there are always some guardians on most borough councils, and certainly persons would be found who would be representative, and with a great interest in Poor Law work, and in the absence of any other suggestion short of a popular election that seems to me worthy of consideration, there is a precedent in the composition of the water board, such a Central Board might be made up in part by nominations from the borough council which would have the effect of bringing about a certain amount of touch on the part of the borough councils, and which, so far as fever hospitals are concerned, would I think also be desirable. Then I attach very great importance to the addition of outside members of the board. Personally, I object to the method of co-option; I think there is a fallacy involved in that principle altogether. The dominant party will, of course, put persons of their own way of thinking on the board, but judging from my experience now, which extends over some years of the work of the Asylums Board, I think it would be generally admitted that the nominations which have been made to that board by the Local Government Board have been in every sense satisfactory; they have never been of a political character. I have known Liberals nominated by a Conservative Government and the reverse. From first to last of my experience on that board the system of nomination has always worked most admirably. There has not been the slightest party feeling of any description whatever, and every member of that board has worked with every other member solely for the good of the work which has been entrusted to them. I think it is the best form of increasing the membership; you are much safer with a Government Department, and judging by the experience of the Asylums Board the system of nomination has always worked most admirably.

98729. Should you say that the nominated persons at all, in consequence of being nominated, lack influence on the board as compared with those elected?—Certainly not. I think the nominated members very frequently have a greater influence than the members elected.

98730. Carrying that idea a little further, assuming that the borough councils had a certain power of nomination on a central board, would you confine that power of nomination to their own body, or give them leave to nominate people outside?—I think I would give them a free hand. I think, probably, in practise they would elect their own members, but there could be no objection to giving them a free hand. I think there might be advantages in it.

98731. It might be open to the objection that they would nominate men of a certain party, but on the other hand it might enable them to nominate a special expert?—Yes. Speaking for my own borough council, once the borough council is elected party never comes in. I should think a borough council might quite well be trusted to elect the best men it could for a central authority like that.

98732. (Sir Samuel Provis.) You refer to a possible plan of having a body like the Asylums Board as the Poor Law authority for London, with local committees for the purpose of giving outdoor relief?—Yes.

98733. Did you contemplate a committee formed of members of the central board or that there should be committees of local representatives?—A committee composed of the local representative or representatives on the central authority, together with persons locally connected and interested in the poor with power for the Medical Officer of Health to attend.

Dr. William R. Smith.

30 Mar. 1908.

Pros and cons of a central Poor Law authority for London.

Danger of co-option of members on administrative boards.

Proposal to have an indirectly elected central body with a nominated local authority for Poor Law administration.

Dr. William R. Smith.

30 Mar. 1908.

Proposal to have an indirectly elected central body with a nominated local authority for Poor Law administration.

98734. Would the representative committee be an elected body, or would it not be an elected body?—It would be appointed presumably by the Central Authority.

98735. Not popularly elected?—No, not popularly elected.

98736. Do you think a difficulty might be raised to a body of that kind administering the rates?—It would be under the control of the central body.

98737. You would give the central body powers, would you, to revise the decisions of these committees?—Yes. I should have the central Poor Law authority supreme with power to lay down general principles for the guidance of these local committees. The Local Government Board's control being maintained as at present.

98738. As you are aware, the question of expense is a very material one?—I am quite aware. I quite recognise the importance of controlling it effectively.

98739. Would you contemplate that a committee of this kind would give outdoor relief at the cost of the whole Metropolis or would you make it a local charge?—It is now a local charge.

98740. Would you alter that if you had this Poor Law authority?—I do not contemplate any change in that direction, it is merely a difference in government.

98741. Therefore, you would contemplate that out-relief should be a local charge, but still, if the institutions were administered by one body, I suppose the expense of administering them would be a Metropolitan charge?—Yes.

98742. That would make a difference, would it not, because now also those are a local charge?—Yes. That is a detail which would have to be equitably dealt with, of course.

98743. You have not worked that out?—No, I have not.

98744. (*Mr. Bentham.*) Then your local committee would be not only a committee to deal with applications for out-relief, but would be a committee to hear applications for any kind of relief under the Poor Law?—Clearly.

98745. (*Mrs. Webb.*) As I understand, you would have an indirectly elected central body and a nominated local body?—If you want to get over the objection to popular elections. I do not see what other machinery you can create.

98746. (*Mrs. Bosanquet.*) I do not think you have dealt with the question of a Royal Commission. Why, if you consider municipal government and the Poor Law so distinct, do you wish to bring them under one Commission. I understand you want a Royal Commission?—That is a point which the association I represent had views upon, consequent upon the present overlapping in various directions in local government. One is the point to which I have alluded about the fever hospitals, another is the question of Poor Law administration. The County Council's connection with Poor Law is only direct so far as lunatics are concerned. They pay money over which they receive from the Treasury, but there is no good reason, so far as I can see, why the Treasury should not pay it direct through the Local Government Board as they used to do. Then there is the question of lunacy. The asylums should be in the hands of one Board, preferably the Asylums Board, and not under the control of two Boards, the County Council and the Asylums Board.

98747. This new Poor Law Commission is to allocate the work?—Dealing with the difficulties which are admitted to exist. These have grown up. Such as assessments, the registration of births and deaths and vaccinations. These were not originally the work of the Poor Law guardians; they have simply been added to them by the Legislature, because they had nobody else to give them to. I quite agree there is no reason why the guardians should have the assessment, and only a few have it now. That should be given to the borough council. I do not see why they should not have also the appointment of the registrars of births and deaths: all the boards of guardians do is to nominate a person for the appointment of registrar of births and deaths, subject to the approval of the Registrar-General: the whole of the work is carried out under the Registrar-General. Vaccination is, strictly speaking, a public health work. This should be given to the borough councils. Relieve the Poor Law authorities of work which does not rightly belong to them, but by all means keep them to do their own work: it is a distinct work, and should not be mixed up with municipal work in any form whatever.

98748. (*Dr. Downes.*) Would such a Commission as you contemplate be expected to deal with the relation of London to what I may call the fringe of London?—Certainly, which I can quite see in time will be a very difficult problem. Now that facilities have been given for transit, the poor of London are practically living outside the area in a great measure.

98749. That is a problem which comes under this proposal of the London County Council?—That is so.

98750. Have you any views as to the system of medical relief that would be advisable for London?—I believe it has been suggested to this Commission that there ought to be a more direct connection between the medical officers of health and the Poor Law officers, and that, in fact, is one reason why the local authorities should have more control. I speak as a former medical officer of health, and as one connected at the present moment with public health work, and I see no object whatever in that. The medical officer of health has specified duties laid down for him under the Orders of the Local Government Board and the terms of his appointment, which Orders and appointment direct him to systematically visit the whole of his district, not to wait till the Poor Law medical officer calls his attention to a lodging-house or an overcrowded tenement; it is his duty as medical officer of health, and it is the duty of his sanitary inspectors, to find out every insanitary condition in his district. The Poor Law medical officer is purely a man engaged in another department of medicine, not preventive medicine at all, but curative medicine, a totally distinct branch. You cannot have any two big systems like this at work unless they come in touch sometimes. Say they come together in a poor house, where there is a phthisical case, that is no reason why there should be a merging of these two important departments of work. The medical officer of health has his duties clearly and distinctly laid down. It is his duty, irrespective of information from any person, to find out every insanitary condition in his district, report to his authority, and do the best he can to bring about a remedy. On the other hand, it is the duty of the district medical officer of health to do everything he can from a curative point of view. It is laid down in the Local Government Board Orders that where any condition arises that it is desirable the medical officer of health's attention should be called to it, it is the duty of the officers of the Poor Law to draw his attention to it forthwith; and I find, from enquiries at my own board this morning, that the medical relief books are always open to the inspection of the medical officer of health. There is not the slightest difficulty in the medical officer of the sanitary authority, and the medical officer of the Poor Law working together under present conditions in the most perfect harmony. If any difficulty arises at all—no difficulty I see could arise—but if there is any difficulty in the way of information, it is rather more the fault of the medical officer of health than that of the Poor Law medical officer.

98751. The Order you refer to was passed by the Local Government Board as far back as 1879?—I believe so.

98752. You are quite right, there is full power for the machinery by which the Poor Law could communicate with the medical officer of health, and give information such as you have suggested. I gather from what you say, that you consider that sort of information should be sufficient for the purposes of the medical officers of health?—It is the duty of the medical officer of health to get it. He has no right to wait till somebody comes and tells him.

98753. Do you draw any distinction between medical relief and ordinary forms of relief?—Medical relief is given without the possibility of pauperism occurring to the individual. If you give kind, food and so on, it does carry with it, certain disabilities.

98754. It merges insensibly into tangible relief?—Yes.

98755. I want to ask a question with regard to the scope of the suggested Royal Commission for London; I want to ascertain your views as to the relation of voluntary hospitals to other kinds of relief; would you include in such a reference a consideration of the position of the voluntary hospitals?—I think you must, and that is an enormous problem. That is a subject which has occupied the attention and criticism of the medical profession for years past.

98756. Is it not difficult to separate it from any full consideration of the question of the medical relief?—It is absolutely impossible.

Guardians' duties should not include municipal work in any form.

Need coordination of preventive and curative measures in medical aid.

Extent of medical relief pauper recipient

Position of voluntary hospitals under proposed scheme London County Council

Guardians' duties should not include municipal work in any form.

98757. Take the position of the fever hospitals. It is said to be unanimously felt that the fever hospitals should be under the management of a Poor Law authority, but if they were transferred to the London County Council, the council, as such, has no representation of the sanitary authorities upon it at all?—No; the London County Council at this present moment has nothing to do with infectious diseases of London, and if these hospitals were transferred the borough councils would be in the same position as now.

98758. Assuming there was set up in the county, relief authorities who provided hospital treatment for sick people, is there any reason why fever hospitals should not come under the management of such relief authorities?—No reason at all.

98759. It is dealing with the sick at the public cost?—It is a form of medical relief, as I have shown in London, at public cost for all classes of the community.

98760. (Mr. Gardiner.) Do you share the views which the last witness expressed, that your association is opposed to one poor rate for London, an equalisation rate?—He possibly can speak with more experience on that than I can myself. I have no knowledge of what their views are on that subject.

98761. You have no views to give the Commission yourself?—I have given my views.

98762. As regards the equalisation of the poor rate?—No, I have not given any views on that. I have said that there are advantages in a central form of government.

98763. That would carry with it an equalised poor rate?—It might do.

98764. And, having regard to the poverty which obtains in certain parts of London, other parts being comparatively wealthy, you would rather welcome that?—I have personally a great deal of sympathy with the feeling that rich districts should bear the burden of the districts where the poor are found in greater numbers.

98765. (Mr. Bentham.) I understand that you suggest that, in order to get better classification and more uniformity of treatment, it would require larger areas than the present ones. For local purposes the present union area is not enough to classify all its inmates in separate institutions such as may be considered desirable. Is that your opinion?—Are you proposing to continue the union as a unit?

98766. With a central authority?—In my own area, we have no difficulty in classification.

98767. Take your own union. You have very good accommodation for children—a receiving home for children?—Yes.

98768. In the Holborn Union close by they have no accommodation?—No.

98769. They make use of yours?—They do.

98770. Therefore one receiving home there is quite enough for two unions?—Yes.

98771. In the same way with your other classes of inmates, they overlap a little; you have inmates in other classes of institution?—We are in connection with one of the London Sick Asylum Districts and send our sick there.

98772. That is a sick asylum district, is it?—Yes, the hospital is at Hendon.

98773. Are there any others which exchange one with the other?—We send some of our children to the institution of the Asylums Board when we have them—I mean any special class of child.

98774. There would probably be a distinct saving in the way of institutions by having one authority to deal with institutions, although there must be a local committee for hearing applications to determine what class of relief shall be given to each case, it seems that you cannot get that desirable classification without having one central body for institutional purposes?—There is a good deal to be said for it from the point of view of classification and uniformity.

98775. (Mrs. Webb.) What do you do with the women who are about to have babies, the mothers of illegitimate children—are they in the general workhouse?—We have a lying-in ward there.

98776. Before they go into the lying-in ward whom do they associate with? Are they with the ordinary able-bodied women?—Yes. I think they are kept as separate as they possibly can be.

98777. Are they kept separate?—I think so. We do not have very many of them. With a larger workhouse it would be more easy, of course.

98778. I find in the London workhouses that women who are about to have children are with the defectives?—I should have thought that is quite an exceptional condition of things.

98779. I am sorry to say it is not, they are with the defectives and deformed persons. —Would they not take the defectives to an asylum?

98780. I do not mean the lunatics.—Do you mean the children.

98781. I mean the women about to have children.—You say with defectives, of what age?

98782. With other women who are defectives.—Of course, you have experience of that; I have not.

98783. Do you think it is desirable?—I should think that is not desirable, but one must know accurately the local conditions about which you are speaking.

98784. One of the big complaints in going over these workhouses (we have been over a good many) is that you do have the women, both before and after child-bearing, with defectives and people who are deformed. —Such a suggestion as has been made would enable a better classification to take place.

98785. Do you really wish the present state of things to continue, or do you wish what you have outlined as a central body to be put in its place?—I do not wish anything to continue which is not desirable, but I can say that in the Poor Law Statutes, so far as I know them, there is not very much to take exception to. What you have been suggesting are questions of details and questions which can easily be rectified by measures quite apart from Statute.

98786. Part of the Poor Law Statutes is that the Poor Law should be administered by a board of guardians for a particular area. Do you wish them to continue or not? Do you wish the present board of guardians to remain in their present state or do you wish to have a body which you outlined just now, made up of borough councillors and nominated members to take the place of the board?—I think the board of guardians have been spoiled for the reasons which I have given, the abolition of the qualification and the exclusion of the *ex officio* members.

98787. Assuming you could go back on that, if it were politically possible, would you advise Parliament to go on with the present board of guardians, or to create a body such as you have outlined to the Chairman?—I have suggested to the Chairman that uniformity, better classification and probably economy in the way of contracts and in numbers of other directions would be effected by a central organisation.

98788. But is this central organisation to be made up of borough councillors plus nominated members, or are the boards of guardians still to continue, and the central body to be made up of their representatives?—I do not think you could have a workable scheme with the continuance of the boards of guardians plus a central authority.

98789. Then you think the abolition of the boards of guardians is desirable—What would your central authority have to do?—I assumed the basis of the question was that the central authority would deal with the whole question of the Poor Law in London, the management of institutions and the like.

98790. You think that involves that the boards of guardians would have to go?—I think it would involve that.

98791. It need not, you might keep the boards of guardians?—As your relief committees.

98792. And let them remain an elected body?—I must leave that to the wisdom of this Commission to develop whether they will keep on the board of guardians as the relief committee or not; from the experience they have gathered during the last two years they must know which is best.

98793. Do you suggest that the Poor Law authority should be made up of borough councillors?—I do not suggest that.

98794. Borough councils have no more knowledge of Poor Law than the county council?—You are speaking of them as a whole.

Dr. William R. Smith.

30 Mar. 1908.

Classification of unmarried mothers.

Question as to abolition of boards of guardians.

Transference of Poor Law work to London County Council and borough councils.

Dr. William
R. Smith.

30 Mar. 1908.

Transference
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98795. Yes, as now constituted?—I do not think that is quite fair. I venture to suggest, I have been connected for eighteen years with the Poor Law and twenty years with the municipal life of the borough, and I do not think my connection is a singular one.

98796. That is so with the London County Council, is it not?—The unfortunate thing is that the London County Council is not really connected with the boroughs. That is my great objection to the London County Council.

98797. You are aware of the argument that being connected with the borough sometimes leads to undesirable actions?—With all respect I am sure you know quite as much of the inner working of the London County Council as I do, perhaps more.

98798. I know quite as much and probably a great deal more?—Then do not let us say any more about it.

98799. I think I know more than you do about the County Council. I want a serious answer to a serious question. Do you really maintain that the members of the London County Council are not superior to the members of the borough councils in social status and integrity?—Absolutely not. As a most deliberate opinion, having given serious thought to this subject, and with a full knowledge of it, I venture to most respectfully submit it would be a calamity for the Local Government of London to hand over the Poor Law to the London County Council.

98800. Everybody also who knows anything about the borough councils would say it would be a calamity to extend their functions?—I am not anxious to extend their functions; I am not anxious they should be extended, I am only trying to suggest a workable scheme. I have represented to the Commission that I think the guardians deserve well of the country and of the public in connection with their work. Of course I know there have been suggestions made in various directions, perhaps with good reasons, but it is not the fault of the statute or the fault of the machinery.

98801. It is the fault of the bodies?—It is the fault of the persons owing to the unfortunate action, in my judgment, of the Legislature in removing the qualifications.

98802. It is the fault of the body concerned?—Not all bodies, one or two bodies, and you have got the Local Government Board behind them.

98803. You suggest it is the fault of the Local Government Board?—You say members of the London County Council have a better knowledge—I am surprised with your intimate knowledge of the London County Council making such a suggestion to me.

98804. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) Some members have said that one reason why the county council should not do this business is that they have not got time. I take it you agree about that, do you?—Yes.

98805. They might divide the work up amongst their committees, might they not?—Supposing they have the membership—you know what these big committees are, you can see it in reference to education. Quite frankly, is anybody with a deep interest in the educational work of London quite satisfied with the present condition of things?

98806. That is hardly what I want to put to you?—It is what you are coming to with the suggestion about the Poor Law.

98807. I rather wanted to ask whether it was not the fact that these committees split up into sub-committees and thus get through their work?—These persons on the London County Council, or whatever body you have, are not absolutely independent, with their whole time at their disposal, for any particular kind of work. It would be better if they were.

98808. Have you not rather given the case away by giving your own example. You have been an exceptionally busy kind of person. You have been connected with Vestry and the Local Board of Works and the Borough Council and Mayor of Holborn?—Not all at the same time.

98809. But you have been on the Metropolitan Asylums Board, I understood and the Mayor of Holborn, and, of course a Poor Law guardian all at one time. It seems to me that your own case proves up to the hilt that a public man can do a very considerable amount of work very efficiently?—I admit that I do not do the detail

work of the board of guardians now that I did previously, Transference of Poor Law work to London County Council and borough councils, but there are a great many men who do most actively of Poor Law work interest themselves in the work.

98810. Do we not all know too that we do our level best to get good officials and that they really do the most of the work?—If you want to argue whether this work should be handed over to officials, well and good. If you said what would you have as the best kind of work, I am not quite sure that I should not say do away with all elected bodies altogether and have paid officials, to do it, but that is not the question.

98811. That is one of the questions that we have to consider. Of course you have to consider the best way of doing it?—Are you going to consider the advisability of carrying out the Poor Law in London by paid officials?

98812. It is you who are the witness?—I know I am, and I have ventured therefore to put forward feasible ideas. I am quite certain that would not be an acceptable idea, however much I might agree with it.

98813. It might be as feasible as your proposal to set up a composite body made up of the borough councils as a central authority?—I have not suggested that, except in saying I do not see how you are going to get the membership in any other way if you are going to avoid an election directly by the ratepayers.

98814. (*Mrs. Webb.*) Supposing you had a judicial officer at £700 or £800 a year to administer the Poor Law?—You would want more than one.

98815. I mean a sufficient number of persons, a man from £700 a year to £800 a year to administer outdoor relief after hearing the enquiry agents?—I think there is a good deal to be considered with regard to that, and whether we could not get rid of the London County Council in the same way.

98816. (*Mr. Lansbury.*) You have a good many committees and sub-committees on the Metropolitan Asylums Board, I should imagine?—Yes, I could give you one of their agendas for this week.

98817. So far as I can gather there a good deal of it is done by the officials, is it not: you have a very competent staff of officials who carry out your work?—I should not say the officials did the work. We have certainly a competent staff.

98818. How long do your general meetings of the board last?—I should think they average from about one and a half to two hours.

98819. And you have reports from how many committees and sub-committees rolled into one?—I could not tell you exactly, but there are a number of central committees—about six central committees, and they embody the reports of their sub-committees.

98820. Do you not as a rule accept the report of the committees just as the County Council does?—We accept the reports in a great number of cases, perhaps the majority of cases.

98821. So that the size of an agenda is no criterion as to how much work there is for the body actually to do?—I do not agree with you.

98822. I suggest to you that it is not?—The size of the agenda paper for the Asylums Board bears no comparison with that of the London County Council.

98823. It is not a question of the size of your papers, but the principle upon which you deal with it, namely, that you have certain responsible committees, who in turn have sub-committees and they bring up their reports, and the business of the general committee is, as a rule, to accept the reports of the committees, therefore a few committees more or less does not very much matter?—Excuse me, it would matter. It is not only a question of committees, but a question of work; it is not a question of agenda papers, that is only an indication of the work. Take the work of the London County Council, take the main drainage, the streets and the public health work which they have to do, and the asylums; it is enormous.

98824. It is enormous, but if it is split up amongst a big number?—It is enormous, and it is done by officials. We all know that the education work of London now is practically in the hands of paid officials.

98825. And you say it is not being done so efficiently as previously?—In my judgment the education work in London is not on such a satisfactory basis as it was.

ONE HUNDRED AND FIFTY-SIXTH DAY.

Monday, 6th April, 1908.

AT SCOTLAND HOUSE, WESTMINSTER, S.W.

PRESENT.

The Right Hon. Lord GEORGE HAMILTON, C.G.S.I.,
etc., etc., etc. (*Chairman*).

Sir SAMUEL B. PROVIS, K.C.B.

Mr. F. H. BENTHAM.

Dr. A. H. DOWNES.

The Rev. T. GAGE GARDINER.

The Rev. PREBENDARY H. RUSSELL WAKEFIELD.

Mrs. BERNARD BOSANQUET.

Mrs. SIDNEY WEBB.

Miss OCTAVIA HILL.

Mr. FRANCIS CHANDLER.

Mr. R. H. A. G. DUFF (*Secretary*).Mr. J. JEFFREY (*Assistant Secretary*).

Mr. ARTHUR WILSON FOX, C.B.; Mr. F. H. McLEOD; and Mr. W. HARBUTT DAWSON; called, and Examined.

*Mr. Arthur
Wilson Fox,
C.B.,
Mr. F. A.
McLeod,
and
Mr. W.
Harbutt
Dawson.*

98826. (*Chairman.*) (To *Mr. Wilson Fox.*) You are Comptroller-General of the Commercial, Labour, and Statistical Department of the Board of Trade, are you not?—(*Mr. Wilson Fox*) Yes, I am.

98832. And when you come to the blast furnaces, you get the number of furnaces in blast?—Yes.

98833. Taking the textile industries, do you get the number of hours there?—No; we get the number of people employed, and the amount paid during one week of the month.

98834. Taking that last case of the textile industries, what would be your index figure to test unemployment there? I take it you would assume that they work so many hours per week, and if that is so, I would like to know what is the index figure you start with?—First of all, we get the number of people employed, and then we get the amount of wages paid. That information gives us some indication of the variation in the employment during the month. The monthly figures are a very good indication of the variation in the employment when we know the numbers employed and the amount they earn.

6 April, 1908.

98827. The Board of Trade have been good enough to supply us with some very interesting papers. (*See Appendix No. XXI. (A-L)*). There are two series of them that we thought we should like to have supplemented by oral evidence, one, the papers relating to the statistics connected with unemployment, and the other, the papers relating to insurance against unemployment in foreign countries. I think we had better keep the two questions distinct, and deal with the statistics first. I assume that the two papers to which we had better confine our attention to chiefly, would be those headed "Method of Compilation of Board of Trade's Percentages of unemployed and the extent to which they may be taken as a measure of Unemployment" (*Appendix No. XXI. (A)*) and "Cyclical Trade Depressions" (*Appendix No. XXI. (B)*)?—Yes.

98828. Taking the paper I have first named, that relating to the method of compilation, I understand that you obtain your information from various quarters?—Yes. We obtain our information from employers, from trade correspondents who are the secretaries of employers' associations, from trade unions, and from local correspondents of ours who are mostly connected with trade unions. So we obtain the information both from the employers and from the workpeople.

98829. The information which you have thus obtained though it all relates to unemployment, is naturally of rather a differing character?—Yes. The various trades have got to be considered. Some trades go on the principle of working short time and in those trades, such as the textile trades and others—we get the number of men employed each month, and we get the total amount earned. Of course the total amount earned is not a good comparison over a long period, because rates of wages may change, but still it is the best indication we can get, and it shows the effect of short time—it illustrates whether short time or not is worked over short periods at any rate.

98830. The Returns that you get from the trade unions, I think, are fully explained; they relate to the actual persons connected with the trade unions who are receiving unemployed benefit?—Yes. That is substantially our test of an unemployed man; the best test that we can get statistically is whether a man is in receipt of unemployed benefit or signing the vacant book.

98831. When you come to the employers' Returns, you get from certain mining industries, from the coal industry, for instance, a statement of the number of days worked?—Yes, we get a statement of the number of days on which coal is got.

98835. Coming to the question of the unemployed, your figures might show a reduction in the number of hours working, for instance, but that would not mean necessarily that anybody was unemployed, would it? It might mean that the hours had been shortened?—Quite so. That is really the principle they go on. There is very little unemployment in the textile trade, except owing to accidents and stoppages for new machinery, fires, and so forth.

98836. (*Mrs. Webb.*) I think the Chairman was referring rather to a shortening of the hours deliberately; supposing the hours were shortened deliberately because they wanted a shorter day, would your statistics show that?—That would not be shown.

98837. (*Chairman.*) Perhaps I ought to make a little statement to you, in order to put the point clearly. We have had a great deal of information about not so much unemployment as the shortage of employment, and therefore, one is confronted always with this alternative when looking at the statistics of employment. Taking an extreme case, it may be that a certain number of persons are out of employment the whole of their time, or it may be that they are all employed, but though they are all employed, they are only employed for a shorter time each week?—Yes.

98838. Between those two extremes, one rather wants to find out what is the number of persons who are either actually out of employment at a given period, or who may have been what you might call under-employed through their hours having been cut down?—Our figures do not show that. That is an important point, and we are quite aware of it. The only indication at present that we can get in the trades that work short time other than those obtained for coal and the iron, &c., trade, is the number employed and their wages. Of course, the wages paid is some indication as to whether they are on short time or not. That is all we can give.

Mr. Arthur
Wilson Fox,
C.B.,
Mr. F. H.
McLeod,
and
Mr. W.
Harbutt
Dawson.

6 April, 1908.

Changes in
level of em-
ployment in
coal, iron and
steel trades.

98839. Turning now to page 2 of the paper showing the method of compilation, you give a table there headed "Percentage Changes in the Level of Employment in Certain Branches of the Coal, Iron, and Steel Trades," and in the last column you give the aggregate amount of employment in the coal, iron and steel trades; I assume that those figures in the last column are obtained by adding together and dividing the percentages of the preceding columns?—Yes, that is so.

98840. The coal mining industry, I think, affects something like 800,000 people?—That is so.

98841. But the iron mining, it seems to me, would affect a very small number of persons—comparatively speaking, only a few thousands?—Yes.

98842. I see your difficulty; but is it not a little misleading to aggregate these figures, and then divide them simply according to the number in the different occupations?—But Coal is given an equal weight with the mean of the other four columns in obtaining the last column. We do not publish those figures in the *Labour Gazette*. They illustrate one method of testing the level of employment.

98843. Perhaps you would not like them to be published?—We put in these figures as an illustration. There is no objection to their being published in your proceedings as a part of this paper.

Fluctuations
in engineer-
ing and
shipbuilding
trades.

98844. There is another point that has occurred to me. I think in your Paper headed "Cyclical Trade Depressions," you show that the fluctuations in the engineering and shipbuilding industry are very considerable?—They are.

Fluctuations
in moulders'
trade.

98845. Taking that industry, it includes a branch called the Moulders, I think?—Yes.

98846. That, comparatively speaking, employs a small number of persons?—Yes.

98847. But the percentages of fluctuation are very great with the Moulders?—Yes.

98848. On p. 8 of that Paper, under the heading of "Unemployment in the Several Groups," you print a table from the last column but one, of which you will see that there are very great fluctuations under the head of "Iron Moulders"?—Yes; they are very considerable.

98849. I was going to suggest that the fluctuations in this comparatively small trade would affect the percentage of unemployment of the whole of the steel and iron industry—at least of the skilled workers in it—and that the percentage of unemployment of the steel and iron workers would also affect very considerably the figures for the whole of the unemployed?—That is so. I think that the unions from which we have got these figures would be shown to be more sensitive to bad times than would be shown to be the case with the whole of the trade unions, if we could get these returns from them—at least, that is my opinion.

How far
Board of
Trade statis-
tics are a
measure of
unemploy-
ment gener-
ally.

98850. In this Paper you do not claim for these figures any more than that they show tendencies, I think?—No, I do not. If we could read into these figures something more than is there, namely, that they give a basis for calculating the total unemployment in the country, we should all be very glad; but I do not think we can do that, and I do not think it would be safe to try to do that. After all, we only get the figures for some 600,000 Trade Unionists, and I am somewhat sceptical about applying them to the 2,000,000 trade unionists. One reason is the point I have already stated, namely, that I think we have got figures from some trades which are particularly susceptible to changes in bad times, such as the shipbuilding, the building, and the engineering. Then another reason is that among the trade unions we leave out there are large bodies of men who are seldom out of employment at all, such as railway servants (80,000), textile workers (130,000), and coal miners (400,000). Therefore, I do not think it would be safe to apply our unemployed figures to the trade unions as a whole; and *a fortiori*, I do not think it is safe to apply them to the 11,000,000 of working people, and I do not think that anybody would suggest that one could apply the definite information which we have got as to the 600,000 to the 11,000,000. Each trade has got to be considered by

itself, and each trade has a history of its own. Even when you take the 11,000,000 people, you will find there are a large number who are not unemployed as a rule. There are the railway servants, the rest of the coal miners not included in our figures, and there are the textile workers. None of those people are unemployed much. On the other hand, there are a large number of people in certain trades who are at times very considerably unemployed. I should like to mention this as regards our own figures: We can only get the figures for the carpenters and plumbers in the building trade; although they show considerable unemployment at the present time, I should say that there are probably more unemployed among the bricklayers, the labourers and the masons, because theirs is outside work. Therefore, in that particular trade, our figures, which illustrate the position of the carpenters and plumbers, may not, I think, fairly represent the amount of unemployment in the building trade, in fact, I think they probably under-estimate it. Our figures may exaggerate in some particulars, and under-estimate in others, the amount of employment even in the case of the trade unions.

98851. On that point, are the trade unionists who receive a payment which is more perhaps in the nature of superannuation than an unemployed benefit kept out of your returns, or are they included?—If a man has run out of benefit and is on the books, we include him, because he is known to be unemployed. We should include in our figures anybody returned as unemployed. Of course, the great bulk of the men shown in these figures are actually in receipt of unemployed benefit but there are certain men who have run out of benefit and who are still on the books who would be included in these figures because they are known to be unemployed.

98852. (Mr. Bentham.) If there are any men who are unemployed in their trade, but who are working elsewhere, how could those be returned by the trade union secretary?—If a man has run out of benefit, and is on the books as not employed, he would not be working anywhere else.

98853. If he is out of benefit in connection with his trade union, he may be employed in some other way and yet be left on the books of his trade union with the option of returning back to his trade?—That would not be the case. It is to the highest interest of the trade unions not to pay men who are working elsewhere. That would be a very serious offence.

98854. (Mrs. Webb.) But you say that he has run out of benefit, so he would not be paid?—No, not in that case.

98855. How long do the trade unions keep a man who has run out of benefit on their books?—Of course, that varies according to the union.

98856. Eventually he runs out altogether, I suppose?—Yes.

98857. Therefore, you would not, as a matter of fact, have in your statistics all the men who have ever belonged to a trade union, and who have run out of it?—No; we should only have those who are still on the books, although they have run out of benefit.

98858. Is there any intermediate list?—In some cases the trade union will be looking for work for the man. He is on their books, they know he is unemployed, and some unions act as a sort of labour bureau. Take, for instance the boilermakers; they know the man is out of work and they are looking for work for him, although they are paying him. It is only when there is strict proof that the man is really unemployed that they return those figures to us at the end of the month, knowing that he is unemployed. The trade unions, knowing our system so well as they do, would never enter a man to us as unemployed if they knew he was employed in any other industry.

98859. (Mr. Bentham.) Seeing that they are not paying unemployed benefit in the case supposed, they may lose sight of the man and he may quite possibly be employed unknown to them?—There would be very few such cases, I believe. Of course, it would be all wrong. It would be wrong of the trade union secretary to report those cases to us, and it would be wrong of us to include them in our figures, if we had any idea that the men were employed elsewhere.

Inclusion in
Board of
Trade statistics
of men who
have run out
of benefit but
who are still
on the union
books.

98860. (*Chairman.*) Practically all the trade unions you deal with, I suppose, with scarcely an exception, relate to skilled industries?—Yes, mostly.

98861. I am taking the coal industry as a skilled industry?—Certainly.

98862. (*Mrs. Webb.*) Take these two classes, the men who have run out of benefit, and the men who have never joined a trade union for one reason or another; are not they very much more often unemployed than the trade unionists?—That depends on the different trades.

98863. Take engineering?—There, if a man has ceased to belong to the union, or he is a non-unionist, he may work at some place at a lower rate of wages than the trade union would allow him to work, if he were a member.

98864. He might do it, of course?—He is bound to exist. He cannot get unemployed benefit, and he is bound to feed his family, so he might get employment somewhere at a lower rate of wages.

98865. I know he might?—Therefore, that man would be in work when a unionist would not be in work.

98866. I admit that that is a theoretical possibility; but I was dealing merely with the question of fact. My experience in investigating trade unions is that the trade unionist has much more regular employment, and I rather want to ask you whether that is what you think?—I do not think I could express an opinion about that I think there are pros and cons. I do not think it is proved that a non-unionist is a worse or a better worker than a union man. He can take work anywhere he likes; he has got an open market for his labour, and if he chooses to take a low wage, he can. I do not think, therefore, I can answer you definitely; I do not think the point has been proved.

98867. Admitting that, I want your opinion?—I should not like to express an opinion about it. I think that there again different circumstances would apply to different trades.

98868. You do find at the distress committees that among the applicants there are more non-unionists out of work in a given trade than unionists; I do not know whether that is an indication?—Of course in some occupations the non-unionists greatly outnumber the unionists. There is another element, which would support your view, I think, namely, that the trade unionists find work for their people.

98869. Yes, that is another argument?—That would be a point which would support your contention. As I say, I think that there are pros and cons on both sides. I think it is a very arguable point.

98870. (*Chairman.*) Would you say that the return of unemployment as regards these skilled trades made by the trade unions was rather under or over?—Do you mean as regards the whole of the country?

98871. No, I mean as regards each particular trade. For instance, would you say that the return given by the trade unions relating to one skilled occupation was an index of the unemployment in their trade not only of their own members, but also of those persons who are not unionists?—That I do not think I could say; I do not think that has been proved.

98872. Now going outside trade unions and skilled occupations, the amount of unskilled labour dependent on skilled labour varies very much according to the different trades, of course?—Certainly.

98873. Take, for instance, shipbuilding, there would be a large number of unskilled persons dependent on that, I suppose?—Yes.

98874. But taking engineering other than shipbuilding, there would be a much lesser number, I suppose, dependent on that?—That is so.

98875. So that your figures do not pretend to be an index as regards the amount of casual unemployment or unskilled unemployment connected with the different trades?—That is so. I think that in bad times the unskilled are equally affected with the skilled. Of course, as you say, you have got to take each individual trade; but taking the problem as a whole, if you have the output of the country decreased, the dock labourers suffer, because they have less to take off and put on ships;

and it equally affects shipbuilding, because people want fewer ships, and there are fewer people making boilers; it also affects engineering. When harder times come, people put off buying new machinery, and they put off repairing their machinery. I think a time of depression affects all trades, and it is very difficult to say that it affects the unskilled more than the skilled. But I think you notice the unskilled man more because he goes down say to the docks and tries to get employment of the character which a man with strong arms and strong back can undertake; so the unskilled men drift down there, and they are therefore much more in evidence. The textile worker or the coal miner, if out of work, hangs about his own town with his hands in his pockets and waits till better times come. Coal miners in bad times sometimes do go on to the farms, if they can get work there.

98876. Coming to the regular occupations, such as railway employment and agriculture, of course, as their name implies, they are not subject so much to fluctuation?—That is so. Agriculture has not been subject to much fluctuation since 1894, indeed since then agriculture has not had any unemployment to speak of. Up to then, at any rate from 1890 to 1894, there was a lot of unemployment, and, in fact, I went in the winter of 1894 to try and count them.

98877. It was a bad winter then?—Yes.

98878. I suppose one may assume that as regards the regular occupations such as agriculture and railway employment, the reduction of employment in bad times is less than it would be in these other trades?—Yes, certainly.

98879. There is no doubt about that, I take it?—No, I have no doubt about that. It applies also to coal mining and cotton, but particularly to agriculture in recent years. I think the amount of labour employed in agriculture has probably reached the minimum. Twenty years ago, when farmers were doing their farms better, and were trimming the hedges and all that sort of thing, in order to make the farms look smart and to give them a good appearance, that was the sort of work that they knocked off in hard times; and then the men hung about the villages till the farmers could afford to do their farms better again. But those extra men have all gone now, and the men they have now got on their farms they want; in fact, in many districts they are afraid to give a man irregular work, because if they do he goes off and they do not get him back.

98880. Summing it up, would you think that the figures which are published by the Board of Trade tend to overstate or understate the amount of employment?—My own opinion is that we cannot get at the real facts until we count the unemployed in some way or another. I think we have got some trades in our figures which, on the whole, tend to accentuate the unemployment, particularly in bad times, and, therefore, we are on the high side. In the last year there has been some criticism upon why the unemployment has not gone down, seeing that our export trade has been so good. I find on going into the matter that the maintenance of the unemployment figure, is almost entirely due to building, shipbuilding, and the wood-working trades, which, of course, are dependent upon the building trade very largely. Those are the trades at present which are keeping our figures up; in the last three months, it has been due nearly entirely to the shipbuilding and the building, although, of course, the disputes in the engineering trade and the shipbuilding trades in the north have been responsible for a good deal of it.

98881. Taking foreign countries, I suppose you know something about the sources from which they get their statistics of information; do you think they get their figures on a unemployment-broader basis than we get ours?—No, I do not. I have got a memorandum here which we drew up some time ago, which at present the Board of Trade have not suggested we should put in, but I am sure you will not mind it if we do put it in. I should be very glad to put it in. (*See p. 521 of Cost of Living in German Towns [Cd. 4032, 1908].*)

98882. We should be very glad to receive it.—It is on the system of the collection of foreign statistics. We have gone into the whole question of the German statistics, comparing them with ours and trying to get at the relative value of them; the same with the French and Belgian statistics. Generally speaking, our percentages and the German percentages are not comparable at all.

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German
trade unions
and unem-
ployed
statistics.

I cannot express any opinion as to whether the German figures of actual unemployment should be higher or lower than ours, but I do think, that ours are a much better indication than the German. There does not seem to be so strong an inducement for the German workman to give his name in to a trade union as unemployed as there is for our trade unionists. The German has to take longer to qualify, and he gets less benefit, and therefore, his name is on the books of his Union for a much shorter time. As the German unions have increased very largely, in fact enormously, in a short time, the consequence is that there is a very large number of men who belong to the trade unions who, though unemployed, are not qualified for benefit. Therefore the proportion of members of the German unions in regard to whom it is *certain* that they will report themselves, if unemployed, is probably considerably smaller than in the British unions. Moreover they have not got accustomed to going to their unions to the same extent as our people have. They travel in search of work elsewhere. The unions apparently have not so effective machinery for finding work for their members as have our British unions. Then the trade unions in this country are very kind-hearted, and there is no doubt, I think, that they do stretch a great many points in keeping the older men on their books. There are many men paid unemployed benefit in this country in certain unions out of kind-heartedness.

98883. They have got more like a superannuation allowance, or old-age pension, or that sort of thing?—Yes, they have. I should be very glad to put this paper in. It has never been shown outside our Department, and I think it is a valuable analysis. This is what the Imperial Statistical Office in Berlin have reported to us: "No comparison (between British and German figures), based on general percentages, can lead to any useful result, since the materials from which such percentages are constructed are different in the two cases"; and again "when it comes to international comparisons, general percentages are of no use whatever." A little further on in the paper we say, "The principal classes of persons who are likely to be omitted from the Returns owing to failure to report themselves are the following:—(a) Those who have not belonged to the union long enough to qualify for benefit; (b) those who have not been unemployed long enough to qualify for benefit; (c) those who have received the maximum amount of benefit to which they are entitled during the twelve months; and (d) those on travel in search of work, who do not happen to report themselves at one of the offices of the union on the day to which the returns relate." In Germany a larger number of the men travel as compared with our trade unionists. It shortly amounts to this, that the German Unions require a longer period for qualification, they give less benefit, and their unemployed are not so long on the books as our people are.

98884. Do the trade unionists who are travelling get allowances for travelling from their trade unions?—In some case, but they have got other systems for helping the men to get work in Germany.

98885. Is that one reason why the men do not report themselves?—Yes.

98886. We have had it in evidence that there is a method by which they get systematic help?—Yes, and that is one of the reasons why they do not report themselves. They have got other systems in Germany, perhaps better systems, and more organisation to enable the men to travel.

98887. Do the labour exchanges in Germany give material assistance as regards information about the unemployed to the German Government, do you know?—They do not provide figures for use in compiling percentages of unemployment.

98888. Going back to your paper on "Cyclical Trade Depressions," I see you have applied another test to these figures, and that is the test of the rise or fall of wholesale prices?—Yes, we have.

98889. That rather bears out, does it not, and coincides with, the figures that you have got as regards unemployment?—Yes.

98890. I assume that the Board of Trade are getting more and more information about unemployment; has the information which you have latterly received thrown

any doubt on your earlier sets of figures?—No. We are always trying to get more information, and we do get information from the great bulk of the unions who pay unemployed benefit. We have got, I think, recently about 40,000 more. Feeling the importance of the matter, in the last year or two we have dealt with individual trades not only on a statistical basis but by giving a general description, in fact in regard to all the leading trades we have an article in *The Board of Trade Labour Gazette* upon the state of employment in each trade, in which we give all the information that we can get. But we shall never really get at the bottom of this, unless we can give more inducement to the working man to register himself when he is unemployed. It is only a handful of men out of our industrial population who have got any inducement to go to any headquarters and register themselves as unemployed. If we can devise any scheme by which some inducement can be given to the unemployed, either through labour exchanges or through a system of insurance, to register themselves, then we can count the unemployed. But until we have that, it is a very difficult thing to define an unemployed man, apart from the man who gets unemployed benefit. That is a definite thing; he gets the unemployed benefit and he is registered as unemployed. But taking the 11,000,000, it is an extremely difficult thing to know what an unemployed man is. Cross the bridge to the Westminster Night Shelter, and see the men there. Every one of those men probably has earned something, or else he would not be there; he has got to pay 2d. for his bed, and 2d. for his supper, and 1½d. for his breakfast, and he has earned that or he has got it somehow. A large number of sandwich-men are in that Night Shelter; and they earn about 3s. 6d. or 4s. a week. Is such a man unemployed, or is he not? It is a very difficult question to say what an unemployed man is. The sandwich-man certainly is leading a very miserable existence, poor fellow, and he has not got the proper means to clothe himself and feed himself.

98891. (Mrs. Webb.) You mean to say that the unemployed figures are no index of the amount of under employment?—That is so.

98892. They are two quite separate things?—Yes.

98893. (Chairman.) In fact your figures are rather an attempt to define the quantity of employment that is available; would that be a correct way of putting it?—Our figures are an index of whether employment is going up or down, whether it is better or whether it is worse. One cannot say much more than that about our figures. I have never wished to put our figures forward on too high a plane. It is a very big business to get what we do monthly; some employers grumble now at giving us so much information, and it is also a considerable burden upon the trade unions to give these figures monthly.

98894. (Mrs. Webb.) Really these figures amount to nothing more than what the economists call a tendency?—That is so.

98895. (Chairman.) That is all you claim for them, in fact?—Yes, generally speaking.

98896. Have you got any statutory powers for obtaining information?—None, and I always hope that we shall not, unless it becomes absolutely necessary. I say that for the reason that we get an extraordinary amount of information from employers on every sort of statistical subject that we want. I have practically never known it refused. At the present moment we are doing a census of earnings, which is a very heavy burden upon the employers of this country. It is a voluntary matter, and there is only one trade in the whole country which is making any objection, and I think their objection will be overcome. By means of this census we shall get the individual earnings of over 3,000,000 workpeople in this country. That will all be given voluntarily. We get a great many other things besides. I may be wrong, but my own opinion is that if we once get compulsory Returns by Act of Parliament, the tendency of employers will be to say: "Now look here, we have got to do this, and we are not going to give you anything else." I think it may dry up the sources of a lot of voluntary information which we now get. Of course, if there arose some very serious reason why we ought to have compulsory returns of unemployment, we may have to risk it.

Informa-
as to un-
employ-
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Board of
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the union.

Impossibility
of getting
accurate
statistics of
unemployment
in absence
of registration
of workmen.

Board of
Trade figures
only show
the tendency
of unemployment.

Voluntary
returns of
unemployment
not compul-
sory.

98897. Assuming that employment was very good, and that in fact anybody could get employment who was capable of giving a return to his employer for the wages paid, have you ever made a calculation of the percentage there would still be of unemployed?—I think probably about 2 per cent. There will always be men out of work between jobs, or on account of breakdown in machinery, or on account of bad weather, etc.

98898. You rather start, so to say, with an irreducible minimum?—Yes, and I think probably that is a fair figure—about 2 per cent.

98899. (*Mrs. Webb.*) To go back to the question of your returns being an index of the amount of unemployment in the skilled occupations, have you considered the question of the nondescript man, because that is the person that I have found unemployed; that is to say, the man who has not been apprenticed, but who in good times has been put on work which is usually done by a trade unionist, and directly the times are bad off he goes? Whether he remains in the category of skilled men or not is very difficult to tell; but he is a non-unionist always, he has seldom been apprenticed, and in good times he has been promoted to work ordinarily done by skilled trade unionists?—On that particular point of being employed on skilled work, of course in many places there would be a strong trade union objection.

98900. In engineering shops have they got power to prevent it?—If he had not got into the saddle as a skilled man, I suppose he would have to go back to his former employment. Do you mean if he had not joined the union?

98901. Yes. It seems to me that in the engineering trade, and perhaps to some extent in carpentering, joinery, and brick-laying, there are a great number of people who in good times are skilled men and who in bad times are thrown back into the ranks of the unskilled, and either lose work themselves or are the cause of other unskilled men losing work?—They may be employed in very busy times, but of course it does not pay an employer to put a man on to skilled work who is not suited for it; I mean, times have to be very busy for an employer to take much risk of that sort.

98902. Surely, what is constantly happening in an engineering shop is that these men are being promoted from being mere machine-minders in a semi-skilled occupation to more skilled machine-minding?—That is so at times, and I have heard trade union people grumble at it.

98903. You said that in the cotton trade the custom was to reduce the hours in times of bad trade?—Yes; they do, by agreement, as you know.

98904. Is it not the case in the other trades of which you have got figures, the shipbuilding and the building trades generally (but shipbuilding particularly) and the engineering trade, that bad times mean an increased amount of overtime to the good men, the other men, trade unionists and others, being thrown out altogether?—I do not think that is so, as a general rule. (*Mr. McLeod.*) In repairing they have a good deal of overtime. (*Mr. Wilson Fox.*) They cannot help themselves (*Mr. McLeod.*) Even when trade on the whole is bad they have to work overtime on repairing, because the job has to be done within a given number of hours. (*Mr. Wilson Fox.*) That is always the case with a ship-repairer. He is irregularly employed, but may be earning a fair amount taking the year all round.

98905. Further than that, when we were looking into the general history of trade unionism we discovered, or thought we discovered, that the amount of overtime worked by trade unionists actually went up in bad times—that the hours were longer in bad times than in good times?—I do not think we have got any general information of that character. Do you mean that they discharge their inferior men and keep their good men?

98906. They discharge the inferior men and keep the better men on for longer hours, and in that way make more unemployment?—I do not think I have got any evidence of that; but it may be so. I do not wish to contradict your investigations.

98907. Now to go to the question of under-employment; in your opinion your figures are in no way an index of the amount of chronic under-employment, I gather?—No.

98908. And there is no way of ascertaining that?—There is no way so far as I know of ascertaining that. Of course, you have here in these papers what we state about the amount of wages paid monthly in certain trades.

98909. I am not talking about organised unemployment; I am talking about the disorganised unemployment?—You are talking about the man who goes about from place to place, and earns, say, 17s. a week.

98910. Yes. Is it not the fact that there is very much less under-employment in those trades with which you deal, namely, the skilled organised trades, than there is in the unskilled disorganised trades?—Yes, I think there is no doubt about that.

98911. It has been suggested to us that the problem has been changed in the course of the last thirty years from the problem of specific unemployment during times of bad trade to the problem of chronic under-employment in all times, but which is accentuated in bad times?—I do not know whether it has changed, but I think public attention has been drawn very much more to these questions in the last few years. I do not know that under-employment really has increased.

98912. You have no opinion about that?—No, but I think public attention has been much more drawn to it. I have no evidence on the point.

98913. Do you regard under-employment as the greatest problem before us?—Yes, I do; I think it is quite as bad as unemployment, perhaps worse; indeed it is worse when it is the case that the man is chronically under-employed, and his children are deteriorating and he himself is deteriorating. If a man is unemployed he may be unemployed for a year off and on in bad times, and then his trade may be all right for the next three or four years. I regard chronic under-employment as much the greater evil of the two.

98914. Have you any suggestions to make as to how we could deal with under-employment?—The only way of dealing with under-employment is to find more work for under-employed people; that means to say, that you would have to increase the output of the country somehow, or else to decrease the amount of work other people are doing and give the under-employed a share of it. Those are the only two ways I know of of giving people who are at present under-employed more work—taking some of the work away from somebody else and giving it to them, or else obtaining more capital in order to secure more production and so to give them more work.

98915. Is it not possible that there may be chronic under-employment, and yet a positive shortage of labour in certain industries? It may be a mere matter of organisation, and you may have the capital lying idle and wanting to be used, but there is not the right sort of labour on the spot, and yet elsewhere you may have a stagnant pool of under-employment?—It is a difficult thing for employers to organise their labour, in some trades because some trade unions raise objections as to the division of work. I am on the Fair Wages Clause Committee, and there we have had evidence to show that some trade unions are adopting this policy—where you have, say, a certain article, part of which can be made by less skilled labour, they claim that the skilled man should do the whole.

98916. That is the case of a tendency?—Yes. I asked a witness the other day, a trade union official from the Midlands, about that. He said: "I do not see why unskilled men or women should come in and do the easy part; I do the difficult part, and why should I not have some of the easy work as well and be paid at the same rate for it?" I said: "I suppose you want some of the fat as well as the lean," and he said "Certainly, that is my point." If that is largely carried out, the unskilled man will be squeezed out, and the skilled man will do at a high rate of wages what an unskilled man can do at a lower rate of wages.

98917. But that is not a very large cause, is it? It only operates in certain industries, I suppose?—It only operates in certain industries, but it is a tendency of the skilled man; it shows the jealousy of the skilled man of

Mr. Arthur Wilson Fox, C.B., Mr. F. H. McLeod, and Mr. W. Harbutt Dawson.

6 April, 1908.

Impossibility of ascertaining amount of chronic under-employment.

Under-employment to be dealt with.

Methods of dealing with under-employment.

Tendency of skilled men to exclude unskilled in certain ways.

Mr. Arthur
Wilson Fox,
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Mr. F. H.
McLeod,
and
Mr. W.
Harbutt
Dawson.

6 April, 1908.

the unskilled. It is natural from his point of view, because if he once let in the unskilled man and so had a lower-paid man in the place, that would tend to reduce the wages.

98918. The whole tendency of industry has been, has it not, to divide the work up and to get the unskilled part done by the unskilled man, as in the boot and shoe trade?—Yes, on the part of the employers, but the skilled men are opposed to it. I cannot say that the skilled man helps that system; he is against it.

98919. Of course he is. But you would not consider that the amount of action which is actually taken by the trade unions in that direction is in itself a cause of under-employment, would you?—No; I do not suggest that.

98920. To go back to this problem of under-employment, what I want is to get an opinion out of you whether we have stagnant pools of under-employed labour which might be drained and the labour used by the capital which now exists in the country in a desirable way; for instance, agriculture is short of labour at certain periods?—I have always been of the opinion that steps might be taken to get more men back to agriculture; and I think it is worth trying. I do not say there is a large number of men who know anything about farm work on the streets of London, in fact I am sure there are not, but there are a certain number of men in under-employment in London, I have not the least doubt, who could work on farms, and yet there is no scheme at all that has ever been tried for bringing the man who is in London in contact with the farmer or the farmer with him. I am perfectly certain that that ought to be tried. I know a farmer near me in Herts, who, when he wants a man, advertises in *Lloyd's News*. It is no use advertising in the Hertfordshire papers, so he advertises in *Lloyd's News*, and he gets his men through advertising in *Lloyd's News*. That is rather an interesting thing.

98921. (*Prebendary Russell Wakefield.*) Does he want the men for a long time?—Yes. He is a Scottish farmer, and he gets practically all his men by advertising in *Lloyd's News*.

98922. His regular men?—Yes, his regular men.

98923. (*Mrs. Webb.*) There are also times in farming when you require a surplus, are there not?—Yes, that is so. Where I live our extra labour is secured sometimes by sending a man out to stand on the high road and ask the tramps to come in and do the hay or lift the potatoes. It would be much better to have some system of getting efficient men down. There is plenty of work in the autumn, lifting potatoes, for a lot of able-bodied men.

98924. If that is true about farming it may also be true about the South Wales industries, which are said to be short of men?—Yes, it may be; but after all there are very few occupations which are entirely unskilled and which a man can take up who knows nothing about them. If I was out of work and tried to black boots at the corner of the street, I expect I should black them very badly for the first month or two, and I should be unskilled at it.

98925. But a man might be trained?—Yes, quite so. Still, there are very few alternative occupations that a man can turn to at once if he has been thrown out of work, and so tide himself over the difficulty.

98926. Still, he might be trained?—Yes, he might be trained. For instance, we send out people to Canada, and they live there and do very well—they have got to. I remember when I was on the committee inquiring into emigration I asked a Canadian witness how it was that when we sent people out to Canada with no knowledge of agriculture at all they learnt it and did well at it. His answer was: "There is no Poor Law there, sir," meaning that if they did not work they would have to be buried—there was no other alternative.

98927. Supposing you had a system of labour exchanges all through the country, do you think it possible to make those labour exchanges in a way a drainage system which should take the under-employed labour from one part of the country and put it where it was wanted?—My own opinion is that it should be tried. I do not think that

labour bureaux have ever had a fair trial, because they have been organised too economically. To my mind the man who could really run a labour bureau is a man who could deal with employers and interest them. Not as at all the labour bureaux I have seen, a clerk who only enters people's names in a book; that is not at all my idea of working a labour bureau.

98928. Could you give us your view of the way of working labour bureaux?—I think so much depends upon the man who works them. You want a man who knows something about economics and statistics; you want a sympathetic man; you want a man who will ingratiate himself with all the employers in the district who will be on good terms with them, who can write to them and say he has got men, and ask whether they can take some of them, and so on. Then if you can get it—and I think you can—you want a voluntary committee of some of the employers and representatives of the workpeople, meeting once a week, say, and helping you with your labour bureau. I am sure the employers will often help in these things if you will interest them. It is to the advantage of the employers of this country not to have labour deteriorating.

98929. Would it be possible to adopt the plan which is adopted, I think, in the mercantile marine, of a compulsory labour exchange? You have a compulsory labour exchange there, have you not?—I do not know whether you could make labour exchanges compulsory throughout the country.

98930. Could you do that as an alternative to a legal minimum period of employment?—It would be a good thing if you could get a system of insurance in this country, and run your insurance and your labour bureaux together. If you had your insurance office as well as a system of labour bureaux, where you could be paying the men some out-of-employment benefit as well as finding them work, you would then have a very big organisation and you might be able to deal with the question. I do not say that you can do it on national lines now—I think it is perhaps too big a scheme, because the English people do not like big changes too suddenly. But if you did have a big national compulsory insurance scheme, there is a great deal of money in 4d. per week per employee. Supposing, for instance, that each worker paid 2d. a week—supposing that he had it deducted from his wages—of course, probably all this sounds rather autocratic, and I think the time may not be ripe for it; but if every worker paid 2d. a week and every employer paid 1d., and the State paid 1d., and the municipality paid 1d., you would then get 4d., and that would give you a fund of about £9,000,000 a year, which is a large sum, for dealing with unemployment. You would then be able to give about 430,000 or 440,000 people 7s. a week through the year, and you would have about £1,000,000 over for expenses.

98931. You would have in that case to clear up your under-employment first, would you not? You could not allow a man to be at work one day, and idle the next, could you?—There are all sorts of difficulties, and there may be a serious trade union difficulty too.

98932. But the first thing to be done would be to clear up the under-employment?—You could not touch your sandwich-man who was earning 3s. 6d. a week. You could only touch the man who has been out of employment for some little time; he would have to be out of employment for, say, four or five days before he could claim the benefit.

98933. And you would not touch the casual man at the docks, or the casual man in the building trade?—You would not touch the casual man as long as he was getting two or three days' work a week; but if you could take in everybody else who really had been out of work, say, for four days consecutively you would be doing a very big thing.

98934. Would it not be better to begin by clearing up this under-employment first, and so getting a sound basis?—It is very difficult to know how you could do that. After all, the people who are in want of bread must be dealt with. However much under employment there may be, and however terrible a thing it may be if there is a great deal of it, after all the man who is absolutely out

Desirability
of getting
men back to
agriculture.

Question of
alternative
occupations
and training
of men
therefor.

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of work and has not got food to put into his children's mouths is the man who, for the moment, you have got to deal with.

98935. The man who is under-employed is not getting enough to put into his children's mouths, and he will always be under-employed; is he not almost a worse problem?—If you link-up such a system with your labour bureaux all over the country, and if you have a proper system of labour bureaux, that at any rate would be assisting people in getting work. That is why I should like to see the two things run together.

98936. (*Chairman.*) I understand that you would like to see the labour bureaux associated with employment rather than with unemployment?—With a system to get people work.

98937. And not to be associated only with the lowest class of work?—We hope to do something under the dock scheme for it. We have got a clause for setting up a labour bureau at the docks in Mr. Lloyd-George's Bill.

98938. (*Mrs. Webb.*) I gather that that will practically prevent under-employment, by preventing a man working for one day and then being off; you will dovetail the work?—Yes. (*Mr. McLeod.*) As far as possible.

98939. (*Chairman.*) This is rather interesting. I have not seen the Bill, but what is the clause—that all persons wanting labour shall apply to this bureau?—(*Mr. Wilson Fox.*) The clause amounts to this, that the authority shall promote the more convenient and regular engagement of the casual labourers.

98940. You have suggested a scheme, and you said it would produce very large results if every worker paid 2d. I assume that you would force everybody to go to the labour bureaux under that scheme?—I would exempt trade unions, if they wished it, who had a scheme of their own, and I would not force a man to get work at labour bureaux only. I would suggest that if he became unemployed he should take his card to the labour bureau which would be also his unemployment benefit head quarters, and his name should be entered for work at the bureau; but it would not be necessary for him to be there all the time and wait till the bureau had found him work. He would be at liberty to go and get work elsewhere; and it would be very much better for the bureau that the man should himself also look for work. I would suggest that he might travel as well. There is no reason why he should not travel, and when he came to the next town he could draw his 1s. a day or whatever he got, and if he could not get work there he could, in the same way, go on to another town.

98941. Where would the 2d. a week come from?—As long as he was employed his employer would deduct 2d. from his wages.

98942. The employer would do that?—Yes; I think that is the only way.

98943. (*Mrs. Webb.*) I was rather wondering whether it would be possible, in order to get over this great evil of under-employment, to say to every employer that he must either give a minimum period of employment, say a month or whatever period is thought desirable, or that he should do as they do at the Mercantile Marine Office, take his labour from the public exchange so that the public exchange could dove-tail the labour of the man?—You would give the employer that alternative?

98944. Yes, he would have the alternative to do one or the other?—You would say to him: "You have either got to employ a man for a minimum time—for a week say; or if you do not you must go to the exchange."

98945. Yes; and then the exchange could so dovetail the work that any man who was employed at all would have five days a week, or whatever the number of days that you thought fit. Is that not a possible social drainage scheme, so to speak?—Personally, I think there seems to be a good deal in that idea; but I dare say a great many employers would very much object to it.

98946. I would not force them to go to the exchange, if they were dealing with their labour in a way which was not demoralising?—I think there seems a good deal in your suggestion, if I may say so; but of course, if you do that, you are bound to give the employer a labour bureau pretty close to him.

98947. And you would be bound to keep a reserve of men, so to speak, on the premises, who could be drawn from?—Yes.

98948. You would have to have them of necessity there?—Yes. You could not cut off his supplies, so to speak, and you could not hamper him in his supply unless you gave him equal opportunities of getting labour quickly.

98949. That you do in the Mercantile Marine Exchange. You undertake to find a crew for every ship?—We offer both parties facilities.

98950. But you do not undertake to find a ship for every crew?—No. Of course, you would have to exempt certain trades—agriculture, for instance?

98951. Not necessarily. Why should not the farmer immediately write off to the nearest exchange?—Because you may get three wet days running in hay-time, and then a very fine morning, and then you would want to get a lot of men quickly in to come and turn the hay over at once.

98952. Surely the best way is to telephone or telegraph to the exchange and get them down?—You might lose half a day or more.

98953. (*Chairman.*) Would it be possible, do you think, to associate such an idea as Mrs. Webb has adumbrated (by which the employer must get labour at a certain exchange), with the option of getting labour outside provided he was made to pay an extra 2d., or whatever it might be, in the way of a stamp for each engagement?—Letting him contract-out for 2d.?

98954. Yes, if he chooses. Did you propose that the employer should pay the 2d. to the bureau direct?—Yes, 1d. for himself and 2d. for his employee.

98955. In the shape of stamps, as they do in Germany?—Either stamps or money. I think it would be a very big change, and I think there are all sorts of difficulties which would have to be discussed by a committee about the position of trade unions, and so on. I think that you must let a trade union contract out of such a scheme.

98956. (*Mrs. Webb.*) Out of the insurance scheme do you mean?—Yes, provided it could show that it had one of its own. I think you are much more likely to be successful by beginning the experiment with large boroughs, say, of over 200,000 or 300,000 inhabitants. You could start with a sort of trade committee, getting the employers and the workmen both in, doing it gradually. If you take the large boroughs and set up such a scheme as that, you will do much towards making a beginning; and if you do not make it compulsory to begin with, you can see how it will work. As you have seen, in the foreign voluntary schemes the class of people you want to get in do not come in; and if you do not have a compulsory scheme—and I think there are some objections to a compulsory scheme—you might at first get hold of a number of these men in under-employment, but when you get two or three mild winters their subscriptions will drop off, and you will find that it is only when the hard time comes that they want to subscribe. That is the experience in these foreign cases.

98957. That rather points to a compulsory system, does it not?—It does.

98958. (*Chairman.*) I suppose you would say it was essential, would you not, to any scheme of this sort, however it was started, if it was to be a success, that you should interest both employees and employers?—Yes.

98959. And, if possible, give them some control?—Yes. If you have got an insurance scheme connected with the bureau, and if you could get a committee to meet once a week or fortnight, composed of the employers and representatives of the municipality and of the trade unions, I think it might be done. The State would, I think, have to pay something, but it would be cheap at the price if it could get rid of the greater part of the unemployment question, and the municipality should, I think, have to pay something. Of course, the workman would have to be educated up to the point of paying 2d. a week, in order to insure his family against starvation in bad times.

Mr. Arthur Wilson Fox,
C.B.,
Mr. F. H. McLeod,
and
Mr. W. Harbutt Dawson.

6 April, 1908.

Desirability of allowing trade unions to contract out of labour exchange insurance scheme.

Desirability of giving interest and control to employers and employed.

Mr. Arthur Wilson Fox, C.B., Mr. F. H. McLeod, and Mr. W. Harbutt Dawson.

6 April, 1908.

Question of payments by workmen and by employed under labour exchange insurance scheme.

Deterioration caused by under-employment.

Question of regularisation of labour at docks.

The London unemployed.

98960. (Mrs. Webb.) You cannot get that from the under-employed man, can you?—The State might help him a little bit. It is not a very big thing for the State to pay $\frac{1}{2}$ d.; then the municipality would pay $\frac{1}{2}$ d., and then the employer and the workman have both got some inducement, at any rate, to subscribe. I think the employer might object to paying 1d. for each man per week. He would say: "I have now to pay for workmen's compensation, and under this unemployment scheme I am going to be hit as a rate-payer and taxpayer as well." On the other hand, I think the employer has got some direct responsibility to his workmen; he has got the responsibility of properly organising labour so that his workmen can be employed and will not deteriorate. It is a very great advantage to him that his labour should not deteriorate. Undoubtedly employers in this country have a very great interest in their labour not deteriorating.

98961. (Chairman.) Would you go so far as to say from your experience that the want of organisation in certain branches of employment has led to the physique in that employment deteriorating?—No, I cannot say that. Of course employers might tell one to mind one's own business, and might say they know their own business better; still, I think that in these trades where labour is not organised, in the case of the docks labour must deteriorate both morally and physically if a man is idle two or three days a week; he becomes an idle man, his habits become dilatory, and then he does not care.

98962. I will put it in another way: In your judgment must under-employment tend to deteriorate the physique?—I have no doubt about that. You have only got to go into a night shelter to see that.

98963. (Mrs. Bosanquet.) Could not the employers in casual and season trades be rated at a higher rate than others, in order to put pressure on them to regularise their trades?—They might be, but of course it would be very difficult. Take the docks, for instance; there are men hanging about there for perhaps a couple of days before they can get any work. Then a ship comes in to be unloaded, and they are working perhaps almost twenty-four hours at a stretch. It is very difficult to organise that sort of thing—it is extremely difficult from the employer's point of view as the ship has got to be cleared and sent out at once; but I think that with a proper labour bureau at the docks you could minimise a great deal of that. I will tell you what you could do—you could get rid of a lot of wretched poor people hanging about there who have never any chance of getting work, if you get a proper registry and there is a capable superintendent disseminating the labour all round the docks. A lot of these poor creatures who cannot properly be employed sometimes do get employment now, but we they will be staved out of it then; and then shall get another problem, and we shall have to deal with these men, but first, let us get them out of the ruck there. Sift the men at the docks, and then you will get the men who remain at the docks employed much more regularly.

98964. (Mrs. Webb.) So that if it were possible by any system to get everybody who is at work permanent employment, and then have a residuum with which you would have to deal, you would prefer that?—Much; it is a problem we could then deal with more easily, but I deprecate an able-bodied man being under-employed and being mixed up with these men who are what I call our social difficulty.

98965. (Prebendary Russell Wakefield.) They are men who could not be dealt with by any system of labour exchanges or anything else?—That is so. Remember, that in these unemployed statistics of ours, we are dealing with men who are artisans and who are ready to work when they are called upon, men who belong to a regular class of manual labour. But when you are dealing with the unemployed in London you are not dealing by any means wholly with the artisan who is ready to do work, and can do work when he has the opportunity; you are dealing with a vast number of people who by their own fault or their misfortune—illness, dishonesty or whatever it may be—perhaps they have all had their chance and some of them have missed it, and have had very hard lines too, I daresay—you are dealing with that class of men who do not belong to the industrial

class, you are dealing perhaps with the actor, you are dealing with the clerk, you are dealing with the school-master, you are dealing sometimes even with the clergyman, or the solicitor. They are not the artisan class, but they are the social failures. They are not the class Mrs. Webb is speaking of, but this class of man is all mixed up at present among the under-employed class, and he has nothing whatever to do with our trade union figures of unemployment.

98966. (Mr. Bentham.) Will you refer to your memorandum entitled "The Growth of Trade Unions, with Particular Reference to the Payment of Unemployed Benefit?" (See Appendix No. XXI. (C)). On p. 4 you give a list of the 747 unions paying unemployed benefits in 1906, and in order to construct Table IV. on the next page you take out of those, seventy of the principal unions which have paid one or more forms of unemployed benefit every year, also sixteen unions which have paid one or more forms of unemployed benefit in some years only, and in addition fourteen unions which have paid no unemployed benefits in any year. Do you consider those 100 unions the principal unions of the respective groups?—Yes, they are, as far as we can get the figures from them.

98967. In Table II. we see that the number of unions which did not pay unemployed benefit in 1906 amounted to 414, their total membership being 649,306?—Yes, that is so.

98968. These fourteen unions seem a very small fraction of the whole, in fact in one set of unions, that is mining and quarrying, there are unions with a membership of 319,262 paying no unemployed benefit at all. Which were the fourteen unions which you selected in Table IV. —Do you think they are over-represented?

98969. It seems to me that the fourteen principal unions, if they are taken as the principal unions, which do not pay unemployed benefit, ought to show a much larger membership than Table IV. shows?—(Mr. McLeod) We have to give the figures over a series of years, and we cannot pick them out so as to get an exact statistical proportion, because some of the unions do not keep their accounts in the same detail as the others.

98970. If that be so, would not the value of the return be very much reduced?—(Mr. Wilson Fox.) I think we are giving you all we can get from the trade unions. (Mr. McLeod.) We are comparing the same unions over the same series of years.

98971. In Table IV. will they be exactly the same unions that you have taken right away from 1892 to 1906?—Yes. One of our difficulties has been to get a continuous record of that time.

98972. Table IV. shows that there is a growth of 43·2 per cent. in the membership of the unions which pay unemployed benefit every year, of 32·8 per cent. in the membership of those unions which pay unemployed benefit in some years, and of only 22·9 per cent. in the membership of those unions which have paid no unemployed benefit; and I see since the year 1901 there has been a reduction in the membership of those fourteen unions which pay no unemployed benefit, and indeed the numbers have actually gone down considerably, whilst during the same years in those unions which pay unemployed benefit the numbers have risen considerably. What is the explanation of that?—It would vary with the different unions. You would have to consider them in detail.

98973. There is not a list of these 100 principal unions anywhere in this document, is there?—(Mr. Wilson Fox.) No, but we can let you have the names if you like. (See Appendix No. XXI. (C)).

98974. The value of these returns is somewhat problematical if we do not get the names of the unions and the number of members in each union, because one particular union might be responsible for the whole of this reduction?—It might make a considerable difference of course.

98975. If, for instance, there has been a strike, or any disturbance during any of these years in those same fourteen unions, that again would upset the figures?—It would have to be a strike in which the union was crippled very much. You see this table gives the membership of unions which either pay unemployed benefit or do not pay unemployed benefit. If there was a very disastrous strike and the unions, owing to that reason,

did not pay, and could not pay, unemployed benefit, that would affect the figures of course.

98976. The point is this; in times of a strike in a union where no unemployed benefit is paid, the secession of membership would be greater than in a union where there is unemployed benefit paid?—That would be so when the strike fails. (*Mr. McLeod.*) Unemployed benefit tends to keep the members together; it makes them very reluctant to go.

98977. It seems by these figures that a great deal of importance would attach to the payment of unemployed benefit?—Yes, certainly..

98978. Do you think any inducement in that respect—by way of grants say—would be advisable with regard to those unions which at present do not pay unemployed benefit?—(*Mr. Wilson Fox.*) I think that would be an inducement to men to join. Take, for instance, the Gasworkers' Union, which is a large union, of which Mr. Will Thorne is the secretary. They do not pay any unemployed benefit because they have got a class of men in their union who is earning low wages, and who does not subscribe. I think it would be a very good thing if the Gasworkers' Union did pay unemployed benefit, and if there were some inducement for them to do so I should be very glad to see it, because they are just the class of men you want to get in and who are affected by unemployment.

98979. Do you look with any favour on the principle of subsidising these unemployed benefit funds?—I would rather see them self-supporting; but the machinery would cost so much, particularly if you had a labour bureau connected with them, that I do not think, at any rate to begin with, that they would be likely to be self-supporting. I think there is some argument for subsidising them to some extent, but not to a large extent. I think in all these questions somebody has got to take the lead; we are in a great many difficulties about unemployment and poor people and pauperism, and all the rest of it, because nobody takes a lead in these things. You want organisation—half the battle is in organisation; and in some cases the State or the Municipality has got to do it. But it all costs money, at any rate to begin with, and you cannot start a big scheme without some initial expenditure as a rule.

98980. Of course these unions would be more or less unions of unskilled labour?—Yes.

98981. And therefore their membership would be more likely to be interfered with by fluctuations in trade. If they could inaugurate a system of unemployed benefit which might be subsidised in part by the State, there would be less fluctuations in the membership of these particular unions, would there not?—If they were subsidised?

98982. If they paid unemployed benefit—and I am assuming that they would pay unemployed benefit now, if they could?—Certainly.

98983. If they were aided they would be enabled to do so?—Yes, they might.

98984. Would it not favour the growth of unions for the unskilled class if part of the unemployed benefit was paid out of the Exchequer?—Yes; and that is one argument for a compulsory system. I do not say that I am particularly in favour of compulsion; but I say we have got the trade unions who have done a great work, but who, although they have got a voluntary system, have not dealt with the question over a very wide area. After all, there are 2,000,000 trade unionists, and we have only got 640,000 of those who are paying unemployed benefit relating mainly to the skilled trades; they have not covered the unskilled people, and one large union, which contains a great number of unskilled men, the gasworkers, have not got any unemployed fund at all, because they cannot afford it.

98985. We have been told by several witnesses that the inducement to join a trade union is not the unemployed benefit; but these figures do not show that, do they?—No. These figures certainly show that where unemployed benefit is given the membership increases. Of course a great many of these trade unions have got other benefits. I suppose that one of the main reasons why men join trade unions is to keep their wages up, I mean to say, it is a fighting organisation; but, of course, it is

very difficult to say in what proportion that reason influences them.

98986. That consideration applies exactly the same to those unions which do not pay, does it not?—That is so, but then it is these large unions which can best afford to support their men on a strike.

98987. (*Mr. Chandler.*) Is it not the fact that the unions you have selected do something more than pay the unemployed benefit?—Yes; and I have just said they do.

98988. So that the aggregate help that they give their members, apart altogether from the unemployed benefit would be an attraction?—Yes. There is sick-pay and other benefits.

98989. Probably this group of fourteen in your Table IV. have been formed largely to provide a war chest for strikes and so on?—I suppose so. It is an organisation which has for its main object the increasing of their pay—that is what it comes to. If they can do it without fighting, they do it.

98990. Does not your experience prove that where there is no agitation going on, the numbers generally decrease?—Yes, that is so. The railway people joined Mr. Bell's union, the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, by hundreds during the agitation last year.

98991. (*Mr. Bentham.*) It would be interesting to have the list of the unions you have promised, and the membership?—If the Chairman will allow us, I believe it is not too late to amend these papers by adding the list. (*See Appendix No. XXI. (C).)*

98992. The Return of unemployment which is published monthly in the *Labour Gazette* does not cover these same 100 unions, does it?—No.

98993. It only covers those unions which pay unemployed benefit?—That is all. We have got to take what we can get.

98994. The figures of unemployment then may not apply to precisely the same unions?—Our unemployed figures do.

98995. Do they?—Yes. We always get them in.

98996. Suppose there is a strike or a lock-out in a very important union in a group, those men would be excluded, would they not?—Yes, all of them.

98997. And the percentages would be taken on the reduced numbers of members?—Yes.

98998. But excluding that number might materially affect the percentage of the remainder, might it not?—Yes; but then on the other hand there is another element introduced, namely, that the strike throws out a large number of men indirectly in other trades in the district. If, say, the engineers are out, it may throw out other people in the district, and that would swell our unemployed figure.

98999. Will you turn now to your Memorandum on "Cyclical Trade Depressions?" (*See Appendix No. XXI. (B).*) On p. 5 you give a table based on continuous returns from sixteen unions showing the membership and percentages of unemployed from 1873 to 1906. How are these percentages arrived at? Is it by taking the percentages of each of the sixteen unions, adding them together and dividing by sixteen?—(*Mr. McLeod.*) We take the total number of members, the total number of employed, and we get the real average percentage in that way.

99000. Then the percentage is a percentage of aggregate numbers?—Yes.

99001. And not arrived at in the way the Chairman pointed out you dealt with the Table on the iron trades?—No. (*Mr. Wilson Fox.*) Those are all weighted figures.

99002. (*Mr. Chandler.*) The statistics compiled by the Board of Trade I know throughout the country are generally accepted and used as indicating the measure of unemployment in various trades; but I think this morning you have rather cast some doubt upon the value of these conclusions?—Do you mean as regards quantities?

99003. Yes; I do not doubt the facts?—As to the question whether over a series of years employment is going up or down, I think they are quite a good indication.

Mr. Arthur Wilson Fox,
C.B.,
Mr. F. H. McLeod,
and
Mr. W. Harbutt Dawson.

6 April, 1908.

What trade unions are covered by Board of Trade unemployment statistics as published in *Labour Gazette*.

Method of compiling certain percentages of unemployed from 1873 to 1906.

Extent to which Board of Trade statistics can be taken as an index of unemployment generally.

Mr. Arthur
Wilson Fox,
C.B.,
Mr. F. H.
McLeod,
and
Mr. W.
Harbutt
Dawson.

6 April, 1908.

99004. You have mentioned the building trade as an illustration; your Returns, of course, are very meagre, inasmuch as they only refer to trade unions in the building trade which pay unemployed benefit?—That is so.

99005. One would not think, therefore, that your figures afford any fair indication of the state of unemployment in the building trade?—You know much more about that than I do. My feeling about it is that it would not be fair to take the carpenters' and plumbers' percentage as an indication of the state of the whole of the building trade. It is possible for carpenters and the plumbers to be employed when the outdoor trades, I mean the masons and the bricklayers, are not employed; but of course in a prolonged period of depression they are also very considerably affected. They would not be affected, I suppose, very much in a short period of frost, as they might have work to go on with indoors.

99006. (Mr. Benthams.) But in taking the percentage of unemployment for the whole year, they would fall pretty much together, would they not?—Yes, if you take the whole trade together. If the building trade is bad, if people are not building houses, then there is no carpentering and joinery work to be done; but I suppose in a period of frost there would be a tendency for the carpenters and plumbers to be able to get more work than for the other men to do so.

99007. (Mr. Chandler.) Quite so, their work being inside; but as the trades are engaged in about equal proportions in the erection of buildings, taking a year's experience, the unemployed in the plumbers' and joiners' work being a given percentage, it is fair to assume that the bricklayers, the plasterers, and the labourers, would also have a very large percentage of unemployment, is it not?—Yes, but I should not like to go so far as to say that the percentages would be identical. I want to guard myself about this, because after all, we are taking carpenters and plumbers only in the building trade, which is itself one of the biggest trades in the country.

99008. (Chairman.) Still they would give an indication whether the building trade was going up or down, would they not?—Certainly; they might be, I suppose, a fair indication of what is going on in the whole trade.

How far
percentage of
unemployment
among
possible
trade
unionists can
be taken as
an index to
unemployment
among
non-
unionists.

99009. (Mr. Chandler.) Then again, your Returns of the unemployed are taken from those who are in receipt of unemployed benefit, and you have no means, I think, of knowing anything of the number of men who are out on the streets, and in the country with travelling cards, because they would not be returned as being in receipt of unemployed benefit?—That may be so occasionally, but not as a rule.

99010. They would tend to increase the number of the unemployed that you could show if you had those figures, would they not?—Yes, if one could get them, but they cannot be numerous.

99011. I think you said also that you question whether the percentage of unemployment in the ranks of non-unionists was any larger than that in the organised trade?—I said there is no proof of it. I would not like to say one way or the other. I should only be making a shot. (Mr. McLeod.) We have often discussed it in the Labour Department, and we cannot arrive at any definite conclusion, in the absence of any special inquiry, which, I think, would have to be a very big affair.

99012. (Chairman.) Is there much difference of opinion?—Yes, there is. (Mr. Wilson Fox.) I think there are arguments for and against. There are some reasons which induce one to think that non-unionists would be more unemployed than others; and on the contrary that unionists might in some cases be more unemployed than non-unionists.

99013. (Mr. Chandler.) My point—and I daresay it appeals to you—is this: From your experience of only the organised trades of this country, is there not a very fair chance that the non-unionists would show equally bad, if not worse, results?—Of course, it all depends on the trade. If the trade union is strongly represented in one trade, then the non-unionist in that trade has not got such a great chance as in some other trades, where he has a much bigger chance, because he can go and get work by under-selling the union men.

99014. That would hardly apply to the trades with which you deal in your Returns, would it?—There are some to which it would apply; for instance, there are some engineering employers who have hardly got any trade union men, strong as the Engineers' Union is. A man would go to a shop like that and get work—I mean it is possible for him to do it—whereas a trade union man could not go there; if he travels and comes to a place where there is a strike, he cannot go in there.

99015. I am only anxious about the statistics of the Board of Trade, because in my opinion they are a very fair reflex of unemployment of the country, and I was therefore sorry this morning to find that there is a doubt cast upon them?—The doubt I am throwing upon them is, that I do not think anybody is justified in applying the 4 per cent. or 5 per cent. or whatever our figure is, to the 11,000,000 workpeople of this country; and I do not think they ought to do it. I do not think you ought to take the figures for these 600,000 people and apply them to the 11,000,000, and I do not think statistically you could do it. But these figures, I think, are a very good indication of whether employment is going up or down; and I think we do get some very excellent information as to unemployment in certain trades. In some of these trades the figures are a very good indication as to unemployment, but I think some people want to read into our figures much more than they can really bear. Of course, I do not want to pour too much cold water upon our own figures.

99016. (Mr. Benthams.) Is there anything in the statement we hear sometimes that trade union secretaries do not always send to the Board of Trade the correct number of those unemployed—for the reason that they do not want the state of their trade to be known?—No, I do not think so.

99017. You really do not think so?—No; I do not think there is anything in that at all.

99018. (Mrs. Bosanquet.) I suppose the membership of a trade union is a very varying quantity, is it not, and the numbers go up and down?—In the year do you mean?

99019. Over a series of years?—The numbers fluctuate as between bad times and good, and they also fluctuate during times of strikes and excitement.

99020. I suppose a small and select union would be likely to have a much smaller percentage of unemployment than a large union embracing most of the trade?—I do not know, and I cannot say that. Take a union like the boiler-makers. They have a monopoly, so to speak; I do not say they dictate their own terms, but they can come to something near it, because people must have boilers and they have got to be made in a very skilled way. There is a great deal of unemployment among boiler makers if ship-building is bad.

99021. But then that would include the whole trade. Supposing a small union increased its membership very much, it would be likely also to increase its percentage of unemployment, would it not?—It is very difficult to answer that definitely.

99022. Seeing that the membership has increased considerably every ten years, it occurred to me that that might be responsible also for the increase in the percentage of unemployment—quite apart from the actual facts as to unemployment?—I should not like to say that. I have no positive information on the subject, but should not think that it was probable.

99023. You do not think it is likely that they have taken in a set of men who have added to the unemployment statistics?—I cannot definitely say.

99024. In regard to the question of universal insurance, it occurred to me from one table you have given us, showing the way in which different employments were busy at different times of the year, taking all trades, there would be no one season in which there was a great mass of unemployment as compared with the others, probably?—I think probably the best way to begin an insurance scheme would be to do it by trades, if you can. Go to a large town and try to organise a trade there, and get an insurance scheme in that trade; or you might get two or three trades to combine. If you could do it by trades I think you would be able to do it better than by having a general unemployment scheme. You would

Suggestion
as to the
unemployment
secretaries
not making
correct
return of
members
employed.

Fluctuation
in membership
of trade
unions and
possible
effect on
unemployment
statistics.

Best method
of statistics
of unemployment
yet
insurance
scheme

thus come to know the risk of unemployment in each trade, and the State, if it made a contribution, would be able to ascertain what the risk of unemployment was in each trade.

99025. Supposing you worked two trades together, one of which was very busy in summer and the other very busy in winter, you would then want a smaller fund to work upon, would you not?—That is just one of the advantages of doing it by trades, it seems to me. Of course, the contribution would be made accordingly. But I think that if you had a national system, some of the workmen who were in regular work or very little out of work might object to having their funds taken to pay for men who were greatly out of work.

99026. Do you think from the figures you have given us that one could say safely that, taking all industries together, the bulk of unemployment would be about the same all the year round?—Do you mean on an average,

99027. Yes?—No, I do not think so. Certainly from the autumn to Easter, when in fact the weather is bad, the outdoor trades are always affected.

99028. You have a very large trade, the coal mining which is the busiest in the winter?—Yes.

99029. And you have the docks busiest in the winter?—Yes—generally. In the last year or two the coal mines have been busy all the year round, but the tendency is for them to be busy in the winter. I should say there is certainly more employment in the winter with them. But take the building trades; outdoor painting, and repairing, and so on, do not begin till about April 1st; and, after all, the building trades are our difficulty in most of the big towns, and even in the smaller towns. When the building trade begins to get busy, we expect to see the men who have been hanging about getting employment.

99030. Is your Paper, "On the Extent to which Female and Juvenile Labour has displaced Adult Labour in the last Twenty Years" (see *Appendix No. XXI. (H)*), based on the census returns?—I think I am right in saying that it is.

99031. In that case it is not liable to any of the doubts that occur on some of the other papers, because the results shown there are absolutely certain, I take it?—So far as the census is right, I suppose that our figures are right. But which is the particular table to which you are specially referring?

99032. Take, for instance, the statement at the beginning that female labour is not increasing in proportion to male labour?—That is from the census.

99033. The figures show a negative result, that female labour is not displacing adult male labour?—Yes, that is so.

99034. (*Miss Hill.*) Some suggestions have been thrown out, and I did not quite gather whether you agreed with them, to the effect that the responsibility of providing permanent employment might have thrown very much on the employers. That must be only within limits as there must be irregular labour, and irregular demands for labour, surely?—There must always be a margin between busy seasons and slack seasons, between good times and bad times. You have the seasonal trades, for instance.

99035. At the docks one would like to see employers endeavour to regularise the labour as much as possible, but you could not seriously propose to rate them higher if they had not a continual demand for labour, could you?—No, I do not think so. I think it is largely a question of organisation, and I think that has been felt at the docks. I think the employers there will welcome any system of giving the men more regular work and themselves a quicker supply. If you had a bureau there and a system of telephones, with people there selecting the men and getting a certain stamp, the employers would, I believe, welcome it.

99036. But, of course, there must always be irregular work. Taking quite small things, if your cook is ill and you want a charwoman for a day, you cannot be fined because you do not engage her for a month, can you?—No.

99037. If you want a shelf put up and you send for a joiner to come and put it up, you cannot be fined because you do not employ him for a month, can you?—No.

99038. Was not that what was suggested?—I did not suggest it.

99039. I know you did not, but I did not understand whether you agreed with it. In the same way you could not really compel people, could you, to take their workpeople necessarily from a labour bureau? They must have a selection, and if they know people that they wish to employ you could not make it compulsory that they should go to the bureau, could you?—I understood the question was whether you should compel a man to employ a casual labourer, say, for a week, or if he could not do that, to go to a labour bureau.

99040. (*Mrs. Webb.*) You have got that in the Mercantile Marine, that is to say, no employer in the Mercantile Marine can employ men in that trade except at the exchange?—That is so.

99041. (*Miss Hill.*) There are many employments in which you wish to select your own employees?—Yes, I suppose there are. But if I want a servant and go to a registry I can select my cook; of course I can see a couple of hundred if I like.

99042. You may know a cook who is not on the list of the labour bureau, and you may prefer to select her, and then you ought not to be compelled to go to the bureau?—But it would be possible even then to engage her through a labour bureau.

99043. (*Mrs. Webb.*) But you do that in the case of the Mercantile Marine? There they have absolute power of selection, but they must do it through the exchange, is that not so?—(*Mr. McLeod.*) The captain selects his own men, but they have to engage them in the presence of the superintendent.

99044. It has to be done in the superintendent's presence?—They have to be engaged in his presence, but the superintendent has nothing whatever to do with selecting the men.

99045. But it has to be done in the exchange, or whatever you call it?—Yes, the signing on.

99046. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) In reference to the table in the Appendix to your Paper on the Method of Compilation (see *Appendix No. XXI. (A)*), the yearly mean of the unemployed does not necessarily show, does it, what is the actual problem to be dealt with in respect of the persons who are unemployed?—(*Mr. Wilson Fox.*) No, not at all.

99047. That must depend very largely, must it not, on the interval of unemployment in the particular cases?—Yes, certainly.

99048. Have you any figures showing what that unemployment was?—Yes. Of course, we have not got much, but what we have is, I think, valuable. In the case of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers, there was an investigation made in the books of the Leeds and Manchester branches from 1887 to 1895, which showed that, taking the mean of those years, 1887 to 1895, 13 per cent. of the total membership were idle for from three to four weeks, 4·65 per cent. were idle for from four to eight weeks, 2·76 per cent. were idle for from eight weeks to twelve weeks, and 9·27 per cent. were idle for over twelve weeks.

99049. They were not necessarily continuous weeks, I suppose, or were they?—No, these periods were not necessarily continuous. Those are the sort of figures that you are alluding to, and we should like to have them very much extended.

99050. There is not very much information, I suppose on that point, is there?—No, there is not; but we got that out from those books.

99051. (*Chairman.*) That I understand was for one particular union?—They were the books of the Leeds and Manchester branches of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers.

99052. Now we come to the question of insurance against unemployment, and I should like to state what I know is felt by the Commission generally; that we are very much indebted to the Board of Trade for the papers they have furnished us with: they have given us a great deal of useful information, and this particular paper on insurance against unemployment is admirably drawn, and is so good a paper that really I have very few questions to ask you about it (see *Appendix No. XXI. (K)*)?—I may say that as regards the foreign information much

Mr. Arthur Wilson Fox, C.B., Mr. F. H. McLeod, and Mr. W. Harbutt Dawson.

6 April, 1908.

Question whether use of labour exchange should be made compulsory on employers.

Statistics of duration of unemployment among trade unionists.

Insurance against unemployment.

Mr. Arthur
Wilson Fox,
C.B.,
Mr. F. H.
McLeod,
and
Mr. W.
Harbutt
Dawson.

6 April, 1908.

of what I know I have learnt from Mr. W. H. Dawson, who has come with me here: he has been abroad so much and knows Germany so thoroughly, and has seen some of these schemes actually in work there and in other foreign countries, that he can tell you about it much better than I can. Of course, any question you like to ask me I will answer, but you have here a man who has seen the schemes at work first hand, while I only have it second hand.

99053. When we get to details perhaps I had better put the questions to Mr. Dawson, but looking at this paper as a whole, the difficulties of establishing anything like an effective insurance against unemployment are very well stated on p. 2. Having regard to the risks run in each trade it is desirable to get solidarity, but you cannot push more than a certain number of trades into one form of insurance on account of the inequality of the risk?—I think that is so, and that is why it would be better if it were done by taking trades as the basis, as is done by the trade unions.

99054. The second part, which is pretty clear I think, is that wholesale subsidies have promoted trade union insurance and increased their numbers, but it does not seem to at all have solved the question of insurance of the casual or unskilled classes against unemployment?—No, it has not, and that is where much of this has broken down. They have just subsidised the trade unions, which although it has many disadvantages is perhaps another argument in favour of compulsion: you may only be able to get these people in by compulsion.

99055. I see in Strassburg (we have had some specific information on that point which entirely confirms this paper) that although they have a labour exchange there thoroughly well organised, they have been obliged to abandon the idea of insurance against unemployment for the lower class of unskilled labour, and they have annual relief works?—That is so. (Mr. Dawson) The Department received a letter a few days ago from Strassburg, and in that letter we were told that the operation of this system during last year, the first complete year, had not led in the slightest degree to any increase in the members of the trade unions.

99056. So it had not that stimulus even as regards skilled organised labour?—No, it had not increased the number of members.

Desirability
of labour
registration
in conjunc-
tion with any
scheme of
insurance.

99057. I think in some previous statement you said that any system of attempted insurance ought to be associated with labour registration?—(Mr. Wilson Fox) It would be very much better, because then there is a distinct interest in finding men employment who are on the funds.

Berlin labour
exchange.

99058. I do not know if any of you three gentlemen have any special knowledge of the working of the labour exchange at Berlin?—Mr. Dawson has.

99059. Could you tell us a little more about it. They charge a registration fee: it is the practice of the employers to go to this labour exchange?—(Mr. Dawson) In most trades they do, but in other trades the employers maintain their own registry. For example, in the heavy iron industries, at any rate, the employers do not profess to use the labour exchange, but have their own office; at the same time it is found that the work people often register themselves at the town exchange, in their trade union, and at the employers' registry as well. Many of the Berlin trade unions are affiliated to the Central Exchange and have their registries there.

Tendency in
Germany not
to charge
registration
fees at labour
exchange.

99060. It is said here, it being a powerful organisation they charge a small registration fee?—That is done, but it is very unusual in Germany. The tendency now-a-days is not to charge anything; to have no fee.

99061. Do you think it at all chokes off applicants?—I do not think it has much effect: as a rule now-a-days where a fee is charged it is charged to the employer, and not to the workman.

Combination
of insurance
scheme with
labour
exchange in
Germany.

99062. This paper says: A definite scheme for the development of this plan into an organised system of insurance resting upon the practical control of the labour market by the Exchange has been proposed. Should you say that that idea is at all likely to be adopted?—Do you mean the combination of insurance with it?

99063. A combination of an organised system of insurance associated with the control of the labour market by the Exchange?—It is an idea which is very much

discussed in Germany at this time; but hitherto Cologne and Strassburg are the only places where the two have been united.

99064. I understand in Strassburg the Corporation, who have large public works, was able to put a certain amount of indirect pressure on the employers, so that the employers came into the Exchange?—Strassburg for many years has taken a lead in social reform work. It has provided these relief works for the last ten years, it is not a new thing to have distress works at Strassburg; they are only carried on during the winter.

99065 In Paragraph 3 there is a contrast drawn between the percentage of unemployed allowances met by public or voluntary grants as opposed to members' contributions, first, as regards the whole fund; lower down in the same paragraph it is pointed out that at Cologne, Berne, and Basle these funds provide for a class rather above the unorganised seasonal labour, but still unskilled, and that at the other places, Ghent, Antwerp, and Milan, the subventions were to the skilled? Of course, the system is different in different places; in Cologne, for example, the unemployment fund is not a municipal fund at all, but a private one, and that fund deals largely with the building trade, whereas under the Ghent system, the municipalities subsidise only the unions; any unions of any class of labour that care to apply.

99066. None of these systems have, as far as you know, been successful in developing insurance amongst the unorganised labourers?—The whole of them have failed in that respect; that is really the weak point.

99067. As far as I could gauge the Belgians have developed that system more than any other country?—But still they have failed to touch the unskilled.

99068. If we take part of the paper which relates to Belgium probably we shall deal with the most sustained efforts to deal with unorganised labour?—Yes.

99069. The circumstances existing at St. Gall shew that you cannot push the organised trades or industries beyond a certain point?—That is the difficulty; the St. Gall scheme was killed by two main reasons, one was that in the first place it did not sufficiently differentiate between the skilled and the unskilled men, so that the skilled men refused to pay for the unskilled; and it broke down because the method of collection required that the men should pay their contributions into the central office, and they would not do it, so the money could not be collected, and the scheme really became insolvent. It is no longer carried on upon the original basis.

99070. Coming to the Belgian system, I suppose the Ghent system is the best system?—That is the representative application of the system of subsidising trade unions.

99071. There the assistance given has developed trade unions and unemployed benefits?—To a small degree, I think you will find.

99072. Only to a small degree?—A very small degree indeed.

99073. I said trade unions, that is organised trades? Yes.

99074. I understood that they had been developed?—It is true that a number of societies were formed when the scheme was begun in order to claim the benefit, but since the beginning there has really been no further advance. That has rather disappointed the municipal authorities. They thought it would have led to a continued increase in the unions claiming the benefits, but there has not been that increase since the beginning.

99075. When we come to the other side, as regards the unorganised workmen, the system has been of very little use?—It has quite failed; indeed Strassburg is not trying that system at all, because it recognises there is no hope of doing anything with it, and it deals with such men by relief works.

99076. As I understand, the inducement that was adopted at Ghent was to give a very high rate of interest?—In the case of individual thrift, yes. That is what it really amounted to.

99077. Fifty to 75 per cent.?—It came to that.

99078. Such a scheme is perfectly impracticable here with our savings bank?—Yes. Even in Ghent it has been

decided to reduce that high amount to the individual savers. It was recognised that it was not fair to the others.

99079. You seem to have given a good deal of study to these questions; what is your idea about the result of your investigations and experience? Supposing you had a free hand, do you think it is possible to organise some system of insurance for the unskilled workmen?—I think that the system which Mr. Wilson Fox developed this morning of taking trade by trade and possibly trusting to a combination with the trade unions, as they find it to their interest, might be made to work if the proper encouragement was given. I think it would need a stimulus.

99080. Let us follow that out. You would have a labour exchange, I suppose?—That is very desirable. That is the counsel of perfection, but by doing that, of course, you greatly increase your machinery, and increase too the expense of administration.

99081. We will put that on one side. How would you start your scheme without any labour exchange?—For example, you might take any particular trade in a certain town and get them to organise, then get the work people to insure through their employers, and have a special fund for that trade.

99082. And make it compulsory?—It is of course a question of policy whether you would begin with compulsion or first try a voluntary scheme and gradually work towards compulsion.

99083. It has been stated in certain of the evidence and printed documents that have come before us that in Germany the workmen are very much more stationary than we are: that they stop in the same trade and do not move about from place to place?—I should be rather inclined to doubt that; certainly in some trades it is not the case. I think there is a very great deal of movement.

99084. Would you work through organised unions or would you set up a scheme independent of them?—That would depend, of course, as to whether the local trade unions were willing to join. I should imagine in many cases they would be quite willing to throw in with the trade scheme, otherwise it would have to be tried independently.

99085. It is based a little on the German scheme, I suppose, the employer deducting a certain amount from the wage?—That is so, as in the case of the German sickness and accident insurance scheme. That is really the only possible way of getting the workman to pay his contributions: you cannot expect him to go and pay his penny or two-pence a week at some central place.

99086. It is done by stamps, is it not?—I do not think it is necessary to employ stamps: the employer might pay each fortnight or month in money.

99087. To whom?—To the central fund.

99088. Assuming the trade unions took it up, would the employer be prepared to pay to the trade union funds? The trade unions could hardly claim that, but if the trade unions did not fall in, then I assume they would be able to claim the same subsidy that the State might give and still keep on their old fund.

99089. It is subsidy plus the employer making a certain deduction?—I should think it would be very doubtful whether the trade unions would like to stand out of a trade movement like this.

99090. Do you propose that the employers should add anything to this?—That is, I think, part of the scheme.

99091. Do you suggest that, Mr. Fox?—(Mr. Wilson Fox.) I suggest that the employer might be asked to pay one penny per man, but I think if a trade union stood out of such a scheme and had their own scheme they could not expect the employer to contribute towards that.

99092. The amount which he deducted from his employees I suppose would go to that fund?—Yes, but not his own. He would only subscribe to what would be a sort of State or municipal scheme.

99093. What was the idea?—That the contribution should be a contribution from the municipal authority or from the State?—(Mr. Dawson.) The idea that Mr. Wilson Fox, I think, expressed was that both should con-

tribute, the State in the first place and the municipality, also because the municipality would be relieved owing to there being less drain upon the poor funds, so that it would probably not cost the municipality more than hitherto. (Mr. Wilson Fox.) A half-penny each.

99094. Putting the question of compulsion on one side for a minute that scheme might work as regards organised trades, or persons who were in continuous employment. When you come to these casual labourers there are great difficulties, are there not?—You could not do it with regard to the casual labourer working for different employers. You might possibly get hold of the dock labourer working four days a week, I do not know why you should not, but you would not get hold of the man who was working for different employers and was purely a casual man.

99095. I assume in docks you might get an organisation if there were central places where they were taken on, you might apply that system then?—Yes, if they had not to go and pay their own money (that is a great trouble to them), if they were given the opportunity of insuring themselves, and there was impressed upon them the great advantage of getting 7s. a week if they were out of work. Before talking of compulsion we might give them an opportunity to see if they will do it on their own account. If they will not we must consider something else.

99096. Take the next trade to dock employment, which is a very difficult one, the building trade: there would be considerable difficulty, would there not?—Of course, the building trade is the very trade in which these men ought to insure, because they are so liable to be thrown out of work by the weather. I do not know why in the large towns you should not be able to organise the building trade. I recognise if you had a national scheme it would be extremely difficult to organise the building trade, because there is building in every hamlet in the country, but I do not see why the building trade should not be organised in large towns.

99097. The term of employment in the building trade is very short; it is by the hour, is it not?—Yes.

99098. Would that not make it difficult, or is the hour merely a method not so much of employment, but of reckoning the wages?—Yes, it is reckoning the wages. The hours vary in summer and winter, according to the daylight.

99099. (Mr. Bentham.) The unemployed benefit would have to have some conditions attached to it, similar to those which the trade unions themselves attach?—Certainly, you would very likely have to put more restrictions on. Necessity of attaching restrictions to unemployed benefit under insurance scheme.

99100. If I understand aright, stonemasons get no unemployed benefit unless they walk so many miles a day, and sign the books to that effect; it is a sort of travelling allowance although they come back to the same town at night?—Certainly.

99101. They would not travel if they got the insurance till they had exhausted the whole of the funds; they would remain at home, would they not?—Yes.

99102. (Chairman.) When you come to anything like casual labour there would have to be very stringent conditions about unemployment, because it is so easy to pick up a day job here, and a day job there?—I think the man would have to report himself at the bureau every day at an inconvenient time—inconvenient as regards his getting work anywhere—eleven in the morning, or something of that sort.

99103. If we put a labour exchange on one side, I think we are all agreed there would be a greater difficulty in establishing any form of general insurance for the unskilled casual labourers?—Yes, I think it would be extremely difficult.

99104. Assuming that you had a labour exchange, would that facilitate matters, assuming you could attach conditions to it?—When you say the unskilled, do you mean the regularly employed unskilled, because there is no more difficulty about insuring an unskilled man in regular work, than a skilled man.

99105. Perhaps I should say those whose employment is intermittent?—I thought that was what you intended.

Mr. Arthur Wilson Fox, C.B., Mr. F. H. McLeod, and Mr. W. Harbutt Dawson.

6 April, 1908.

Difficulties of applying insurance scheme to casual labourers.

Mr. Arthur
Wilson Fox,
C.B.,
Mr. F. H.
McLeod,
and
Mr. W.
Harbutt
Dawson.

99106. Assuming that labour exchanges were established, and conditions could be connected to them, which would tend to push people into insurance against unemployment—I think in Strassburg they have to go to the labour exchange before they can get any relief?—Mr. Dawson tells me the men who are insured are given a preference before others.

99107. They are given a preference as regards employment?—(Mr. Dawson.) That is so.

6 April, 1903.

Preference
given at
Strassburg
Labour
exchange to
men who are
insured.

Difficulty as
to payments
of casual
labourers to
the insurance
fund.

Question of
requiring
employer to
use system of
stamps for
each man
employed by
him.

99108. That would be an inducement, but as regards this particular class, how are you to collect their share of the insurance funds?—(Mr. Wilson Fox.) Through the employer, if a man is employed at all regularly. Supposing a man only works for the same employer, you would get it from the employer; if he works for two or three employers, say two employers in a week, and is purely a casual man, then there is a difficulty, and a very considerable difficulty, unless the man pays in himself, and he is just the class of man who will not do it.

99109. You cannot have a form of engagement which the employer has to put a stamp on, can you?—I had thought of that, that for every day that the employer employed the man, he should put a special stamp against the day of the week. Of course it is throwing a very considerable burden on the employer, to be always sending these things into a central office, to show that he has insured "Jones." Supposing that man lives in a municipality and he chose to go and register himself at the labour bureau, then his name is down there, and the employer who employs his men regularly might send in a list of men that he employs regularly, so that they can get the money, but if he employs men casually, he would have to send in the name of a man every day he employed him, or at the end of the week, and it would be a considerable trouble to the employer of the casual man; that is the difficulty.

99110. I am told at the docks, for instance, there are at times 1,000 people paid off very hurriedly; it would not be possible to stamp their pay sheets for each day, it would take too long, would it not?—They might hand it to the man, and the man would have to go and present it at the labour bureau. That would always have to be done, signed by the employer, showing that that particular man was not employed by him any more. That would be the day from which he would begin to qualify for unemployed pay. He would have to qualify for four days.

99111. I do not know if it is possible, but supposing that system was established, and a stamp was put on their contract, I assume that the stamp would represent something payable into the fund, it would not be at the disposal of the individual?—No, I should make it a special employment stamp for the purpose, so that at the end of the month the central office could go to the post office and claim the money for those stamps. That is how they would get paid.

Objection in
Germany to
use of
stamps.

99112. That is how they do in Germany, is it?—(Mr. Dawson.) That is so.

99113. Every employer uses stamps?—Yes, and they complain very much; that is one of the great complaints.

99114. What was the complaint of, the time?—Yes, the trouble.

Desirability
of starting
insurance
scheme by
organising by
trades in the
large towns.

99115. We see the difficulties and are slowly trying to get out of them. You have adumbrated a scheme of 11,000,000 paying 2d. ?—(Mr. Wilson Fox.) That was on a national basis. I only began with that to show how large a sum of money could be got out of a national scheme, the State contributing a comparatively small amount; if you can get 4d. a man, taking 11,000,000 men, there is £9,000,000 a year, which is a very large sum of money; but that was only merely indicating that you could get up a very large fund. I think that the best way to begin, if it is done at all, would be to do it by trades in the large towns. You can get two or three trades to do it, and have it all done in the same office, and with the same organisation, and at the same time, if possible, have a bureau. Of course, it would all depend on whether the scheme in each town was big enough to carry a bureau with it, because the bureau is going to be the expensive part of it. If you can have a labour bureau and exchange and an insurance scheme, then the same man who did the bureau could probably do the insurance scheme if you have a good one: he could be working the two together, at least

he would be the head of the whole thing. Then you would have a committee for each trade, or a committee for the whole, to be formed of some of the employers and some of the workmen if possible: if you cannot get some of the workmen on, then no doubt they would be willing for some of the leading people in the district to do so, some of the municipal councillors or some philanthropic people in the district so that they would help to control the insurance and see that people did not mangle, and that sort of thing, and make all the necessary arrangements and also carry on a campaign to make the scheme popular, and bring it to the notice of the workpeople, hold meetings and so on, to get the workmen interested in it.

99116. You plan is to organise locally, that is not organising by trades quite, is it; there is a distinction?—I suggest that trades in certain towns should be organised for the purpose. You could not organise a whole trade in the country, I think, without having a national scheme.

99117. Supposing a man moved out of the circle or area he was in, he would lose his insurance, would he not?—No, I think not; he would take his card with him, and he would get his money in the next town in which there was an insurance office.

99118. The whole of the success of what you have suggested depends more or less on the regularity of employment; the man who is intermittently engaged would not be able to come into this scheme?—The man who is working for different employers every fortnight or month, would be very difficult to deal with; the man who is working for the same employer, but only working four days a week, I do not see why you should not deal with, so long as it is possible to extract 2d. a week from him.

99119. What would be the idea in the locality: would the trade unions be allowed to take the small weekly contributions from their own people under this scheme, and the labour exchange and so on take the contribution of the unskilled or the casual labourers?—I think an individual trade union would very likely very often stand out. They would say we have our own scheme and will go on with it, and they would take the Government contribution and if they wanted their members to subscribe more in order for them to get more, there is no reason why this should not be done.

99120. In that way everybody who is not unskilled would be able to insure?—Yes, he would have the opportunity. I have never worked any scheme out because there may be several ways of doing this, and first of all you have to make up your mind whether you are going to have compulsion or not, and whether you are going to have a national scheme, or a trade scheme or a town scheme, but that a scheme could be worked out at a certain price I have very little doubt.

99121. Except as regards the casual labourer?—Except as regards the casual labourer working for different employers. Whether the thing is a success or not voluntarily would remain to be seen.

99122. Assuming you have a labour exchange, do you think it is practicable to say or to try and enact that no one should be engaged except at this particular labour exchange?—I think it is very difficult. I think that many people would think they were being dragooned too much.

99123. Reversing it, assuming you did do it, would there not be a certain danger if a person did not get employment through that certain instrument; would there not be a danger if they thought the work ought to be found?—Yes, there might be that.

99124. Do you think that is a serious danger?—I think there would be a danger in suggesting that a man is bound to go to a particular place to get employment. It is a drastic way of attempting to decrease the amount of casual labour to expect an employer to go to a labour bureau if he does not employ a man say for a week. It might have to be done if the evil was so great, but I think there would be a great outcry about it, certainly as regards some trades. As a condition precedent a very elaborate system of labour exchanges would have to be created.

99125. You would have to define what is casual labour, and that would be very difficult, would it not?—Perhaps, to fit all cases.

Difficulty of
dealing with
casual
labour
work for
different
employers.

Probability
of trade
union
contract
out of
insurance
scheme.

Objections to
compulsory
engagement
through
labour
exchange.

Use labour exchange not compulsory on employers in Germany. 99126. In Germany is there any sort of compulsion on the employers to make use of the labour exchanges?—(Mr. Dawson.) No, it is absolutely voluntary.

99127. They have come in because it is convenient?—Yes, it depends; in many towns it has always been found that a labour bureau has to make its way slowly, but gradually the employers have come in. There is one exception, the iron trades; as a rule, they have their own bureaux.

99128. What is the largest?—The engineering trades

Municipal labour registries in large towns of Germany. 99129. Taking the biggest iron centre in Germany what is the system there?—In virtually every large town there is a municipal labour registry—almost without exception.

99130. And the employers of labour more or less use it?—To a very large extent.

99131. Has it been long in operation?—Many years.

99132. They bring in both representatives of the employers and the men?—As a rule there are half of each on a committee, and it works with absolute smoothness.

99133. I understand it is instrumental in deciding a good many industrial questions?—That is quite a subsidiary branch of its work; they are not formed for that special purpose, but it is believed that the fact of employers and workpeople working together on that committee has a good effect.

Method of checking men and labour exchange insurance system. 99134. (Miss Hill.) I suppose one difficulty if such a scheme were not worked through trades unions is that you have no machinery really for watching whether the people were in work or not in work; where a trade union is paying a portion of the out-of-work pay they would watch their men?—(Mr. Wilson Fox.) The only possible way of doing it is to make the man who is out of work call every day at the exchange. That is the only way to do it.

99135. Or several times a day, would it not have to be, because he might get broken work?—He would not get very much if he called from day to day at the time he was told by the superintendent to call; if he called at eleven o'clock one day and the superintendent said: We shall want you here at three to-morrow, and he did not know when he would be called.

99136. Do you think that would be a sufficient check?—It would be the only check; I cannot think of any other off-hand.

99137. Unless you do get something like a trade union organisation, where the trade union itself is paying a portion of the benefit?—That would be the advantage of doing it according to trades, where you would get it managed by the trade. That is one of the advantages of trying to organise per trade.

99138. (Mr. Chandler.) Do I understand the suggestion with respect to the insurance against unemployment is that the cost shall be divided between the workman, the municipal authorities and the State? Is that the suggestion?—It was only a suggestion as to the means of raising the money.

99139. That is what I mean.—Supposing you had a man not belonging to a trade union at all, and you had one of these insurance offices in a large town, if he paid 2d. and the employer paid 1d. and the State paid 1d. and the municipality paid 1d., you would get 4d. I think those amounts could be defended as a contribution from the various sources.

99140. In practice would not the workman pay more per week than your scheme provides for?—In what way do you mean?

99141. I mean that the employer's contribution would be deducted from wages, thereby making the workman's share 3d. per week instead of 2d.—I was Secretary of the Royal Commission on Local Taxation, and at the end of six years I gave up all idea of ever solving the question of the incidence of taxation, and have never attempted it since.

99142. But do you not think it preferable in a plan such as you have indicated to leave out the employer altogether?—As I have said before, I think that the employer has a direct interest in supporting a scheme calculated to avoid the moral and physical deterioration of workmen when unemployed. But I am not prepared to say how far contributions from employers could be obtained under a voluntary scheme.

99143. Have you formed any calculation as to the amount it would require for a scheme of that kind for a small payment per week to the unemployed?—It would vary in the different trades, because different trades have different risks; if you insured the 11,000,000 workpeople, and got 4d. for each, that would be 1s. a day all the year round for about 430,000 men.

99144. You would provide for that number on that basis?—Yes.

MR. JOHN BERNARD CONNOLLY, called; and Examined.

Experience. 99145. (Chairman.) You are Town Clerk of the Borough of Drogheda, and Honorary Secretary of the Distress Committee?—I am.

99146. You have been good enough to send us a statement relating to distress in the Borough of Drogheda, if you will kindly hand it in, we will treat it as your Evidence-in-chief?—Certainly. (The Witness handed in the following Statement.)

Numbers on register. 1. The Committee began its operations in February, 1907; 215 names were placed upon the register. This winter the Committee set to work in the third week of December; 231 men presented themselves for registration. All these men were of the labouring class. About 75 per cent. of them were young or middle-aged men of a good class, willing and anxious to work, and the remainder were about equally divided between old men and that class of man which I should describe as "never in constant employment."

As. 2. The operations of the Committee extended in the first year from the 14th March to the 25th April, but a "Coal Fund" Committee had been coping with the distress from the 12th January and the Corporation before that—from about Christmas. This year they have been in progress since the 22nd December, and are still being carried on. With the first class of men referred to distress has now become periodic, with the others chronic.

Prod of operations of distress committee. 3. I attribute the causes of the distress to the amount of land that is going out of tillage; to the great depression in the building trade, consequent upon general depression, and to an all-round decline in commerce in and around Drogheda.

4. The effects of the distress are a lowering of the moral status of the people of the working classes and a widespread impoverishment. Clothes and furniture are pawned to an abnormal degree; outdoor relief is sought and indoor relief too.

5. Prior to the passing of the Unemployed Workmen Act, the Corporation spent about £50 at Christmas in each year in giving a couple of weeks' employment to a more or less "unemployable class" at a low rate of wages.

6. The Distress Committee have only endeavoured to provide employment, and of a useful and substantial nature. They have not established a labour bureau, assisted emigration, or established labour farms or colonies.

7. The trades unions have contributed very liberally out of their funds to the relief of their members.

8. There is not any scheme of municipal insurance obtaining.

9. In my opinion the present remedy of providing work through the local distress committee is the best that can be devised having regard to local conditions.

99147. (Chairman.) The Distress Committee, I suppose, is composed in much the same way as they are in this country; are the guardians represented on it?—Yes.

99148. Are you on it *ex officio* as town clerk?—No, I am simply honorary secretary to the committee.

99149. The men that presented themselves for registration were mostly men of the labouring classes, were they of fairly good physique?—Yes.

Mr. Arthur Wilson Fox, C.B., Mr. F. H. McLeod, and Mr. W. Harbutt Dawson.

6 April, 1908.

Suggested division of cost of insurance among workmen, employer, State and municipality.

Question whether employer's contributions would not be deducted from wages.

Probable total cost of suggested insurance scheme.

Mr. John Bernard Connolly.

6 April, 1908.

Effects.

Relief work prior to Act.

Quality of work.

Trades unions.

No municipal insurance.

Physique of unemployed.

Mr. John
Bernard
Connolly.

6 April, 1908.

Domicile.

Causes of
depression.

Depression in
building
trade.

Depression
in linen
industry.

Women
supporting
husbands.

Public utility
of work
provided by
Distress
Committee.

Supervision

Normal
employment
not fore-
stalled.

Funds.

99150. Persons, whom an ordinary employer if he wanted a man of that stamp would employ—of physique quite good enough for that ?—Quite good enough.

99151. Did you at all go into where they were domiciled ; did they come in from outside, or did they belong to Drogheda itself ?—They belonged to Drogheda, and had lived in it for at least twelve months before making application.

99152. There are certain causes which have operated in recent years to cause a depression in Drogheda ?—Yes, trade is declining, and there is a general decline all round.

99153. There is a decline in your sea-borne commerce, is there not ?—Yes, there is a very great decline in the trade of the Borough of Drogheda.

99154. Did that trade employ many persons at the docks ?—It would employ a considerable number.

99155. On the quays ?—Yes ; for years back it has been steadily declining.

99156. There has been a depression in the building trade too ?—A great depression for the last couple of years ; In Drogheda at the present time there is not a single new building of any description going on. The president of the Trade Council at a meeting of the corporation said that out of thirty-one masons, there was only one employed.

99157. I am afraid this lack of employment has not suddenly come upon you, but it has been gradually increasing for some time past ?—It has been aggravated by the depression in the linen industry. The mills in Drogheda employ women mostly, and they help to tide the family over the winter period, and then coming into the spring and summer the men find something to do in the way of the building trade, and working on farms, and little odd jobs here and there ; but last winter, as you know, there was a great depression, and the mills ran short time, and the people found it very hard to tide over the distress of the winter.

99158. I suppose really in certain families, the women have been rather keeping the men ?—Yes.

99159. Is that at all on the increase in Drogheda now, should you say ?—No, I should not say it is on the increase.

99160. What sort of work did your Distress Committee find for these people ?—Deepening a new reservoir that was constructed about three or four years ago, the capacity of which it was thought was not equal to the wants of the town ; we thought by deepening that reservoir, and increasing the storage capacity of it, we were doing the most useful work we could put them on. Then we had the services of the officials of the corporation to superintend these men whilst they were working there.

99161. Does this reservoir belong to the corporation ?—Yes.

99162. Was it work that in the ordinary course of events you would have done, or would you not have done it, if it had not been for the distress ?—We would not have done it had it not been for the distress, because it was more or less to take precaution against the possibility of a short supply in a dry season that this work was done.

99163. What funds have you at your disposal ?—Shall I take up the first year of the operations ?

99164. If you please ?—In the first year, we got a sum of £91 19s. from the coal fund committee, and the corporation themselves had spent £91 14s. 3d., and when we had exhausted these amounts we went to the Local Government Board and we got a grant of £200 from them ; that was all the money that was spent in that year.

99165. What is the coal fund ; is it a local charity ?—Yes, it was called a coal fund ; it was a voluntary fund.

99166. It started originally I suppose to provide coal, and I suppose it became a sort of charitable fund ?—Yes, you might call it a charitable fund. There was £110 14s. 7d. spent upon supplying coal and generally relieving distress from the charitable fund, in addition to these sums which I have given you.

99167. Was this £200 part of the Queen's Fund ?—Yes.

99168. That was the first year, was it ?—Yes, then this year the corporation voted to the fund of the distress committee, the amount produced by a halfpenny rate,

which would be £50 roughly. We got £180 13s. in local subscriptions, and up to the present we have had £450 from the Local Government Board.

99169. Was the £50 that you raised out of the rates for the purpose of the administration ?—It was voted by the corporation for the purposes of administration, because legally it could not be applied otherwise, but I offered my services to the distress committee gratis, then they thought they would be justified in spending that money upon giving the employment, so that really the expenses of the administration will not be any more than the cost of advertising the subscriptions raised and so forth.

99170. Has the Local Government Board auditor passed it ?—He has not come along yet, but he has made me a little bit apprehensive with regard to the first year's work.

99171. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) How does it appear in the accounts ?—The accounts have not yet been audited, so I do not know.

99172. You do not know ?—It will probably be surcharged, and we shall have to apply for a remission of it.

99173. (*Chairman.*) £180 is a considerable subscription, Voluntary is it not ?—It was a very good subscription from a town funds of the size of Drogheda.

99174. What rate do you pay the people you put on this work ; do they get the same rate as they would if they were in private employ ?—No, they only get 12s. a week, while the standard rate of wages is 16s. Then they have to walk out of a morning 3½ Irish miles to this work, and work all day from eight o'clock till half-past four, with half an hour off for dinner, and then tramp again into the town in the evening ; so it was pretty severe on them.

99175. Did many fall out, or did the same lot keep on ?—They kept on as long as we were willing to keep them on. We really could not cope with the distress effectively, and at times we had to knock off some of them and take others on in their place ; but any of them that were taken on I should say worked regularly and consistently as far as lay in their power.

99176. What was the total number that registered ? You put here 231 ?—Yes, 231.

99177. Will things be better this next year do you think ? Do you see any signs of improvement ?—Candidly I do not.

99178. It will be rather a permanent difficulty in Drogheda unless there is some development of trade ?—Yes, it is really due to a want of trade prosperity. The population, of course, is steadily going down, trade is diminishing ; and all round you see a decline.

99179. What is the population of Drogheda now ?—It was 12,760 at the last census, I should think it is a good deal less than that now.

99180. The trade unions have supported, quite independently of this, those of their members who belong to the union ?—The only information I can give you upon that is a statement that was made at a meeting. The Trades Council was charged with not contributing towards the local subscription fund of the distress committee, and their reply was that they had spent £442 10s. ; they had paid away that sum in relief to their own members, and it was made up in this way : Tailors, £52 10s. 6d. ; bakers, £95 18s. 0d. ; carpenters, £103 13s. 0d. ; painters, £100 9s. 0d. ; printers, £75 ; plumbers, £45 ; and masons, £25 ; but I should say that notwithstanding that they contributed a sum of £7 towards the funds of the distress committee.

99181. You think, looking at the circumstances with which you have to deal, that providing work through the local distress committee is the best method of meeting this distress ?—Yes, I do, because being a small town it is easy to become acquainted with the local conditions. You can have thorough supervision ; and personally I think it is about the best scheme that can be devised.

99182. Is pauperism high in Drogheda ?—Yes, I think it is.

99183. I think according to the Irish practice there have been very few able-bodied receiving poor relief ?—Very paupers. few ; but then, of course, their wives and families look for it, and that sort of thing.

99184. Should you say there was a distinction between the class that came to you for this class of work and those who apply to the Poor Law for assistance? Should you say it was a better class of people that came to you?—They would have been compelled to apply to the Poor Law Board if we had not taken them on. In the first winter we took on a lot of the persons who had applied actually to the Poor Law Board. The people were practically starving and could find no work to do. They had been pawning all their clothes, and that sort of thing, and they were absolutely driven to the wall. They had to fall back upon the outdoor relief system. Some of the women actually went into the house, and their husbands were prosecuted for leaving them upon the rates.

99185. The distress committee put a pretty stiff task on these people in the way of labour?—Undoubtedly they were well looked after and compelled to give a good return for the outlay.

99186. Had you good superintendence and so on?—We had very good superintendence.

99187. You are pretty confident there was not much shirking?—I am quite confident, because I went down there pretty frequently myself, and I always found the men were working well, and from conversations with the gangers, and that sort of thing, I am quite satisfied that the men worked well. Of course the uncertainty of not knowing how long they would be kept on, I should say would militate against their working as well as they would under ordinary conditions, and then working for less than a man who would be fortunate enough to get employment in the town would also tell against them.

99188. In your judgment I assume you think it is very important that the rate given should be rather below that which is given outside?—Not very much below, I should say, because I think it would have a demoralising effect upon them to make it too low: they would look upon it as charity pure and simple, and I do not think that would be a good thing.

99189. You would keep it so that there should be no inducement to people to come to the distress committee for relief or work when they could find it outside?—Quite so.

99190. Have any of these people who have received relief migrated to other parts of Ireland or emigrated at all?—No, they have not, so far as I know, with perhaps one or two exceptions.

99191. Is there any movement of the people now from Drogheda say to Newry or Belfast?—No, the general impression is that things are just as bad elsewhere. I think from the general outlook everybody more or less thinks that things in Ireland are not bright in any part of it, and if they go to any other town they will be just as badly off.

99192. I understand you are in favour of dissociating this work from the Poor Law, that is to say you think a distress committee is an advantage?—Yes, I do, because the people in Ireland look upon the Poor Law as charity, and they are very proud, no matter how poor they may be, and while they look upon the work of the distress committee, as not being charity, they look with very great disfavour upon the Poor Law system. It is a great slur upon anyone to be told that they had to resort to it.

99193. Does that apply even to outdoor relief in Ireland?—It does. They will only resort to that in the last instance, that is people who have any self-respect. Of course, when they let themselves down a bit, and that sort of thing, they will fall back upon it.

99194. (Mr. Bentham.) Do you think that the objection which people have to receiving Poor Law relief is rather a healthy sign than otherwise?—I do certainly.

99195. You would not like to make Poor Law relief free or easier to be obtained for that reason?—I would not.

99196. Do you not look upon this provision of work pretty much in the same way as relief only it has not attached to it that stigma which attaches to Poor Law relief?—Exactly.

99197. It is only for that reason, to ease the acceptance of it a little, that you prefer it to the other?—Yes.

99198. Really in essence it is the same, is it not?—It is, only they do not look upon it in that way.

99199. You would like to make it a little bit easier for them to get relief, that is the able-bodied who are able to work, than through the Poor Law?—I would, because then it does not tend to demoralise them as the Poor Law system does. If they once apply for outdoor relief my impression is that they are never the same afterwards: they lose their self-respect to a great extent. In this distress committee they recognise they are doing a day's work for a day's wage when they are not doing a day's work elsewhere.

99200. (Chairman.) Did the same people come on each year?—Yes, very much the same.

99201. (Mr. Bentham.) Do the people who come on to the Poor Law lose caste at all?—They do.

99202. Do you find that people drift into your town from the country, or is it the other way round?—There is a tendency to drift into the town certainly. Land is going out of tillage, and there is no work for people in the country; some of them came and applied for work, and we could not take them on because they were not resident in the town.

99203. There will be no provision of work for the unemployed in the country, will there?—No.

99204. If a provision is made in the town, will it not have a tendency to attract those people who are only half-employed in the country to the town?—I suppose it would have that tendency.

99205. Although they might not be eligible for twelve months they might as well live on somehow for twelve months in the town until they are eligible, and in that way they would qualify for unemployment work if it became the regular thing. Do you see any danger in that at all?—There would be a danger, I think, but very little.

99206. What are the main sources of employment?—Sources of They get employment on the quays, and at the building trade, and then they get odd jobs about here and there, taken on and off.

99207. Is there a large brewery near?—It is not a very large one. We have had two breweries, one has been shut up in the last couple of years, the other is still in being.

99208. Do they get their men from the town or do they prefer country men, do you know?—I think they get them from the town.

99209. It has been said that the work of the brewery being heavy it is very seldom that the men in the town are employed; they get the country men?—You see the physique of the men in Drogheda would be quite as good as men working in the country, because you have not the same conditions prevailing as you have here in the large industrial centres, which would not tend to make conditions of life not so good as out in the country.

99210. Is vagrancy very high in your town?—It is on the increase I am afraid.

99211. I suppose the town forms about half the population of the union. You say the town is of about 12,000 population?—I cannot tell you what the population of the union is, but I should say it was far more than one half.

99212. There are 26,000 in the union.—Is that so?

99213. From which district in the union do the paupers mostly come? Have you any knowledge of that, whether from the country districts or from Drogheda?—I should think more from the town; decidedly more from the town; as a rule in the country work passes on from father to son, and there is not so very much pauperism out in the country as there is in the town.

99214. It would be desirable, if a town is decaying, to have a sort of gradual migration from the town to some other places?—There is a migration from the town; the population is steadily going down. Any of the young people that can get away out of it do so. The one idea of the better class of young fellows is to get away from the town, if they can, because the outlook is not very promising.

Mr. John Bernard Connolly.

6 April, 1908.

Advantage of relief under the act in saving self-respect.

Recurrent cases.

Immigration into town from country.

Effect of relief in town on rural migration.

Mr. John
Bernard
Connolly.

6 April, 1908.

Standard
rate of wage.

Ages.

Land tenure
round
Drogheda.

Small
holdings.

Estate
Commis-
sioners.

99215. That means that what remains is really poorer still, the old people and children?—Mostly.

99216. And the more or less inefficient workmen will be left?—The inefficient worker will be left, but a lot of the efficient men remain on still; they are always so poor that it is with difficulty they can get away, but whenever they can get away they try to do so.

99217. Does the town council employ very many men?—About sixty.

99218. Only?—Yes.

99219. What would be the rate of wages for a labourer?—16s.

99220. That is the corporation price?—That is the standard rate.

99221. Do other people pay the same rate?—Recognised employers of labour do, but a man who only takes a person on for a few days would try and get him for a little bit less than that, probably 14s.

99222. (Mr. Gardiner.) Could you give us the ages of the men who presented themselves for registration. You say about 75 per cent. of them were young or middle-aged men. Have you any Return?—I have not that with me; we had the ages of them at the time.

99223. It would be interesting to see at what age they come. Will you kindly add that?—Certainly.

The witness subsequently sent the following note:—

I find on looking over the Register that there are—

95 men between the ages of 20 and 30 years.

48 " " " " 30 and 40 "

39 " " " " 40 and 50 "

41 " " " " 50 and 65 "

8 " over 65 years of age.

99224. (Mrs. Bosanquet.) What is the system of land tenure round you; is it small holdings or large farming?—Round Drogheda the farms are pretty large as farms go in Ireland.

99225. It is not held in small farms; there are agricultural labourers then?—We have not that system of small farming that they have in the West and South. The farmers generally speaking, are pretty well to do as a whole.

99226. And they employ wage-earners?—Yes.

99227. So you could not take these 200 men or so and settle them on small holdings?—Yes, you could in the County of Meath, where there are hundreds of acres given over to grazing. You could certainly do that with them.

99228. Are they men capable of that work?—They would be, because they work upon farms as a matter of fact on the outskirts of the town. Some of the farms come within the borough boundary, and when the spring sets in they start working again.

99229. It might be cheaper than spending this sum every year for them to make a capital outlay?—It might be. You have had a lot of outcry about the cattle-driving agitation round about the country.

99230. Do you mean you could not get the land?—You have the agitation going on at the present time, the people are crying out for the land and having these huge ranches split up into small holdings. There is a movement slowly going on at the present time for acquiring these large estates and splitting them up and putting the people on them.

99231. Is that being done by the county councils?—No, by the Estates Commissioners.

99232. Who are the people they put on; are they the same type of people that you are dealing with on these distress committees?—Not altogether; the sons of farmers and men who have been doing farm work and always been working about farms.

99233. If you applied to the Estates Commissioners for so many estates for your people would you get any help that way?—I do not think so. There are quite enough applications from the sons of farmers in the localities where they buy up these estates, more than enough to leave out Drogheda altogether.

99234. Have you any powers of acquiring land?—We have not in that way.

99235. Not even in the neighbourhood of the town?—No, no power whatever.

99236. (Sir Samuel Provis.) Have you in Ireland a rule that persons who have been in receipt of relief during the qualification past two years shall not be assisted under the Unemployed Workmen's Act?—No, we have not such a rule as that yet.

99237. Do you in fact find people who have been in receipt of relief applying to you for assistance?—I should not say so, the class of persons who apply for relief would be the very old men, and the wives perhaps of those men.

99238. Able-bodied men do not apply for relief?—Application by able-bodied men is exceptional. Except as a last extremity, or a man has become demoralised and let himself down.

99239. So that in point of fact you have not found that you have had cases of that kind come to you under the Unemployed Workmen's Act?—There were some men who had applied for relief, but, generally speaking, it was more the exception than otherwise.

99240. They had applied for relief; had they received it? You said there were some cases where the persons who had applied to you had applied for relief?—That is to get into the House. They would not think of giving relief to an able-bodied man, except in a very extreme case. It is only old men, and women whose husbands have died, and they have got children dependent upon them, and can find no employment.

99241. Supposing a man applied to the distress committee for assistance, it is a little time before you can give him assistance, is it not?—We try to give him assistance right away if we can.

99242. Do you give him money?—No, we put him on Ad and to work. I have an understanding with our foreman to advance 1s. or 2s. to any of these men, if he really is in need of it, to keep him going. As a matter of fact, when they begin working he has to make advances to them until they have been with us a week or so, then they are able to wait a week and take a week's wages.

99243. You do not as a rule pay them in advance, but you do it as soon as he is set to work?—I leave it entirely to the foreman, who knows these men intimately; he can judge very well whether it is desirable to give a man an advance or not.

99244. You do not have more men than you can provide work for?—It is really a question of funds more than of providing work for them. We do not know whether the Local Government Board will make an advance to us or not. We get £100 from them, and we are told that is a final instalment, and then we make a further application, and we may get another £100 from them. The men themselves just take as much interest in it as we do, they look forward to our being successful with the Local Government Board whether they will be kept on or not. As a matter of fact, as to the last contribution but one that I got from the Local Government Board, it was stated very emphatically in the letter accompanying the paying order that I was to take it that that was a final instalment, and the word "final" was underlined. Difficult of obtaining funds.

99245. But you wrote such a powerful letter in reply that they gave way?—I sent a telegram and said that the fund was totally exhausted, and then Sir Henry Robinson sent down his private secretary to inspect the work. He had the cheque in his pocket and he gave it to me. If the men had not been going on all right he would have taken the cheque back with him, but he saw we were making such genuine efforts to cope with the distress that he left the cheque with me. That is the worst feature of it, these men are taken on, and they do not know the moment they will be knocked off.

99246. The point I wanted to put to you was whether you have a larger number of persons on your register than you can provide work for?—Certainly.

99247. That being so, what do you do with them? What happens to those men when you cannot provide work for them?—Really I could not tell you, we only take on the best of them, the better class of men. There is a certain class of man who is upon the register and he is not so deserving of employment as another man will be because he is more or less of a loafer; he will work for a few days at an odd job, and then he will knock off and go about for a week or two and wait for another job. We do not encourage that man at all. We want the man who has formerly been in constant employment, and we want to keep him up to that if we can. Inadequate provision to cope with applications.

99248. Are you able to find work for all the men you think are suitable men for assistance?—No, we are not. We have to cut our cloth according to measure.

99249. And sometimes you do not find your cloth sufficient?—We could have put on more men at any time if we had sufficient funds to do so.

99250. What happens to those men you cannot provide for who are suitable men to be assisted?—We cast off the men who have been on for a week or two and take the others on and give them a spell, then take them off and put the others on again.

99251. You do not keep them on for any lengthy period, but give shifts of work?—We do.

99252. Do you find that answers?—It has a bad effect on the man naturally, because when he is taken on he does not know when he is going to be knocked off, and he has no heart in the work naturally. If the man knew he was going to be kept on constantly he would work much better.

99253. If you take them on in shifts in that kind of way you do not pay them enough in one week to keep them for a fortnight?—No, they only get the 12s., and that is about enough to keep them going the week. I do not know how they pull through in the meanwhile.

Mr. ROBERT GAGEBY, called and Examined.

99260. (Chairman.) You are a member of the Corporation of Belfast?—I am.

99261. You have been good enough to send us a statement which, according to our practice, we will take as your evidence-in-chief, if you will kindly hand it in?—Certainly. (*The Witness handed in the following Statement.*)

DISTRESS DUE TO UNEMPLOYMENT.

(1) EXTENT OF DISTRESS DUE TO UNEMPLOYMENT.

(a) Numbers, Classes, and Character of Persons Affected.

1. Out of a total of almost 30,000 workers employed in the shipbuilding, engineering, building, textile wood-working and furnishing and other trades, there were over 2,000 reported as being unemployed. It is difficult to ascertain the exact number of persons employed inasmuch as only those who belong to trade societies are recorded.

(2) PERIOD OF DURATION, WHETHER CHRONIC OR PERIODIC.

2. Period of duration usually lasts about quarter of the year. Unemployment is chronic so far as it affects numbers, but they are not always the same persons who are idle.

3. We have an unemployable class through weakness, etc., and these naturally go to swell the number of the unemployed. Owing to the shipbuilding and large engineering works in Belfast there is always of course surplus labour which is considered by some large employers as almost a necessity in times of hurry in getting contracts finished.

4. No doubt there is not sufficient work for all those who are able and willing to undertake it. We are constantly receiving into Belfast workers from the country districts.

(3) EFFECTS OF DISTRESS DUE TO UNEMPLOYMENT.

5. There is not so much unemployment in Belfast per family as is the case in most other towns, as there is usually work for both males and females and both are seldom, if ever, idle at the same time. Belfast is in a peculiar position as regards employment, there is so much outlet for female labour, 20,000 being employed in connection with the linen trade; therefore, unemployment does not press so heavily on families.

6. Bad habits such as drunkenness and laziness do not account for so many being unemployed. From the Belfast Poor Law Union returns for the month of March, it does not seem as if the bad state of trade has affected appreciably an increase in those seeking relief. The only increase has been in the case of the sick poor.

99254. What do they do in the alternate week they are not employed?—We have the Vincent De Paul Society, a charitable institution, that looks after them as best as they can to try and pull them through; some of them lead a very precarious existence indeed.

99255. They are practically kept on charity, is that it?—Almost that.

99256. (Chairman.) When do your works cease; do they go on all the year round?—We kept them on last year until April 25th. The fund was then exhausted.

99257. Are they going on now?—Yes, they are going on at the present time.

99258. What will happen to the people who are now working when they are knocked off these relief works, what will they do?—Some of them may go to other towns to look for work; they will get employment later in the year at the harvest, and that sort of thing, and if any building work begins a lot of them will be taken on at building work. Last year we had a fair share of building which kept them going after we had finished with them, but this year there is no sign whatever of building work going to be started.

99259. It really looks unless something turns up, as though you will have these people permanently on your hands?—Yes.

Mr. John Bernard Connolly.

6 April, 1938.

Mr. Robert Gageby.

6 April, 1908.

(4) REMEDIES FOR DISTRESS DUE TO UNEMPLOYMENT.

(a) Municipal Employment.

7. The corporation provided employment, some years ago when work was scarce, in the nature of relief work in the public parks, through not urgent yet desirable, prior to Act. for instance in making boating lakes, etc., widening roads, where the work was excavating, etc. leaving the skilled work such as paving, etc., over until required. The men engaged at any one time never exceeded 150; still, 850 men were passed through this work.

(b) The Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905.

8. Distress committees, labour bureaux, provided work, emigration, etc.

9. A distress committee was formed by the Belfast Corporation in 1906, consisting of members of the corporation, board of guardians and others, 800 persons registered themselves as unemployed and willing to work at any employment, but as no funds were forthcoming, though an appeal was made for such, the committee were unable to render any assistance. Labour bureaux—we have nothing of the kind in Belfast, though an effort was made some time ago to establish such, but it fell through.

(c) Labour Farms or Colonies.

10. I have no experience of these, as such has not been attempted in Belfast.

(d) Trades Union Unemployed Benefit.

11. If the Government would give a subsidy to the trades unions that pay unemployed benefits this would assist these in extending the number of weeks to out-of-work members or enable them in paying those who are not in receipt of this benefit because of arrears, etc. It would to a large extent lessen the effect of the distress due to unemployment.

(e) Municipal Insurance (e.g., Germany).

12. I have no experience, but am inclined to the opinion it would hardly be a success if introduced into Belfast, the workers are so much interested in their various societies, both trade and friendly.

(f) Any other Remedies as to which the Witness has Special Knowledge or Conviction.

13. There should be an attempt on the part of the local authorities to start work that would, as far as possible, be reproductive, without entering into competition with a well-established and fairly paid industry. Such work as could easily be expanded or contracted according to the condition of the labour market. For example, the canals require cleansing, freeing them from

Mr. Robert
Gageby.

6 April, 1908.

weeds, and in some cases deepening to permit the traffic to be carried on more easily and economically. Owing to the increase in traffic, motors, etc., on the leading roads of the country, many of these require remaking, and in any case it would give more manual labour in the way of general attention to fences, etc. This kind of work would give employment to a large number of men during slack seasons.

14. There should, however, be some kind of machinery for the administration of affairs in connection with unemployment.

15. Registration of those unemployed who are willing to work, distress committee for the purpose of advising where work is to be had, directing and controlling the business in connection with the Unemployed Workmen Act.

Number of
skilled
workers
unemployed.

99262. (Chairman.) In Paragraph 1 you assert that there are about 2,000 persons out of 30,000 workers who are reported as being unemployed?—Yes.

99263. Most of those, I suppose, would be skilled workmen?—Nearly all are organised workers.

99264. The trades which you mention are all skilled or organised trades?—All skilled trades. There may be a few included in the number belonging to organised trades, not necessarily skilled workers, because we have organised trades in Belfast of working people, both male and female, that cannot be termed skilled workers.

Unskilled
unemployed.

99265. Besides these 2,000 who are mostly skilled workmen, are there many persons of the casual or unskilled classes, who are in want of employment?—I would say that there are more than twice as many, say 4,000, at the present time of that class.

99266. Is it unusual that you should have so many skilled workers wanting employment in Belfast?—It is.

Causes of
high pro-
portion of
skilled un-
employed.

99267. Have there been any exceptional causes which have contributed to that?—Yes, the linen trade, for instance, at the present time is bad, and that more or less affects very many of the industries in the city. It has no application whatever as far as the shipbuilding and engineering is concerned, but on the other trades, the building trades and such like, it has a very bad effect.

Short time

99268. (Mr. Bentham.) Are the factories running short time?—At present all the mills and factories (in Belfast the mill is the spinning mill and the factory is where the weaving is done) are working only thirty-seven hours per week.

99269. (Chairman.) How long has that been going on?—The thirty-seven hours has been going on since February. In November the mills and factories were noticed to work forty-four hours per week. That was not sufficient for the employers' purpose in keeping down the stock, so in February they started all the concerns to work thirty-seven hours per week, a reduction of seven hours more.

Effect of
female
labour in
linen
industry on
employment
in family.

99270. It is very unusual, is it not, in Belfast to have so large a reduction in hours?—It is unusual. Employment as a rule in Belfast is fairly good, and if you will allow me to say so, Belfast families are not affected the same as families are in some of the other industrial centres through unemployment. What I mean is, that there are supposed to be about 20,000 females engaged in the textile trade. It is said, I have no data for it, that there are between 65,000 and 70,000 families in Belfast, and that it hardly ever occurs—(it has occurred at this time)—that the employment for both the male and the female has been bad at the same time, and therefore there was employment for some one or two members of the family at any time previously that I am aware of.

Shipbuilding.

99271. Is the shipbuilding trade bad just now?—It is dull in this way, that there is a larger number of persons at the present time unemployed through scarcity of employment than I have remembered for some time. At Harland and Wolff's, where there are probably usually employed almost 12,000 persons, at the present time work is scarce. I do not know whether that arises from the want of orders, or on account of the improvements that have been made in one shipbuilding yard, or the additional yard established at Southampton, England; probably all combined make the work scarce at the present time. I might say they are engaged in making slips suitable for larger steamers than any they have yet built, and as a result I understand they are making three slips into two,

and that undoubtedly has an effect, and I am sure will have a further effect in reducing the hands.

99272. Is employment in Belfast seasonal, or does it go on as a rule all the year round?—It is seasonal so far as it affects the outdoor trades. It is not seasonal as affecting, for instance, the shipbuilding and engineering and the textile trades, as I have already told you there is a very large number of people employed in the textile trade.

99273. Really it has no special seasonal trade, though some of the out-trades are affected, as all out-trades are, by the weather and by winter?—Yes, the staple trade, that is what we call the linen trade, is not affected by seasons, but the present, I might say, "dullness" in connection with that largely arises from the difficulties in America at the present time. You see of our foreign trade in connection with the linen export trade, I suppose the United States will take almost three-quarters, and when any financial difficulty arises in America it affects us very quickly.

99274. And you are now affected in that way, are you?—We are now affected in that way. I think of course employers do not care about speculating and laying up stock against an improvement in the trade, and consequently they have resorted to short time. In addition to that I may say the purchasers in a falling market (and the price has fallen considerably) do not care about purchasing until prices come to what we might term bottom prices.

99275. You would say just now that Belfast is rather abnormally unemployed?—Yes.

99276. You constantly receive people from the country into Belfast?—Yes. To give you some idea of that, in 1870 the population of Belfast was about 174,000, to-day it is calculated at 380,000 and the valuation of the city has increased in proportion. Of course the cost of living in the city now, as far as the working-class people are concerned, is more costly than in the time that I mention when the population was less.

99277. I suppose the attraction to the people from the country is the mills and the higher wages that they can get?—Undoubtedly there is a great attraction in employment being constant as well as the better wages.

99278. And there is also the chance of a little amusement?—And there is another thing I think, that somehow or other heads of families take into consideration and I admire them for it, although it tells against us in the City, that if they are in a city like Belfast their children will have a better chance in life, that is that they would have a better start. The advantages there for improvement, from an educational point of view as well as from a business point of view, are vastly superior to those which they would be likely to obtain in the country.

99279. They get more facilities all round for the employment and promotion of their children?—Yes, for instance, the municipality has been doing a great work. I suppose so far as technical education is concerned, we have one of the finest institutes from an equipment point of view; it has received the praise of all experts in connection with it. That has been largely due to the efforts of the municipality, and Primary Schools have been helped considerably by the interest that our ex Lord Mayor, Lord Shaftesbury, took in it. He takes a very great interest in matters of that sort.

99280. In Belfast do the men and the women work at much the same work, or is it generally the custom that in a family the man would be employed in one particular trade and the woman in another?—Yes, I will give you an approximate idea of the numbers. We calculate that there are about 26,000 people employed in connection with the linen trade. About 6,000 of that number are men and boys. The work in connection with the textile trade is carried on largely by women and girls, and the men are largely employed in engineering, building, printing and various industries of that kind, the same as you will find in any other industrial centre, and we have a great variety of them.

99281. You do not think that drunkenness is a contributing cause to any considerable extent to unemployment in Belfast?—I suppose we are not any worse nor any better than our neighbours in that respect. It might contribute, but in the very smallest degree, because I

have known hundreds of men who would be only too glad to obtain employment, respectable men, who can find none. There are people who are not willing to work, some people call them "shy-workers." They may be that, but a large proportion of the unemployed so far as I know, and I have a very long experience of the City of Belfast and those people, are only too willing to be employed. Let me illustrate that. The corporation are large employers and pay fair wages. The corporation own their gas works, they own the tramways, and there are the street works and parks, and all things like that employ a considerable number of men, and at the present time I should say there was not less than 1,000 applicants for work on the books of the corporation.

99282. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) Are all those people out of work who are applicants for work under the corporation, or are they at present in other employment?—They are out of work. As a member of the corporation with some experience of that kind of thing, I am sorry on account of the number of applications for employment which are made by people who were in better circumstances. The corporation pays a rate of wages to its labourers higher than is paid by any of these private employers in the city, but of course, and I suppose it is but natural, the corporation, or rather the officials of the corporation, naturally expect to get the best of the men, that is physically the best I mean.

99283. There has been no increase, apparently, from the Poor Law returns, in the number of those seeking relief. How do you account for that?—I am greatly surprised about that; no one was more so when I made enquiries on Friday when I knew I was to come here. When I applied to the Poor Law Board they very readily placed their facts before me, because I was a little sceptical, for this reason, that I thought on account of the present distress due to unemployment and the bad trade in connection with the linen trade especially, that the number of applicants for relief would have been very large; but I found that there was no appreciable increase in the number of applicants, save in respect of what is termed the aged and infirm, that is, people who are over sixty years of age. The clerk to the Poor Law Board said to me: Why, we find it difficult to get what is called the able-bodied men in sufficient numbers to do the work in connection with our union that is always done by what is called pauper labour. Those are two things which I had put before me that I could not very well gainsay, yet I came away surprised, but, of course, I could not account for that.

99284. The first statement which you made to me might explain it inasmuch as you think that the persons who are out of employment are mainly skilled labourers, and they would be reluctant to go to the Poor Law?—I was going to explain it in another way. My experience of the people of Belfast, and I find it applies to most of the respectable poor, is that in their mind the idea of going and seeking relief from the Poor Law Board is so degrading and so demoralising that they would not for the world let anyone know that they made such an application. I do not know whether it is pertinent or not, but in Belfast some years ago we had no infectious diseases hospital; and the difficulty that we had in compelling people who were suffering from infectious diseases to go to the hospital that we had attached to the Poor Law union was so great that the people refused to go, and consequently it made it more difficult for the health authorities to deal and grapple with infectious disease, so much so that the corporation built a new hospital for this particular purpose at a cost of £75,000 in order that the people should go to it without having any stigma of pauperism on them at all.

99285. The corporation have actually built a hospital for infectious diseases?—Yes; I am a member of that sub-committee and committee. It was at a cost of £75,000; and it is likely to be added to in order to get the poor to go to this infectious disease hospital, so that there should be no connection in any way with the Poor Law board.

99286. The corporation some time back did provide a certain amount of relief work in connection with the public parks. How long back was that?—I think it would be about five or six years ago.

99287. Was that done regularly every year?—No, once in that year. Since then we have been very fortunate in giving employment to unskilled men because of the works that have been undertaken by the corporation.

Mr. Robert Gageby.

6 April, 1908.

99288. Was the employment you gave special employment, or was it employment which the corporation in the ordinary course of events would provide?—I think the corporation would not have undertaken it, but some members of the corporation brought it especially before the members, with the result that this work was done. It has added considerably to the embellishment of the park, to the amusement of the people, and the roads that were widened have since been availed of, and property adjacent to it has been placed there with advantage both to those who want to live further out of the city and to the corporation generally from a rateable point of view.

99289. Going back to your first statement, on whose report do you assert that there are about 2,000 people unemployed?—The *Labour Gazette* is supplied to me regularly, and from the Board of Trade Returns I gather about that number, it may be more or less, but somewhere about that.

99290. It is not a local Return, it is a Board of Trade Return?—It is not a local Return, because we have no means of knowing only through the respective trade unions. They can give it; but any attempt at stating the figures is purely approximate.

99291. You had a distress committee formed in 1905, Failure of but you had no funds placed at your disposal?—No. I distress was a member of that distress committee, and very much disappointed because we were not provided with funds. I have a minute here which will give you at once the history of the Belfast Distress Committee. The first meeting of the distress committee was held on December 19th, 1905. The distress committee was composed of about fifteen members of the Belfast Corporation, seven members of the board of guardians and other people interested in matters of this kind. The first meeting was held on December 19th, 1905, when the form of procedure was settled upon and a secretary appointed. The secretary that was appointed on that occasion was one of the clerks in connection with the corporation, a Mr. Harris, and instructions were given to him to have all necessary books, forms, etc., provided. These were obtained and at the next meeting, held on December 28th, the committee arranged to wait upon the corporation on January 1st for the purpose of asking the Lord Mayor to open a fund to enable the committee to give work to the unemployed. The committee accordingly waited upon the corporation on January 1st and were sympathetically received. They also subsequently waited upon the works and improvement committees of the council, those are the two committees of the corporation that do all the street works, and urged the starting of works to provide employment, and also communicated with the other public boards on the same subject. An office was opened on January 9th to receive applications from those seeking employment relief, and a clerk and superintendent were appointed to receive and investigate the applications. A labour exchange was also opened. An appeal was issued to the public for funds and to employers for their co-operation by consulting the committee's lists when requiring labour. The response, however, to this appeal was practically nil. Application was also made to the Local Government Board for a grant from the Queen's Unemployed Fund, but up to March 7th, 1906, when the committee adjourned no definite reply had been received. In the meantime applications for employment were coming in and at the end of January, 902 had been received, and this was increased to 928 at the end of the following month. 262 cases were investigated and out of these seventy-two were found ineligible or not suitable for treatment under the Act, while thirty-two applications were cancelled, the applicants having subsequently obtained employment, the number remaining on the register at the end of February being 824. Up to March 7th, 1906, fifty-four applicants for employment were registered with the labour exchange, one inquiry only was received and that was filled. The committee met on March 7th, 1906, and having reviewed their position passed a Resolution expressing their disappointment at the failure of the Act in so far as the non-provision of funds to provide employment relief was concerned, and expressing the hope that the Government would endeavour to have the Act

Mr. Robert
Gageby.

6 April, 1908.

amended in this respect, and a copy of the Resolution was forwarded to the Prime Minister and other members of the Government. The committee also arranged to pay off their staff and close operations and this was accordingly done on March 19th, 1906. The corporation made a grant of £100 to the committee under Section 1 of the Act and your committee's expenses paid out of that grant were as follows: Salary and wages, £32 10s.; printing and books, £24 6s. 5d.; advertising, £17 17s. 6d.; making a total of £74 13s. 11d.; and leaving a balance in hand of £25 6s. 1d.

99292. How was it that there was no response to the appeal for subscriptions in Belfast?—I cannot account for it other than that frequently in Belfast there are appeals made for philanthropic purposes. There are very many institutions, and there are very many people giving. I might say I suppose the same class of people are always giving; but I think that somehow or other they thought that it was something both for the Government and the municipality to do without appealing for funds from private individuals.

Labour
exchange
abandoned.

99293. You had a labour exchange established, had you?—Yes, at that time.

99294. Is it given up now?—Yes, I read how many applications there were, there were fifty-four applicants for employment registered at the labour exchange, and one enquiry only was received, and that was filled. My experience of employers in Belfast is that they prefer, on account of having the power to pick and choose, that the men should come themselves.

Government
subsidy to
trade unions.

99295. Your suggestion is that the Government should help trade unions as regards their unemployed benefits? Are the trade unions well organised now in Belfast?—The trade unions are well organised in Belfast, but why it was that I gave that answer was that I was not exactly sure of the meaning of the question, because I thought if there were to be a distributing agency for any assistance that the executives of trades unions would be enabled to do it, and do it systematically and in all probability prevent it from being abused, the accounts being subject of course to a Local Government Board auditor. May I say in this connection (I overlooked it probably in the hurry) that the question of insurance is a question we have not discussed very fully, and as representing the Corporation I do not like to commit the Corporation to my individual opinion. Seeing that an insurance fund might be compulsory there would be great difficulty in getting the workmen, and I suppose an equal difficulty with the employers to establish anything like an insurance fund. In the Corporation we have established what is called a Provident Fund, that is that the employees of the Corporation contribute 2½ per cent. of their wages to that fund, the Corporation has agreed annually to put £400, that is I think £200 half yearly, for the purpose of assisting this fund. Up to the present 900 of the employees have made application to become members of the Provident Fund. I am a member of the Finance Committee that has to deal with that; their meeting is being held to-day in one of our large halls, and I do not know how it will go, so I could not speak as to it, except to merely mention that the Corporation have been doing this with respect to its employees.

Reproductive
and non-
competitive
relief work.

99296. You suggest that it would be as well if the local authorities were to try and start work that as far as possible should be reproductive, without entering into competition with well established and fairly paid industries. It is rather difficult, is it not, at times to find that class of work?—That is the difficulty that we had before us in the city corporation on the introduction of the Unemployed Workmen Act, that we did not want to enter into competition with a well established industry, simply for the sake of providing employment, because we are, as it were, competing against the ratepayer, at the same time asking the ratepayer to meet the additional cost.

99297. Therefore it would be almost necessary if a local authority had any power of starting works of this kind, that they should be very careful what the class of work was that they started?—Yes, in my opinion.

Relief wages
below
standard
wage.

99298. When the Corporation employed these people before, did they pay them the standard rate of wages?—They did not.

99299. What is your view upon that?—I think that the labour was according to the payment, very small. I

think the result was not anything at all but what we might have expected. Of course there were about 850 men employed, taking the number of men engaged altogether, but these men were not employed constantly. So as soon as a man was employed one or two weeks, we asked him to go, and brought on some other necessitous cases, and gave them a share.

Shortfalls
of relief
work.

99300. That is not altogether satisfactory is it?—No, so far as I myself am concerned, I am opposed to that sort of thing. If men are to be employed they should not consider that that employment is just next to charity, and at the same time I think that the work that they do ought to be reproductive, it ought to be useful work, work which might benefit the corporation.

99301. And there is a certain amount of work which you think might be done in connection with roads and canals, and so on?—On my way down from Heysham or Fleetwood, coming through the Midlands, I have always admired your waterways, and the sight of those waterways always brought before my mind the sad condition of our waterways. I thought many a time that if men could be employed in ridding our waterways of weeds, deepening and widening them, that I believe it would be a cheap and inexpensive mode of transit, because our provincial towns in the north of Ireland are situated very commodiously for that kind of traffic, and I have often thought that men could be usefully employed on that work, and a very large number too.

World
roads and
canals.

99302. For the future would you like to continue the distress committee in Belfast?—I would not like the continuation of the distress committee under the same circumstances, because it was very humiliating. We had a number of applications from decent respectable men, and they thought we were fooling them, that is what they put it at, on account of how frequently we told them to wait, and to wait, and at the end of their waiting nothing came of it, so that I think anything of the kind again, unless on a very different basis, would hardly be undertaken.

Failure of
distress
committee.

99303. What has happened to those people who did not get employment; have they stopped in Belfast?—Yes, they would stop in Belfast, and there was nothing for them but to either live upon their friends, or to go about trying here and there, where they best could knock out a sort of existence, or make application to the Poor Law authorities.

99304. But they have not done that, have they; they have not come to the Poor Law?—No, they have not done that in this instance, and in the present depression of trade they have not gone to the Poor Law, but then out-relief is only given in Belfast to those old and infirm people who are unable to earn anything, or who have no members of the family to depend upon. At the present time the distress in Belfast is fairly keen and in a family, (and I am sorry to say that they are numerous) where a girl probably was earning anything between 10s. or 12s. a week, and keeping some member of the family, that person's earnings has been reduced by one-third, consequently the wages that were coming into the house, which at the best was barely sufficient for the purpose of maintaining the father or mother as the case may be, and the daughter herself, has been reduced so low, that really I cannot understand how some people are living at all without seeking relief. That was my amazement when I went to the Poor Law Board.

No in-
crease in
applications
for Poor Law
relief.

99305. (Sir Samuel Provis.) I am not quite sure whether I rightly understood, that you dropped the distress committee after the first year? Did you?—We had a meeting of the distress committee at the beginning of the present winter. As we were reviewing the past, of course, it was anything but a pleasant meeting. We made an application for something to begin the winter with, and that application was wet-blanketed, with the result that the distress committee dissolved itself without any resolution.

Failure of
distress
committee.

99306. So that you have not practically had a distress committee the last winter?—No, nothing except what I have already said; we had a meeting at the beginning of the winter to take into account the condition of affairs with the approaching winter, but with no result, and we have not had a meeting of that committee once.

99307. Did you do anything the previous winter?—Nothing further than I have stated; that was the first year of the distress committee.

99308. That was the first year, the Act passed in 1905?—This was in December 1905, and then we continued in 1906.

99309. In the winter of 1906 did you continue?—We began in December 1905 and continued it through till the end of March or beginning of April in 1906.

99310. Then we come to the autumn and winter of 1906; what happened then?—What happened was this, the linen trade, or the staple trade as we call it, was booming. Employment was exceptionally brisk, and wages were increased twice, viz., May and February to mill-workers only. The price for yarns I never remember being so high before during that winter, and down to October of last year, and then the slump set in.

99311. So that practically you had no occasion to do anything in 1906-7?—Yes, and in addition to that, we had no local application from any bodies, other than individuals coming to us and seeking for employment, those were all the applications we had in a matter of that kind.

99312. In 1907-8, that is this last winter, you applied to the Irish Local Government Board for something or other, did you?—I think that we applied through that Board to the English Board for some of that money that I noticed the other day has been so widely distributed amongst yourselves. Unfortunately we were left out.

99313. The Irish Local Government Board had a separate fund, and separate payments from the Treasury?—They think we in Belfast are too rich.

99314. If I rightly understand you, you did not get anything from the Queen's Unemployed Fund?—Nothing.

99315. What reason did they give for not giving you anything?—We had the usual official acknowledgment, and that is about all.

99316. Did they give any official reason?—I cannot remember.

99317. Did they say they did not think you wanted any?—No, but we have a reputation over there of being a queer kind of people, and we do not get things of that kind, they think we ought to provide things for ourselves. They often say: "Why should wealthy people like you, with so much money amongst you, be continually begging." We do not get anything for the begging.

99318. (*Mr. Chandler.*) I think that outside Belfast there are no shipbuilding or large engineering works worth speaking about in Ireland, are there?—No; they started shipbuilding in Londonderry, I do not know with what success, and now they have (but I think it is more in connection with repair work for the Navy) in Cork Harbour and Queenstown. Some of our artisans have been sent there, on big jobs, that is when there were not sufficient men at Cork Harbour to do the work.

99319. It would be in a very small way, I suppose?—Very small indeed.

99320. There would be a large number employed in the shipbuilding industry in your city?—I think in Harland and Wolff's alone there are men and boys to the extent of about 12,000 employed there, when they are going fairly freely, and they have been for some time working busily, executing large orders; besides there are 7,000 employed in Workman and Clark's.

99321. When they are busy there is always a surplus, as you mention in your statement?—That is true. May I put it in my own way. I think when men come to be over forty-five it is known that more men are sent away on that account. For instance, some firms in Belfast have, since the Autumn of last year, adopted the method that all men in their employ had to fill in particulars with regard to their age and their pedigree, so to speak, before getting employment, and very many of those who were employed and who stated accurately their age and any physical defects they may have had are now going about unemployed.

99322. In times of depression in the shipyards and engineering works, when hundreds are thrown out of employment, what becomes of those?—With the exception of the unskilled, they are very well organised, that is

to say they are nearly all connected with trade societies for instance, not only the engineers, boilermakers, joiners shipwrights and such like are in societies, but the unskilled men are, as a rule, in the national Amalgamated Labour Union, so really they are pretty well organised in that way.

99323. There are no other firms in Ireland of a similar character they can go to; they simply wait on their unions until Harland and Wolff or Workman and Clark's can take them again?—Unless, as they frequently do, the unskilled apply to the corporation for a job, or get members of the corporation to use their influence in order to get them jobs. On account of Belfast improving so rapidly and extending so widely there are always improvement schemes, sewage schemes and such like being carried out in Belfast, and at times numbers of these men find employment.

99324. Are they artisans?—I do not say the artisan class, but the better paid, what one may call unskilled workmen. In the shipyards there are unskilled labourers, if you call them so, that is, the kind of men who are holders up and such like, who will earn for a full week's work anything between 25s. and 32s.

99325. You do not find that the workmen when slack in this branch of the industry, shipbuilding and engineering, come across here?—I was going to say the only places for them are Newcastle-on-Tyne, on the Clyde or north-east coast; that is where they do go. We have had in Belfast since our industry became so extensive a large number of English and Scotch workmen who came over and who have remained, but when employment becomes scarce they go to other shipyards on the Clyde and so forth.

99326. You said in answer to the Chairman that the 2,000 unemployed in Belfast was taken from the *Labour Gazette*, and he said that it was not local information. Would it not be information conveyed to the Board of Trade through your Belfast Labour correspondent?—Yes.

99327. So it would be local information conveyed to the Board of Trade?—Yes, it would be local in that sense, because there is no other way whereby they could obtain returns.

99328. He is specially appointed to collect this information and convey it to London?—Quite so.

99329. I see you state that the Corporation many years ago when work was scarce instituted relief works in your parks, and you mentioned that you were only able to employ about 150 men, but still 850 passed through that work?—Yes.

99330. That is a strange figure, it corresponds so closely with your experience in 1906 on your Distress Committee, where again you say you had some 800 persons registered?—Not only were the members of the corporation interested, but our officials fortunately were interested in it too, and in cases where they saw there was no other income coming into the family but what the men earned on the relief works, they gave them the best chance, and where there were earnings coming in by some other members of the family working they differentiated between them.

99331. Had your appeal for funds been responded to in order to provide wages, you could have found a scheme of work for these 850?—Yes, because Belfast, being a comparatively new City and not like any of your well established industrial centres here, we are always wanting improvements, and the difficulty is to get those improvements carried out because of the complaints of the ratepayer that he is already over-taxed, and he complains against the corporation on account of providing things that he considers wholly unnecessary.

99332. (*Mr. Bentham.*) You say that the period of duration of unemployment usually lasts about a quarter of the year, that is when unemployment is rife. Does that mean that it is recurring year by year?—Yes, it does, and I will try and explain why. I think it is getting more acute because Belfast at the present time is over-built. At the present time, I suppose, in Belfast there are 6,000 vacant houses.

99333. That is purely an estimate, I suppose?—But it is an estimate handed in to the corporation during the

Mr Robert Gageby.
6 April, 1908.

Migration of labour between England and Ireland.

Source of Board of Trade information.

Corporation relief works.

Duration of period of unemployment.
Over-building.

Mr. Robert Gageby.

6 April, 1908.

last two months by the police authorities. I will tell you why. There was a difference of opinion in the corporation respecting the number of ratings that were in the City, and there was an opinion outside that there were more vacant houses in Belfast than the corporation were aware of. The corporation asked the assistance of the police authorities with the result that the police authorities returned 6,000 houses as vacant. That does not mean that the same 6,000 houses are always vacant, but it is the interchange in the continual going backwards and forwards which goes on in a City like Belfast in order to suit employment, so that that gives us at the present time about 6,000 houses more than are inhabited.

Seasonal unemployment. 99334. To what do you attribute the seasonal character of employment? The linen industry is practically a staple industry and is busy all the year round, except in times of trade depression?—Yes.

99335. In what kind of labour is the seasonal work most?—Painters are in the winter season, as far as outside work is concerned, almost completely debarred. I was talking to a master painter who is a member of the corporation about a fortnight ago, and he said: We are affected every season, but never any season in my memory to equal the present one.

Slackness in building trade. 99336. They are very busy in summer, I suppose?—They are not so well employed as they used to be I am sorry to say, on account of the slump that there is in the building trade.

99337. What other trades would be affected in that way?—I do not think there would be any other trades affected from a seasonal point of view except those I have already mentioned, except the ordinary out-door labour.

Dock labour. 99338. What is the slackest time at the docks?—I do not think I could say any season of the year was actually slack, because we are going on extending and expanding, with the result that I do not think there was ever more trade done at the docks for a number of years than has been done recently. The work last year through the trade dispute, of course, was dislocated for a while.

Sufficiency of wage in seasonal trades and provision of relief employment. 99339. As painting is more or less a skilled trade, it is expected, of course, that painters will get sufficient wages during their summer employment to provide over the winter, and then they have their trade organisation to assist them besides, so that really there is no need for unemployed work for seasonal labour like that, is there?—It is this way, unfortunately we have a class that supposing they do earn 35s., 36s. or 38s. a week, they are not careful to make provision; and then we have another class of workers who are careful and thoughtful and prudent, who are rearing their families, and endeavouring as best they can to give them a better chance in life than their fathers had, and it takes it all to provide for the family, and the family's education, and otherwise.

99340. It is rather a dangerous thing to say that a certain class of the community cannot exist throughout the year when they are well-paid employees, and that the community should be doing something to provide them with employment during the slack season. That is rather a dangerous thing, is it not?—What I have said by way of explanation is based on my own experience, and it is, I think, the experience of every industrial centre; because the cost of living in towns is so great that there is a difficulty in saving money where there is a family of five or six to provide for. If he lives in any kind of decent house, and a man who is earning 35s. to 38s. a week will be expected to do so, if he wants to educate his family and provide for them and give them a start in life it would make him very busy; but unfortunately there is a class which makes no provision for anything of the kind; and these people are stranded when slack seasons come.

99341. If provision is made in a desirable manner for those, there would be no incentive to thrift on their part, would there; they would say: The corporation will provide work during the winter, why should we take any thought during the summer?—I have an opinion with regard to that question, and probably a very strong one, but I do not like to give expression to it because I did not take the opinion of the corporation upon it, and I do not want to express the opinion that I have without taking any direction upon it.

99342. Amongst the numbers who registered in the winter, say in February 1906, out of 928 registered we are told there are only seventy belonged to skilled trades and 830 were general labourers?—Yes. Proportion of skilled and unskilled register.

99343. Do you know what kind of labourers those were that registered as general labourers?—The general labourer in Belfast is the street labourer, or the man who is employed in corporation employment—or builders' labourers.

99344. There are very few skilled men amongst those who registered themselves?—Very few, because they are nearly all organised, they are connected with their trade unions.

99345. Do you see any way of organising the remainder in a way that would tide them over these acute times; have you thought of that at all?—Do I see any way of organising those who are unorganised and do not belong to the skilled trades? Organisation of the unskilled.

99346. Yes.—So far as Belfast is concerned there are two societies, one called the National Amalgamated Labourers' Union, and the other the Municipal Employees' Society; and both those societies are organised for the purpose of taking in all unskilled labourers; but they find that owing to one cause or the other very many of the men, whether they are unemployed or not, are not inclined to become members, because probably of what it would cost them, that is, that they do not join the union, as in my opinion they ought, to make provision for the bad times. On the whole, a labourer in Belfast is not so well paid as a labourer in England; but I suppose there is no other place in Ireland where the wages are so high. Wages of unskilled labour.

99347. What would be the wage for a general labourer in the building trade?—18s.

99348. What do the corporation pay their labourers?—The corporation have a minimum of £1. All men who are employed by the corporation, who are fit to do a fair day's work, have a minimum wage of 20s.; and the wage rises in some of the occupations as far as 23s., 24s. or 25s. a week. For instance, in the public health department they pay 22s. 6d. a week, and in the gas department they pay a higher wage on account of the severity of the labour.

99349. Do you get many labourers from the country seeking employment?—We do.

99350. Do they get preference over town men?—No, I do not think they do. There is one case, I do not know whether you will take it as evidence or not because I have no knowledge of it, but applications have been made to me by men who work at the quay, who are at present unemployed, to get them work in the corporation, and the reason that they give me for being unemployed is that they are displaced by country men. That is not my own experience, that the country men come in and make application to the employers on the quay, and that these country men are being given preference and other men are being displaced. Whether that is true or not, those are the statements made to me when applications are made by these men. Immigration of country labourers.

ONE HUNDRED AND FIFTY-EIGHTH DAY.

Monday, 11th May, 1908.

AT SCOTLAND HOUSE, WESTMINSTER, S.W.

PRESENT.

The Right Hon. Lord GEORGE HAMILTON, G.C.S.I.,
etc., etc., etc. (*Chairman*).
The Right Hon. Sir HENRY A. ROBINSON, K.C.B.
Sir SAMUEL B. PROVIS, K.C.B.
Mr. F. H. BENTHAM.
Dr. A. H. DOWNES.
The Rev. T. GAGE GARDINER.
Mr. C. S. LOCH.

Mr. T. HANCOCK NUNN.
The Rev. L. R. PHELPS.
Professor WILLIAM SMART.
The Rev. Prebendary H. RUSSELL WAKEFIELD.
Mrs. SIDNEY WEBB.
Miss OCTAVIA HILL.
Mr. FRANCIS CHANDLER.

Mr. R. H. A. G. DUFF (*Secretary*).
Mr. J. JEFFREY (*Assistant Secretary*).
Mr. E. J. E. CRAVEN (*Assistant Secretary*).

Mr. J. F. L. BLANKENBERG, called; and Examined.

Mr. J. F. L. Blankenberg.

100020. (*Chairman*.) I should like on behalf of the Commission to thank you very much in their name for your courtesy in coming here, and also for the valuable information which your Statement contains concerning the working of relief in Holland. Our practice is to take this paper and to ask you questions upon it, if you will formally hand it in?—Certainly. (*The Witness handed in the following Statement.*)

8. I was one of the founders of the Amsterdam Association of Charitable Institutions (Vereeniging van Armbesturen), and now I am taking an active part in the foundation of a General National Association of the same nature, including all the associations of charitable outdoor relief. 11 May, 1908. Title and qualifications of witness.

II.—THE DISTINCTIVE FEATURES OF THE DUTCH POOR LAW.

(Act of June 28th, 1854.)

I.—PERSONAL.

1. I have been engaged in voluntary charitable work for about 38 years. In 1871 I was one of the founders of an institution of private charity—an institution not only meant as a society for the distribution of relief, but even more as one of charity organisation. This society is called "Liefdadigheid Naar Vermogen," and I may be allowed to refer to a paper of mine describing it, published in the August number of 1906 of the Charity Organisation Review. (For reprint of paper, see *Appendix No. XXII. (A).*)

2. Formerly an honorary secretary, I am now the honorary president of the society, a position which I have held for the past eight years.

3. In 1885 I was elected a member of the Amsterdam Board of Guardians (Burgerlijk Armbestuur), and resigned at the end of 1907, after 23 years' service.

4. In my capacity of member of the Town Council of Amsterdam I principally devoted my attention to matters of public assistance, public medical relief, organisation of local public charity, municipal care for the unemployed, co-operation between public and other charities, and so on.

5. The experience so gained of public and private charity led me to the conviction that the poor-law system of my country wanted thorough reform and improvement. I therefore took an active part in promoting such reform—first of all in publishing, along with two friends of mine (Dr. H. J. de Dompierre de Chauffepié and Sir H. Smitsaert), a complete record and description of all the public, church, and private charities existing in Holland.

6. It is a kind of descriptive register of all the existing charitable organisations, numbering 7,476. Its title is, "Gids voor de Nederlandsche Weldadigheid" ("Guide to the Dutch Charitable Institutions"), 1900." Prior to this publication, a general report on the reform of charity, drawn up by Dr. H. Goeman Borgesius, Dr. A. F. K. Hartogh, Dr. R. J. H. Patyn, Dr. H. J. de Dompierre de Chauffepié, and myself, was published in 1895.

7. In 1900 a weekly paper was founded, entitled, "Tijdschrift voor Armenzorg" ("Charity Review"), of which Dr. H. J. de Dompierre de Chauffepié, Sir H. Smitsaert, and myself are the editors. The "Review" is now in its ninth year.

9. The principle set forth in the Dutch Poor Law is that of leaving all poor relief in the hands of churches and private charities, public administration only intervening in cases where these two latter groups do not help. This principle is laid down in Sections 20 and 21 of the law, as follows:—

Sources from which Dutch poor relief springs.

(20) The relief of the poor is left to the charity of the ecclesiastical and private institutions, subject to the regulations of this Act.

(21) No public administration is entitled to give any relief to the poor unless it has as much as possible evidence that they cannot receive the same from ecclesiastical or private charitable institutions, and then only in the case of absolute emergency.

10. The cost of public poor relief is paid out of the funds of the Communes; there is no general poor rate in Holland, every municipality paying its own charges for the purpose out of the municipal taxes.

11. The law relates only to charitable in and out door relief, and does not apply to the prevention of poverty.

12. Four groups of poor relief are recognised by law:

(1) Relief by the State, Provinces, or Communes.

(2) Relief by churches, and to the benefit of their own members.

(3) Relief by private institutions.

(4) Relief by mixed bodies, i.e., by institutions governed by public administration in connection with churches or with private charities.

13. Every municipality is bound to have and maintain a register of all the charities existing in the registration locality, and divided into these four groups. Every institution is bound to send in to the municipality its rules and regulations and to intimate every alteration made in them. If they do not, every member of their board is liable to penalty.

14. Yearly, every charitable institution must send in to the Home Department statistical figures as to its work in the form prescribed by the Home Secretary. These statistics are the basis of the Yearly Report on Poor Relief in the country.

Mr. J. F. L. Blunkenberg.

11 May, 1908.

Municipal registration of charities. Distinctive features of of Dutch relief.

Percentage of cases relieved by charity and public administration.

15. The law obliges every charitable institution to give evidence to the municipal authorities, when asked, whether any person applying for relief to such authorities can be assisted by the former.

16. There exists no legal right on relief; the decisions of the bodies administering municipal relief are without appeal.

17. All expenses resulting from municipal relief given to a poor person form a charge upon the locality in which he is residing.

18. The cost of in and out door relief to a poor person is recoverable from himself should his position improve, from his relations to a certain extent, and after his death from his estate, if this proves to be sufficient.

19. Private charities may receive, under circumstances, allowances from the municipality.

20. The principle of the Poor Law being the non-interference of public administration, it is evident that the lead should be taken by church and private charities; but in the event of these latter not being able to take care of the poor as they ought to do, the public administration is always present to give its support.

21. However, the aim of this legislation has not been attained. If it was, the percentage of the total cost of poor relief spent by public administration should have fallen.

22. But the contrary is the case, as will be seen from the following statement of percentages:—

Year.	Public.	Churches.	Private
1854	40·1	50·4	9·5
1857	40·4	50·4	9·5
1869	48·4	42·2	9·4
1890	42·8	44·7	12·5
1896	41·8	43·4	14·8
1900	44·7	41·9	13·4
1903	47·6	39·1	13·3

23. Contrary to the aim of the law, public administration paid more than either the churches or private charity.

24. In order to give a summary of the existing charities I may state that there were at work:—

OUTDOOR RELIEF.

Municipal institutions	-	-	1,198
Charities of 40 different churches	-	-	3,057
Private charities	-	-	1,041

INDOOR RELIEF.

Old people	-	-	-	710
Orphanages	-	-	-	360
Destitute and fallen women and children	-	-	-	69
Hospitals	-	-	-	712

GENERAL RELIEF.

Employment	-	-	-	223
Special cases	-	-	-	72
Foreigners	-	-	-	24

(1898.) 7,476

25. The indoor relief is for the larger part in the hands of the churches. Some municipalities have their homes for old men and women, also orphanages and hospitals. Private charities do the same, but, generally speaking, the churches are the chief dispensers of this kind of assistance.

26. Municipal indoor relief is, of course, also limited to what is strictly necessary. This means that it has a somewhat different character from the indoor relief as provided by the churches and private charities. It is more restricted, elementary, and does not give much comfort to inmates.

27. An exception is made by municipal hospitals, for the very plausible reason that these institutions are mainly established for the sake of public health and the recovery and nursing of the sick and suffering, which involve a more generous scheme of support.

28. In Amsterdam there are two municipal hospitals, which are always overcrowded. But the municipality has made an arrangement with several other hospitals belonging to different churches and private associations under which sick poor, if they so wish, must be received by these hospitals, subject to a fee of 1s. 6d. per day per patient being paid by the municipality. A system of control is arranged in order to prevent abuses, which could easily occur in unduly lengthening the stay of the sick poor in these hospitals at the cost of the municipality.

29. Poor lunatics are a charge upon the municipalities, but the provinces have to provide for the establishment of asylums as far as no other asylums exist.

30. Outdoor medical relief at the home is, generally speaking, a charge upon the municipalities. In Amsterdam, the largest town and capital of Holland, this administration was thoroughly reformed some six years ago. Under the management of a Central Direction, this part of public service is organised in nine districts. Every district has charge of the sick poor inhabitants of the district. Serving in every district are two doctors (one being the local district manager), one surgeon, one obstetric doctor, two nurses, and from two to four midwives.

31. Every district has its office, open daily at an early hour, for the purpose of receiving and attending poor persons suffering from slight ailments. Serious illness is attended to in the homes of the poor, and the cases are nursed by the municipal nurses. The Central Direction has to supervise the efficient and careful attendance of the poor sick by the municipal medical men. This system is working admirably well, and is of great benefit to the poor, as well as being of advantage to the hospitals, which would prove to be of insufficient capacity if this service did not exist.

32. The statistics of poor and poor relief, I am sorry to say, are very incomplete and rather unreliable, on account of the want of uniformity with which the different institutions make their statements to the Government. There is an astonishing misapprehension between these institutions as to the character of the poor to be reported. Some give the number of families, others the number of the total individuals (members of families) supported. Others, again, report the number of cases; several do not take notice of relief to the same families receiving help also from other institutions. In themselves the existing statistics are not quite reliable, but I think that, nevertheless, some general information may be derived from them if we compare them for a series of years, because the same errors are reproduced every year, and this neutralises the defects to a certain extent, at least.

33. The number of assisted poor (outdoor relief) amounted to the following figures:—

Year.	All the Year Round.	Temporary Relief.	Total.	Population.
1887	95,207	130,251	225,458	4,390,857
1892	106,817	147,001	253,818	4,669,576
1896	100,612	135,764	236,376	4,928,658
1901	95,304	85,391	180,695	5,263,232
1902	94,695	89,052	183,747	5,347,182
1903	91,348	85,761	177,109	5,430,961

34. The cost of administration of poor relief (expenses for employment excepted) by all the different institutions together amounted in :—

		Population.	Per head.
	£		s. d.
1887 to - - - - -	1,002,343	4,450,890	4 8
1892 „ - - - - -	1,193,617	4,669,576	5 1
1896 „ - - - - -	1,153,736	4,928,658	4 8
1901 „ - - - - -	1,482,146	5,263,232	5 7
1904 „ - - - - -	1,582,500	5,509,659	5 9

The increase is only a slight one.

III.—A COMPARISON BETWEEN THE FIGURES OF DIFFERENT TOWNS.

35. A comparison between the figures of different towns cannot be given on a large scale, but the following figures, regarding the *Municipal Relief*, may prove of interest.

TOTAL Cost per Inhabitant.

Year.	The Kingdom.	Communities, having a Population of					
		Under 2,001 inh.	From 2,001 to 5,000.	Under 5,001.	From 5,001 to 20,000.	From 20,001 to 50,000.	Above 50,000.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
1898 - - -	1 9	-	-	1 0	1 9	1 9	2 9½
1901 - - -	1 11	0 10	1 2	1 1	1 8½	1 9½	3 3½
1904 - - -	2 1	0 10½	1 2½	1 1	1 9	1 11½	3 10

36. In comparing the cost of municipal relief, as between towns of more than 50,000 population, we arrive at the following amount per inhabitant :—
Year 1904. General cost in towns of more than 50,000 inhabitants :—

	s. d.
As above - - -	3 10
Amsterdam - - -	5 2
Arnhem - - -	1 10½
The Hague - - -	2 9
Groningen - - -	4 10
Haarlem - - -	2 8
Leiden - - -	1 10½
Rotterdam - - -	3 7½
Utrecht - - -	2 6

I intentionally omit giving the absolute figures of relief, being of opinion that the cost per inhabitant will be of higher interest for the purpose of the Commission.
If wanted the absolute figures can, however, be given also.

37. The amount of the total expenses per inhabitant for poor relief (with the exception of employment) in the years undermentioned were as follows :—

	1898.	1901.	1904.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Municipalities - -	1 9	1 11	2 1
Churches - - -	2 1½	2 2½	2 2
Private - - -	0 10	0 9½	0 9
Total - - -	5 5	5 8	5 9½

38. These expenses per inhabitant in towns with a higher population than 50,000 were, for the year 1904, as follows :—

	Municipal.	Churches	Private.	Total.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Amsterdam -	5 2	3 10	2 0	11 0
Arnhem -	1 10½	4 2½	0 7½	6 8½
The Hague -	2 9	3 7	1 5	7 9
Groningen -	4 10	2 5½	0 3	7 6½
Haarlem -	2 8	5 7½	1 3½	9 7
Leiden -	1 10½	2 10½	0 6	5 3
Rotterdam -	3 7½	2 9	1 2½	7 7
Utrecht -	2 6	3 2½	3 1	8 9½
The average -	3 10	3 5½	1 7	8 10½

IV.—VAGRANTS AND VAGABONDS.

39. Vagrants and vagabonds are committed by the Courts to a system of hard work, not in workhouses, but in so-called colonies.

Mr. J. F. L. Blankenberg. Were present in such colonies in the year :—

11 May, 1908.	Number of vagrants in colonies.	Men.	Women.	Total.
1887	- -	2,036	—	2,036
1888	- -	2,832	—	2,832
1889	- -	2,578	—	2,578
1890	- -	3,686	242	3,928
1891	- -	3,663	229	3,892
1892	- -	3,389	205	3,594
1893	- -	3,428	170	3,598
1894	- -	3,416	165	3,581
1895	- -	3,625	138	3,763
1896	- -	3,463	135	3,598
1897	- -	3,563	140	3,703
1898	- -	3,611	148	3,759
1905	- -	6,332	138	6,470

40. By far the larger part of these people are committed on account of vagrancy ; the smallest part being on account of drunkenness.

Ghentsystem of unemploy-ment assur-ance in vogue 41. As to the unemployed, no reliable figures are at hand. In the larger cities (Amsterdam, for instance) the Municipality has organised a scheme of assurance against unemployment, on the Ghent-system. But this has only been done lately, so that no statistics of any value are available.

Number of unemployed relieved since 1877. 42. The yearly Government reports state the number of unemployed relieved, as follows :—

—	In Work-shops.	Other-wise.	Total.
1877	1,476	2,926	4,402
1878	1,456	2,896	4,352
1879	1,561	3,172	4,733
1880	1,687	3,533	5,240
1881	1,486	3,205	4,691
1882	1,136	2,790	3,935
1883	1,159	2,512	3,671
1884	1,103	2,646	3,749
1885	1,247	3,128	4,375
1886	1,336	3,206	4,542
1887	1,375	3,203	4,578
1888	1,479	3,327	4,806
1889	1,475	3,250	4,725
1890	1,677	3,290	4,967
1891	1,813	3,071	4,884
1892	1,679	3,215	4,894
1893	1,653	2,961	4,614

—	In Work-shops.	Otherwise.	Total.	Number of unemployed relieved since 1877.
1894	1,483	3,022	4,505	Statistical er.
1895	13,538	3,085	16,623	
1896	18,370	2,745	21,115	
1897	21,269	2,069	23,338	
1898	18,029	1,673	19,702	
1901	2,499	1,261	3,760	
1904	2,273	1,134	3,407	

The figures for 1895 to 1898 are of no value, being the result of a big mistake made in the official returns. They represent the amount of days during which the unemployed have been employed in workshops, instead of the number of unemployed.

V.—THE ELBERFELD-SYSTEM.

43. Although in later years public sympathies are tending towards this system of care for the poor and distribution of the gifts, it is not yet adopted by public services of Holland. The Poor Law in this country makes the adoption of the Elberfeld-system rather difficult.

44. Several private charities have, however, adopted it for some years. I may be allowed to refer to a short paper published by me in the "Charity Organisation Review" of August, 1906 (a copy of which is added to this statement (*see Appendix No. XXII. (A)*), and dealing with the leading private association in Amsterdam, called Liefdadigheid Naar Vermogen. Similar associations, whose working-plan is also based on the Elberfeld-system, are at work in Haarlem, Utrecht, Leeuwarden, Arnhem, Breda, Alk-maar, The Hague and Rotterdam.

45. In my opinion, the Elberfeld system is the only means by which, in large cities, poor relief can be given on a naturally large scale without incurring the danger of pauperisation.

46. This, indeed, is the greatest evil to be avoided, but also the most difficult to avoid. In dividing a large "agglomeration" into as many smaller ones as the number of poor to be assisted will render necessary, and in placing the decision of applications for assistance in the hands of the smaller body (district), which is personally acquainted with the case, the evil or danger of red tape and unsound decisions is entirely eliminated.

47. The fundamental principle of the Elberfeld system is very simple and logical, bringing help from man to man. This system, however, wants two main essentials :—

(a) A considerable number of voluntary workers.

(b) The sense in each of them of disciplined work, i.e., the willingness to serve in an organisation, and to follow the instructions and general rules laid down by the central managing body.

48. The application of this system in Holland is still young, having only been in operation for some 15 years. But experience has shown that, although the Dutch mind does not so easily accept the direction of others as Germans do, nevertheless no serious difficulty has arisen, and I may state that it is working admirably.

49. The system being, of course, perfectly known to the Royal Commission, I think a detailed description will be unnecessary.

VI.—POOR LAW REFORM IN HOLLAND.

50. As already stated in Part II. of this memorandum, the Dutch law wants thorough reform. It is a most unhappy feature that such reform is mixed up with politics, which in reality have nothing to do with the case.

51. The problem which a Poor Law has to solve and regulate being mainly concerned with the best and least costly way in which the poor have to be supported, I fail to see where politics have to be introduced.

52. But it cannot be denied that politics do enter into the situation, and the deplorable result of it is that reform is always put off and that at every change of Government the Poor Law reform is brought to nil.

53. In the last 10 years we have had three different Cabinets, each of which has prepared a Bill, but before it could be submitted for discussion a new Cabinet had come into power, and withdrew its predecessor's scheme.

54. So, poor (and philanthropic workers) have been waiting ever so long. But in the meantime some results have nevertheless been attained by public discussions in papers and at meetings, promoted principally by the advocates of private charity. These discussions have brought about an average "communis opinio."

55. The main points round which a future reform will probably centre are the following:—

- (1) In every town an association of all the existing charities (public, church, and private) to be established, in order to secure co-operation and efficient organisation.
- (2) In every town a central register to be instituted, in which all the names and addresses of the assisted poor shall be recorded for consultation by all the associated charities.
- (3) Public relief to be organised on the Elberfeld plan.

J. F. L. BLANKENBERG.

Amsterdam, April 12th, 1908.

100021. (*Chairman.*) The Act regulating the Dutch Poor Law was passed in the year 1854, I understand?—Yes, a little more than half a century ago.

100022. There exists no legal right to relief in Holland, does there?—No.

100023. And there is no appeal to a court of law?—There is nothing of that sort.

100024. The peculiar feature of your system seems to me to be that indoor relief is largely in the hands of the churches?—Yes, that is so.

100025. In indoor relief do you include medical relief?—No, we do not include medical relief in that; we mean the relief given in old age and to orphans and so on.

100026. You mean the relief given to children and old people?—Yes.

100027. In Amsterdam there are two municipal hospitals, you say; is the treatment there free?—Not quite. For the down-right poor it is free, of course, but anyone who is on the edge of poverty has to pay something according to his income.

100028. That, I suppose, is settled by the authority?—Yes, by the town authority.

100029. Does that practice work well?—It does work well. If the patient could not pay himself, his relatives might pay—his father or his son, for instance.

100030. Outdoor medical relief, I understand, is a free charge on the municipality?—Yes.

100031. Is that relief generally free?—That relief is quite free. It was instituted only about six years ago, with a view to relieving the burden on the hospitals.

100032. In every district I suppose there are doctors and nurses?—Yes.

100033. And each district has its office?—Yes, there is a small office in each district.

100034. It is open every day?—Yes, from half-past eight till eleven o'clock in the morning.

100035. Is all the medical relief there given free?—Yes, it is given all free.

100036. May anybody apply for this relief, or must they have a limited income?—Everybody can get relief, but before relief is given gratuitously an inquiry is made by the paid officials of the town, whether the applicant is or is not able to pay something; if, on this inquiry, it turns out that he cannot pay, then he receives the medical relief free, but if it turns out that he can pay something, then, of course, a small amount is charged.

100037. If a man who is ill or whose family is ill was to go to one of these offices and receive medical relief, and afterwards it appeared that he could afford to pay, would he be made to pay?—Yes, he would.

Mr. J. F. L. Blankenberg.
11 May, 1908.

100038. To use a common expression, the doctors of the district office would treat him first and then inquire afterwards; is that what would happen?—No. The inquiry is made first. At the beginning of the year, anyone can apply for the right to medical relief in the case of himself or his family becoming ill; then inquiry is made by the paid officers of the town, and he is put on the list. If his name is placed upon the list, then he can get his medical relief for nothing by going to one of these offices.

100039. But if he is not on the list, he could not get it free?—No.

100040. Are the lists revised every year?—They are revised every half-year.

100041. Your statistics of poor relief are not very complete, I think you say?—No; I regret to say they are not.

Unreliability of Poor Law statistics.

100042. Therefore, we must not attach too much importance to the figures which you give us?—Not too much, but, of course, a comparison spread over a series of years is of value.

100043. Do the figures you give us in Paragraph 33 include the number of times a person has been relieved—because a person might be relieved two or three times in the same year—or do they only include the number of persons relieved? Obviously the column headed "All the year round" answers itself, but in the column headed "Temporary relief" the same person might have been relieved more than once, and might be counted more than once?—Assistance is given up to a maximum of one year, but we may give them assistance for two months or three months or four months or any other number of months, and then no relief is given perhaps until two months later, when relief has again become necessary. Those cases would come under the head "Temporary relief."

100044. So that a man might be counted twice?—In that case, yes.

100045. Therefore, the figures in that column would be rather in excess of the actual number of persons relieved?—They would be in excess of the number of physical persons relieved, when you are dealing with temporary relief.

100046. Now taking the cost of the Poor Law, and the number of persons relieved; your experience is, I think, that more persons are relieved in the towns than in the country?—That is the case with the big towns. You will see from my Statement that Amsterdam, which is the biggest town, has the highest percentage.

Comparison of rural and urban pauperism.

100047. Are there any districts in Holland which have no towns and are purely agricultural?—No. The towns are spread all over the country.

100048. But the pauperism is less in the rural districts than it is in the towns?—Yes.

100049. As regards vagrants and vagabonds, they are committed, you say, by the courts to a system of hard work in colonies?—Yes.

Deterrent effect of labour colonies.

100050. Are the colonies public colonies or are they undertaken by private persons?—There are two sorts of them; there are two which are maintained by the authorities, and there is one other which is maintained by a private charity.

100051. In Germany there are colonies which are private colonies, in the sense that they are superintended by private individuals; and then there are penal colonies which are associated with the Poor Law, and the penal workhouse is, I understand, more severe than the labour colony?—That is so.

100052. Is it the same in Holland?—Yes.

100053. If a vagrant or a vagabond is found, he is committed by a court of law?—Yes.

100054. Not by a Poor Law authority, but by a court of law?—Yes, by a regular court.

100055. Does your system of labour colonies answer very well?—It does remarkably.

Mr. J. F. L. Blankenberg. 100056. It does reclaim people, you think?—Yes, it does reclaim them. They hate it very much, and they do not want to be put in there again. But we have not many vagrants, if you will allow me to say so—not many men who wander along the highways.

11 May, 1908. Drunkenness and its effect on pauperism. 100057. A vagrant or a vagabond is committed to one of your labour colonies for a certain time, is he not?—Yes; it depends upon the case.

100058. When he comes out, is he given any money as representing the work he has done?—Yes. Whilst he is there some money is put by for him, and when he comes out, he gets a certain amount. I do not think very highly of that system, because when he gets out he spends it pretty much in drinking.

100059. But, on the other hand, if he had no money he could not support himself?—That is right; but I should prefer a system which would not hand him his money all at once. The longer he has been in the colony, the more money he has in his pockets when he leaves it, and the more he drinks. If we could establish a system by which the payment of the money was spread over some months, I think that would be better.

100060. Is drunkenness a great cause of pauperism in Holland?—Yes, it is a most dreadful cause.

100061. Is it one of the main causes?—Yes. But I am glad to say that drunkenness in Holland is going down. In former times, about twenty years ago say, in Amsterdam we were constantly seeing drunken people, but now we do not see so many. Happily, there is an improvement in that respect; and we have had lately an Act passed to deal with the subject.

100062. As regards the unemployed in Amsterdam, I think the municipality have organised a system of insurance against unemployment, based on the Belgian system?—Yes.

100063. Have you watched its working at all?—Yes; I have taken part in it myself as a town councillor. It has only been in existence for two years, so I cannot give you many particulars about it. It has not taken much root in Amsterdam as yet.

100064. It seemed to me that this system would be of use to the organised and skilled trades?—Yes, it would.

100065. But that it does not touch the unskilled trades?—No, it does not touch the unorganised trades; and that is the great difficulty. However, it may induce the men to join a union.

100066. I suppose you have in Amsterdam a good many of what we call the casual class, that is, persons who are employed in loading and unloading ships?—Yes.

100067. The classes who are not in constant employment are an improvident lot as a rule, are they not?—That is right.

100068. That is your experience?—Yes, that is so.

100069. This scheme would not touch them, would it?—It is only at its beginning to-day in Amsterdam.

100070. Although it is a benefit to the better-class workers and to those trades which are organised, it does not really touch the most difficult class of all?—No, not yet.

100071. Do you think it will?—I fear very much that it will not. It only means that some of the labourers will be induced to join an organisation; and they will do so of course in their own interests.

100072. It may, in that way, indirectly do them good by inducing them to join a union?—Yes; but perhaps after five or six years it will be otherwise.

100073. I suppose the difficulty is that you cannot get this class to pay weekly subscriptions?—No; they do not pay anything.

Adoption of Elberfeld system in Holland. 100074. As regards the Elberfeld system, I understand that in Germany the authorities are able to put some pressure on individuals to join?—Yes.

100075. Are you able to put any pressure of the same kind in Holland?—No, you cannot do that in Holland; we have not the same power in that respect.

100076. Has the Elberfeld system worked well in Holland?—As I say in my Statement, it has only been adopted by private charity. As far as Amsterdam goes, I am the President there, and it works admirably.

We have a staff of 400 or 500 workers, and it has gone on very well for the fifteen years that it has been established.

100077. Can you get sufficient workers?—At present, yes. We have had more; we have had 600, and now we have only about 400, so that it has gone backwards a little bit. But we have always got people; we have not had any difficulty in that respect.

100078. The Elberfeld system applies only to charity in Holland, does it?—Only to charity.

100079. Charity plays a larger part in dealing with pauperism in Holland than in most countries, does it not?—I do not think so.

100080. (*Miss Hill.*) Not if you count the churches in? The churches play a very large part in your system?—Yes.

100081. (*Mr. Loch.*) Does that not in some way qualify your answer, that the churches play a smaller part in the whole business than the official relief? If we take the three, the municipality, the churches, and the private charity, the total intervention represented by the last two is larger than the intervention represented by the municipality alone, is it not?—Yes.

100082. (*Chairman.*) When I used the word "charity," I meant both the charity of the churches and private charity, and from the Appendix A. (*See Appendix No. XXII. (A)*) which you have handed in, it would seem that the percentage of charitable relief in that sense is greater than the percentage of State relief?—Yes, it is so. The object of the law has been to take as much as possible of this work out of the hands of the State. That aim has not been attained yet; the State has always to do more and more, while the churches are going back.

100083. There has been a difficulty about passing a law to reform the Poor Law in Holland, and in the last paragraph of your Statement you enumerate what are the points upon which future reform should be based. Your first proposal is that there should be an association of all the existing charities (State, church, and private) in order to secure co-operation and efficient organisation?—Yes.

100084. Your next proposal is to have a central register in every town, in which the names and addresses of the assisted poor shall be recorded?—Yes.

100085. I suppose now there is no central register of all the persons who are helped by charity?—At present not throughout the land, but in Amsterdam we have succeeded, by hard work and by always keeping to this point, in forming an association of the charities; but that is only in Amsterdam. There we have a register. Every one of the charities gives the names of their assisted poor to the keeper of the register; and so everyone in Amsterdam who is concerned in charitable work, when taking up a case, goes at once to the register and looks to see if the name is there, and if so, by what charity it has been put on the list, and then he goes to get the particulars from that church or charity, and so on.

100086. Did the charities dislike giving that information at first?—Yes, very much. With the churches we had very hard work. The churches said—I can speak frankly of course—"You do not want to know whom I am assisting; if I assist a brother of mine, I never tell what I give my brother." But that is all very well when that brother is going to another charity and asking for more money; then, of course, both parties have an interest in knowing from whom he already gets something. By persuasion and continuous work, we have at last succeeded in forming such a register, and at present there is only one church that does not agree; that is the Calvinist. We have forty churches in Holland.

100087. Your third and last proposal is that public relief should be organised on the Elberfeld plan?—Yes, that is so.

100088. The Elberfeld plan means that each person should be visited constantly, does it not?—Yes.

100089. Do you attach much importance to that constant visitation?—I attach paramount importance to it. Each of our visitors sees very few poor—at the most five families; so he can look after them all.

100090. (*Prebendary Russell Wakefield.*) With regard to the money that the churches have; is that money which they collect year by year, or is it money that they have in

endowment?—It is both. The principal churches in Holland are rich, but their wealth has gone down, because the churches are not so much attended as they used to be. The Catholic Church, of course, does well, but the other churches are not so well attended as they were in former times, so they do not give much, as they have not much money to give. They collect every Sunday in the churches, but, of course, when the people do not go to church they do not collect much.

100091. I suppose the wealthier churches are those that have not now so large an attendance?—Yes.

100092. Unless there was this system of combination between the various bodies, the churches, the State, and the private charities, some people might get help in three directions?—Yes.

100093. And those, of course, would be the least deserving?—Yes. That is what the register is meant to deal with. I had a case lately where a person came to my society and said he was a Protestant, and then he went to another society and said he was a Catholic. If you do not mutually aid each other in this respect, you will be deceived, of course.

100094. With regard to your labour colonies and the giving of money to these people when they go out, in Belgium they find very often that a person is anxious to get out directly he knows he has a fair amount of money, in order that he may have a thorough drinking bout; do you find the same sort of thing in Holland?—With us he cannot get out when he likes; he must stay for the due time.

100095. But when he has, so to speak, amassed money through the work that he does, is not the good conduct that he shows sometimes due to the fact that he desires to get a good character, in order to get a permit to go out as early as possible?—I do not quite follow your question.

100096. What happens in Belgium is this: They find that a man works extremely well in the colonies, and when he has got a certain amount of money put by, he is given a permit to go out, and he then goes and has a drinking bout and then he passes on to another colony, and changes his colony so to speak?—Yes, that is so.

100097. Sometimes they find he goes to Brussels and gets his drink there; then he goes for the night into the poorhouse which there is there for travellers, and then he goes back to the colony?—Yes.

100098. Does that kind of thing happen with you?—Yes, we have had that also.

100099. Should you say that there is a real reformation of character, nevertheless, produced by the colonies as a rule?—No. I only consider the colonies as a means of locking them up.

100100. And keeping them away from temptation?—Yes.

100101. You think that practically the continuous detention is almost the only safeguard for that sort of person?—Yes, I think so. You cannot alter the character of the man, you see.

100102. You say that all expenses resulting from municipal relief given to a poor person form a charge upon the locality in which he is residing?—Yes.

100103. You say many of your towns are small and they are mapped all round the country; does that mean the town or the commune?—The town itself. For instance, in Amsterdam a poor man comes from, say The Hague or from Rotterdam; when he gets to Amsterdam he is poor, and Amsterdam must relieve him.

100104. Is the fact that indoor relief is, for the larger part, in the hands of the churches, due to the fact that in the past days the buildings were put up by the churches?—Yes.

100105. But they find it is more difficult every year for them to keep their institutions going?—Yes.

100106. Have you any simple labour registries or labour bureaux in Holland?—No, we have not.

100107. You have nothing of that sort?—No. Last week in Amsterdam we founded a kind of municipal exchange for labourers who are in search of work to come to, and for employers to come to for labourers.

100108. You have just started one then?—There was one in Amsterdam under private enterprise, but now the town has taken it over. *Mr. J. F. L. Blankenberg.*

100109. It is a municipal one now then?—Yes, since last week. *11 May, 1908.*

100110. Up to the present, do you believe that it has done good work?—Yes; still it is very small in amount; it has not been of much importance so far. *Municipal labour bureau.*

100111. They want to be more known, I suppose?—Yes.

100112. Do the employers go to it themselves?—Yes; the employers go there as a rule.

100113. (*Mr. Nunn.*) Referring to Paragraph 39, does that table give the actual increase in number of vagrants and vagabonds sent to the colonies in each succeeding year?—Yes. *Cause of increase in labour colony men.*

100114. Is that in proportion to population; in other words, has the population increased proportionately?—I give the population in Paragraph 33.

100115. The increase shown in Paragraph 39 is out of all proportion to the increase in population, I see?—Yes.

100116. How do you account for that increase yourself?—You see the larger part are men; so I think the laws against drunkenness are now being more stringently taken in hand and applied. Drunken people are more often put into these colonies now than they were in former times.

100117. This increase shown in Paragraph 39 then is due to increased vigour of administration?—That is what I think. *Causes of increased Poor Law relief by State.*

100118. Now taking the figures which show how the public assistance has gradually increased, may I ask you to account for that?—There are two main reasons. In the first place, as I told you, the assistance given by the churches has been reduced, and on the other hand we have been more liberal in later years, and we frequently assist people whom we would not have assisted thirty years ago.

100119. In what direction is there that increase of public assistance? Are fresh classes of people brought in?—No, there are no other classes introduced, but more money is given.

100120. More is given in each case?—Yes. In Amsterdam, for instance, the poor relief of the town is limited to 5s. per week, and in former times the average was only one florin, that means 1s. 8d.; but that average of 1s. 8d. has been raised to, I think, about 2s.

100121. Are the percentages given in Paragraph 22 percentages of expenditure or of persons relieved?—That relates to money.

100122. You have no corresponding table of the number of persons, have you?—I can send it over, if you like.

100123. That would be very interesting; perhaps we may have that?—I will send it with pleasure. (*See Appendix No. XXII (B).*)

100124. May I ask whether any of the money voted by the municipality is taken to the poor in their own homes by the voluntary workers?—In Amsterdam it is. *Despatch of municipal relief by voluntary workers.*

100125. The municipal relief is taken to their own homes by voluntary workers, and not by the officers?—That is so; the municipal relief is taken to the houses themselves by the voluntary workers. That is a very good system.

100126. Has that always been done?—That system is only four years old. In former times we had large rows of people standing outside the office, and that was a very bad system. Now that is all changed, and every penny is taken into the house of the man or woman who is assisted, by the voluntary workers—even the municipal relief. That is a very good system; indeed it is a very great improvement.

100127. May I ask how the municipal authority get the voluntary workers?—The town has made an arrangement with the different churches, so that, for instance, a Catholic poor person can be helped by his Catholic organisation. These organisations are established especially for the purpose. *Organisation for co-operation of voluntary and municipal relief.*

100128. Does that involve any meeting between the various societies?—Yes. That is quite a new system,

Mr. J. F. L. Blankenberg. but there will be a general meeting of all the workers all round. Then, in addition to that, the boards of guardians come together and meet separately every association—the Catholics, the Protestants, the Jews, and so on.

11 May, 1908.

Organisation for co-operation of voluntary and municipal relief. 100129. Have you a separate conference of the municipal authority, the charities, and the churches in Amsterdam?—Yes.

100130. In each of the nine districts into which Amsterdam is divided?—No.

100131. Then the conference is for the whole of Amsterdam?—Yes.

100132. That must be a very large meeting, must it not?—I think it means about 500 people. When the board of guardians meet every association separately that is where the work is done. The other meeting, the big meeting, will only be a kind of social function, so to say.

100133. How often are the smaller meetings held?—It is intended to have them twice a year; but this is only a new organisation, as I told you, and the larger scale was only introduced about half a year ago.

100134. It is very general in its work, I suppose, and does not deal with individual cases?—No, of course not. It is intended to deal with the general functions, the way in which improvements can be introduced, and so on. The church organisations, for instance, can make known their wishes, and everything they ask can be considered. The object is the improvement of the system.

100135. Does the municipality pay any of the working expenses of the charities?—No.

100136. Nor of the churches?—No. It is all done by voluntary self-sacrifice, I might say.

100137. Referring to Paragraph 26, is there a clear line of demarcation between the classes assisted by the charities and those assisted by the municipality?—No, there is not a clear line of demarcation.

100138. Those who are assisted by the municipality are not the more destitute?—No, they are not. The municipality gives assistance where a man is starving, even if he has been a drunken man, for instance; it gives him assistance in the shape of bread, coal, and so on, but it does not give him money, and, of course, it does not allow a man to starve. The private charities, of course, have another consideration in their action, and that is the desire to better the man.

100139. And to prevent the causes?—Yes. My impression is that a drinking man never can be bettered and that once a drunkard ever a drunkard. That is my experience. We have now a colony in the north of Holland which has been established for the purpose of improving drinking people, and my experience is that it does not help much unless the man stays longer than a year—then it might be of some use. But, generally speaking, the people who have been there for less than a year fall back into their old habits.

100140. You say in Paragraph 18: "The cost of in and outdoor relief to a poor person is recoverable from himself should his position improve;" does that apply to municipal relief only?—Yes, only to municipal relief.

100141. And not to charity?—The law does not permit it in the case of private charity, but the law does permit it in the case of municipal relief.

100142. It is recovered by legal process, then?—Yes; sometimes it is done. In my career as a member of a board of guardians we have done it twice, and we got back our money.

100143. (*Prebendary Russell Wakefield.*) In how many years is that?—Twenty-three years.

100144. (*Mr. Nunn.*) Have you given the population of Amsterdam in your Statement?—No. It is now about 600,000.

100145. You speak of the registration of relief in each individual case; that must be done in districts in Amsterdam, I suppose?—We have a central office for that; it is a private association of all the charities.

100146. One central office for a city with 600,000 persons?—Yes; but not every one of those is poor. In the central part of the town we have a small office, and every week all the different charities send in their lists.

100147. Is it done quite voluntarily?—Yes, and every name is entered in the register. Therefore, any voluntary or paid officer who has to examine into a case, first goes to the register and ascertains whether an applicant is known, and if he is known, then the officer applies to the charity to which the applicant is known. It works admirably well.

100148. When they find that a case is being assisted by two charities, do those two charities meet together?—Yes, of course. State supervision charity

100149. What sort of a decision do they arrive at—that both shall not help, or that they shall co-operate?—That is left to them personally to decide. The system has only been working for a few years now.

100150. Have you any meetings arranged for that?—Yes; we have a meeting every two months. I hope it will come to this, that when a man or a family has applied to more than one charity, those charities will arrange with each other only to send one person to inquire into the case. I consider it a very great evil to send several visitors from different charities to the same family; one says: "You look black," and the other says: "You look white," and so on. Therefore, the charities do not get any protection in that way. I hope it will come that in such a case the charities will delegate the visiting to one man and only one man, or one lady.

100151. And that one lady might represent two or three charities?—Yes. I think the worst thing you can do is to send two or three visitors to one family. I think that is a great mistake.

100152. Did you say that the municipal authority met the representatives of the charities every two months?—No. I said the associated charities in Amsterdam meet every two months, and we discuss different matters. That is a very good arrangement. We do not always speak about the individual poor we assist, but we speak about general questions—about, for instance, the interest we have in commerce, about the assistance we give in food, coal, and so on. Then we have meetings at which the subject of poor relief generally is discussed. Everyone can collect money in Holland for these purposes, but there has just been presented by the Government to Parliament a Bill regulating the collection of the money. We have had that Bill under discussion, and so on. Then we have discussed different methods of assistance in our association. Until last month we have not had in Holland a general society for the whole of the country, such as they have in Germany; but on April 27th, in Amsterdam, we established a society of that character, I am happy to say. But on the matter of a new Poor Law coming into force in Holland, I do not think I shall be alive when it is introduced; there is too much politics in it.

100153. In Paragraph 13 you say: "Every municipality is bound to have and maintain a register of all the charities existing in the locality, and divided into four groups." Can the municipality take any action upon the reports sent in by the charity?—No; it can do nothing at all.

100154. It is a mere registration, then?—Yes. If these charities do not register, they cannot receive money given to them by testament and so on. They must be on that list.

100155. Must they send in their accounts of income and expenditure, too?—Yes; there are general forms for that.

100156. Is there any rule about the accounts being audited?—The State officials and the town officials cannot make any remarks upon the accounts. They only hand them in. We have eleven counties in Holland, provinces we call them; and every province collects all these different statements from the town and makes a general statement in a yearly report to our Queen. Every year there is a report printed and published to the Queen on the position and the assistance which is given to the poor in Holland, and it consists of the information which is collected by these eleven provinces.

100157. (*Mr. Phelps.*) Have you a Socialist Party in Holland?—Yes, we have. Housing of poor and official inspection thereof

100158. What are its aims?—To have the assistance given by the State.

100159. Do you find in Holland that wealth is very unevenly divided?—Not so much as in England, I think.

Differentiation of classes relieved by charity and State.

Recovery of relief.

Registration of charities.

100160. The difference between rich and poor is not so great?—No, it is not so great.

100161. Do you find that the position of the poor is improving?—Generally speaking, no; I cannot say that I find it to be so.

100162. Do you think that their homes are better than they were?—Yes, the homes are better. We have a movement for the improvement of the homes in Holland. Generally speaking, the poor are poor on account of their own faults, and sometimes their own vices.

100163. Does the State take an active part in improving the homes?—Not the State, but we have now an Act which allows the towns to do so.

100164. The municipal government does it then?—Yes; the town council in Amsterdam at nearly every meeting condemns different homes of the poor.

100165. Do they inspect the houses of the poor?—Yes, a special Commission goes out and inspects them.

100166. Do they build houses for the poor?—Not yet; but there is a plan before the town council for doing so. The law authorises the town to do so, and the State will lend the money to the towns for it.

100167. Is the building of houses likely to be undertaken?—Yes.

100168. Do you find that people come from the country into the towns in Holland?—No, not so much. They are gaining a good living in the country—better than in the towns, I should say.

100169. You have, I think, some colonies of long standing, and you plant people out in the country from the towns?—Yes,

100170. One of them Frederiksoord?—Yes. I know the Frederiksoord colony.

100171. How is that working?—Admirably.

100172. It is doing well?—It is doing very well.

100173. Do you think they have got people to stay there?—Yes.

100174. As small peasant proprietors?—Yes; not in a great many cases, but there are some.

100175. Is anything of that kind attempted at Ommer-schans?—That is part of the same organisation.

100176. And at Veenhuizen you have the same thing?—Yes, there is the same thing at Veenhuizen also.

100177. Which is the colony to which beggars are sent?—Veenhuizen.

100178. Does the State manage that, or is it managed by private charity?—It is managed by the State.

100179. After a man has been there a certain time, is he given a piece of land?—No; he is given a bag of money and he goes away.

100180. They do not attempt to settle them in the country?—No.

100181. Has that ever been proposed?—No, it has not been proposed. But I do not think much of it, because they are quite destitute.

100182. Are they a different class of people to those who go to Frederiksoord?—Yes; I think the Veenhuizen people are the worst.

100183. But at Frederiksoord the experiment is successful, I gather?—It is very successful there, but not on a large scale—the scale there is small.

100184. Does the State supervise that?—Yes, the State supervises it.

100185. And supplies the money?—The money is raised by subscription, and so on.

100186. Have they a large endowment? Have they money invested, do you know?—I do not know exactly, and I cannot give you a definite reply to that.

100187. Do your charitable societies emigrate people across the sea at all?—No. The Salvation Army in Holland send every one out to Canada.

100188. Do they send any people to the Dutch Colonies in the Indies?—No; they would not be admitted.

100189. Do they send any to South America?—No. Those that are sent to our Indies must be self-supporting. It is only natives who can work in our Indies—not the white men.

100190. Do they send them to Guiana at all?—No.

100191. Only to Canada?—The Salvation Army only sends them to Canada.

100192. Is the Salvation Army working in common with you?—Not on a large scale. The Salvation Army has a kind of colony of its own.

100193. Whereabouts is that?—In the province of Overijssel.

100194. Would that be near to Arnhem?—It is higher up.

100195. Have you noticed much difference between North Holland and South Holland?—Are people poorer in the one than in the other?—I should say that in South Holland they are a little bit poorer.

100196. That there is more destitution in South Holland?—I think so, but not much.

100197. Can you account for that at all?—No. In the northern part of Holland every one gets on very well, so there are not so many poor.

100198. And they do pretty well there?—Yes.

100199. The manufactures of Holland are mostly in Amsterdam, are they not?—No. In the eastern part of the country, in Overijssel, for instance, there is a big industrial district.

100200. Do the manufactures attract people from the country?—No. People who do not know any business or any trade come to Amsterdam and to Rotterdam, just to pick up a florin here and a florin there.

100201. To get casual work and not regular employment?—Yes. That is very bad; but you see they do not know any trades.

100202. Have you tried to send them back?—Yes. Then we have technical schools; but there are too few of them. A movement is going on to have more of these schools.

100203. In order to teach people trades?—Yes; to teach them, for instance, to be carpenters, blacksmiths, and so on, when they do not know a trade very well. To live, you must know your trade.

100204. Does the town government do that or the central government?—A special society largely subsidised by the town.

100205. The town of Amsterdam?—Yes.

100206. Is that movement spreading through Holland?—Yes. Nearly every big town has such schools, but there are too few of them.

100207. (Dr. Downes.) I understand you prepare lists of people who are entitled to medical relief at the cost of the municipality?—Yes.

100208. Are those lists limited as to the wages of the people who apply?—No, but if their income exceeds a certain amount, so that they are able to join a club, they don't get gratuitous medical relief.

100209. May any person be put on them?—Yes.

100210. Have you any clubs to which a labourer may subscribe to obtain medical attendance?—Yes, we have clubs both for medical attendance and for burial. The burial clubs are spread all over the country.

100211. Are those clubs flourishing?—Very much so. If you want more information about these clubs, I can send it over.

100212. If you can do so without trouble, I should be glad?—I will do so with pleasure. (See Appendix No. XXII (C)).

100213. Supposing that a man has not got his name placed on the year list, and he requires a doctor in a case of emergency, would the doctor go?—The doctor would go at once, because he could not leave the man, if he had no money and was sick, to starve and die. The doctor gives his assistance, and then afterwards they make inquiries into the man's financial position. If it turns out that he could pay for himself, then he must do so.

100214. Is there anyone to supervise the outdoor medical relief?—Yes. There is the general manager, and he always goes round to all the district offices. He goes personally to their homes if necessary.

Mr. J. F. L. Blankenberg.
11 May, 1908.
Emigration of Dutch poor.

Need of more technical schools in Holland.

Extent to which medical relief is gratuitous.

Administration of outdoor medical relief.

Mr. J. F. L. Blankenberg. 100215. Is he an officer of the central government ?—No, he is an officer of the town.

11 May 1908. 100216. Does the central government control the medical relief at all ?—No; but in every province or county there are medical inspectors.

100217. In what way is a patient admitted to a hospital in Holland; is it on the recommendation of a doctor ? Yes.

100218. And if the doctors of the hospital think he is a suitable case they take him in ?—They take him in at once, and he is attended to. Of course the medical director of the hospital the next day or some later day may take another view of the case; but he is given help at once.

100219. To those able to pay is any charge made ?—Yes. We have a kind of tariff which in Amsterdam is founded on the local income-tax, a deduction being made for every child.

100220. If a man who can pay does not pay, do you enforce the payment ?—Yes, we do.

100221. How do you enforce it ?—We have a regular law on the point, and very often we find a way of doing it without that. But in case of emergency we have to go before the Law Courts.

100222. Would you send him to prison if he did not pay ?—I know that is the law. It may be done if he does not pay.

100223. Do you deprive them of their vote if they do not pay for their treatment ?—No, we have no right to do that; but everyone who is assisted by charity has his name struck off the list of voters. Every year every charity—my society and every other society—examine the list of voters sent to them for that purpose by the municipality, to see whether there are any assisted people on that list or not; and we always pick them out.

100224. If a man cannot pay all, would you allow him to pay part of the cost ?—If he earns so much then he pays so much, and if he earns so much more he pays so much more. There is a tariff for that.

100225. On a sliding scale ?—Yes.

100226. (*Mr. Gardiner.*) In Paragraph 47 you tell us that you have a considerable number of voluntary workers; what steps do you take to train those workers ?—We have weekly meetings. We started the Elberfeld system in Amsterdam about fifteen years ago, but our society had already been twenty years in existence, so we had disciplined workers to our hand. We have thirty-five districts in Amsterdam, and we had thirty-five visitors who were made presidents of the districts when we started the Elberfeld system. They gave the education and the training that was needed. The president goes first with his people to the house of the poor, and shows them what to do, and tells them what questions they are to ask. Then every week there is a meeting at which every case is systematically gone through and discussed, so that theoretical training is given at the meeting.

100227. But that means that you depend for the training of your voluntary workers on the presidents of the districts only ?—Yes.

100228. Is there any method of supervising the presidents of the districts ?—Yes, the central board does that.

100229. How does the central board test the efficiency of the district president ?—Every week the business of the districts is looked after by the central board with a view to examination. There are seven of us on the central board.

100230. Are they criticised if the board think their decisions have been wrong ?—Yes.

100231. In regard to the officers of the municipality who are concerned with the distribution of relief, are they trained in any way ?—They consist generally of old workers in charity, and of people who have had many years service in the old church organisations; so that they are on the average good officers.

100232. Therefore, you recruit your officials from the ranks of the voluntary workers ?—Yes.

100233. When they become officials, I suppose they are paid ?—No.

100234. They are not ?—The Amsterdam Board of Guardians has twenty-four paid officers, but they do

the rough work. All these people who go into the houses of the poor and bring them their money, are not paid; municipal office they are voluntary workers.

100235. How are these twenty-four officers who do the rough work trained ?—They are trained by a gentleman who is the manager.

100236. I suppose he is what we should call the clerk or the superintendent ?—Yes, something like that.

100237. Have they any examination of any kind to pass ?—They have not to pass an examination, but they have a very good manager. They hand in their reports every day, and they are working in the same office. Amsterdam is not a big city like London; it is a comparatively small city, and the distances are not very great, so all these paid officers are at the central office with the general manager, and he looks into their reports, and in that way trains them.

100238. But there is no examination of them before they begin ?—No, there is not.

100239. (*Miss Hill.*) With regard to these colonies to which your vagrants are sent, they, of course, are in the hands of the municipality or of the State ?—Yes.

100240. I understand you do not think that many of the people are reformed there ?—No, not many.

100241. Have you any colonies in the hands of charitable people and supported by private charity ?—Yes, we have two.

100242. Do they succeed in reforming the people sent to them, do you think ?—No, not very much.

100243. In the colonies which belong to the State, the vagrants return, I suppose ?—As soon as they have made another mistake, they are committed again. As a rule, they go back very soon.

100244. So that really they are useful as keeping the people out of the way, but not as improving them ?—That is so. I know people who have been sent to a colony about twenty-four times.

100245. Do you think these colonies are deterrent, in the way of preventing people becoming vagrants ? It is difficult to say perhaps ?—It is very difficult.

100246. How long have they been established ?—These colonies have been established about sixty years. If you want any information about these colonies, I can send it over to you.

100247. Thank you; I do not know that I need trouble you. Do you strike people off from the list of voters who receive help from private charity ?—Yes, if they receive help from any organisation. Each society receives from the town the list of voters, and strikes out the names of everyone assisted by them.

100248. It is the same then, whether it is private charity or public charity ?—Yes; no one who is assisted can vote.

100249. (*Chairman.*) There are the church charities, as distinguished from the private charities; would the receipt of church charity in the same way disqualify ?—Yes.

100250. (*Mr. Nunn.*) On what ground is that law supported ?—Because we do not want assisted people to vote, or to have any influence in politics.

100251. But they do not vote for the church committee or the private charity ?—No. When I speak of voting I mean voting for the Parliament or the town council. We do not give the vote in Holland to assisted people.

100252. (*Miss Hill.*) How long are they kept off the list of voters ?—As long as they are assisted.

100253. As long as they are receiving charity ?—Yes.

100254. But when they no longer receive charity, can they then be restored to the list ?—Then they can vote.

100255. I suppose you think people who cannot manage their own affairs, cannot manage the affairs of the nation ? Yes, that is a way of putting it.

100256. (*Mr. Loch.*) I should like to ask a question or two as to what the outline of your scheme might be as it is worked at present. Your first proposal, I suppose, clearly is that all charities should be registered ?—Yes.

100257. Then you attach certain conditions to the existence of these charities, so that if they do not fall in with those conditions they cannot collect any money.

Payment according to relief in hospitals and enforcement thereof.

Training of Elberfeld workers.

Training of municipal officers.

Training of municipal office

Colonies for vagrants and result effect on character.

Disfranchisement of the charity assisted

Relief of the municipality and compulsory

I understand according to the article which you wrote in the *Review* the insertion of their names on the municipal list is necessary in order that the institutions may enjoy their civil rights, and if they do not appear upon the list, then the managers cannot appear in Courts of Justice, nor can they receive legacies, nor can they make collections?—That is right.

100258. So that practically you not only register these charities, but you impose conditions upon them by which they are more or less forced to come into union?—Yes. The aim of the law of 1854 was to know everything that was being done in a charitable way; and to prevent them not inscribing their names on the list, the law prescribes that they cannot make collections and cannot accept money or do anything unless they do put their names on the list—that they cannot exist so to say, otherwise.

100259. Taking that position with regard to the charities themselves, you throw on them definite obligations?—Yes.

100260. You oblige them, for instance, to give evidence to the municipal authorities when asked as to whom they are relieving?—Yes, they must do that.

100261. And you oblige them also to report to you and to send in accounts to you?—Yes, every year.

100262. And also you throw upon them the responsibility of dealing with the cases in the first instance?—Yes.

100263. So that if possible no obligation in regard to relief should fall on the municipality?—That is the first thing we look after.

100264. In carrying out these proposals, you find that your public relief, which you call municipal relief, has increased to a great extent?—Yes.

100265. And parallel to that, what you have called the private non-ecclesiastical relief?—Yes.

100266. Therefore, the tendency of this movement would appear to be that two lines more and more co-operate—the line of public relief and the line of private non-ecclesiastical relief?—Yes.

100267. So that these two bodies are, as it were, bearing the brunt more and more?—Yes.

100268. Then allied to these two bodies are a set of private voluntary visitors?—Yes.

100269. Both dealing with the separate municipal relief and with the separate private relief?—Yes.

100270. So that your paid staff is very small, comparatively?—Yes.

100271. Inquiries are also made by the voluntary visitors?—Yes.

100272. Is it your opinion that those inquiries are well made?—Not at first, of course, when the visitors want some training; but afterwards I think they are well made, because the visitors have plenty of time, they devote themselves to this work, and each one has only a few families to look after, which is the main thing.

100273. You also adopt the plan of having part of the inquiry made by the central body, do you not, through special officers?—Yes. I should think that in a large town—Amsterdam is not so large, of course, as London, but still it is rather a large town—it would be well to have the first inquiry made by a trained paid officer. At present, that is not done, but I think it would be better that it should be. It would help also in the education and training of the voluntary worker if he were to see how the trained paid officer did it.

100274. Do you ask the police for information?—No, never.

100275. When you come across cases of vagrants, are those referred to the police?—Yes; the vagrants go to the police.

100276. Then neither the municipal body as a relief body nor the private charities in their capacity of administering charity deal with vagabonds?—No. We do not want them; we have nothing to do with them; and we cannot improve them, you see.

100277. The whole question of vagrancy is not a Poor Law question at all, but is a police question?—It is a police question.

100278. And the police arrange to submit the case to the magistrate, who sends the persons to Veenhuisen, or wherever it may be?—Yes. We have a magistrate, called by the French a *juge de paix*; he himself hears every case, and he has about 300 a day sometimes.

100279. Acting on this plan, do you find it difficult to obtain the money you want for relief purposes in individual cases?—I cannot say so. My own society has been in existence now for thirty-seven years; I do not say that we can get all the money we want, because we could do with twice as much more as we have had, and we could spend it very well. But of course there is a limit to the power of the charitable. In our society in Amsterdam we receive every year about £18,000, which is rather a big sum.

100280. Your theory is to work your charitable society parallel to your municipal body, and not to merge one in the other?—Yes, that is so. I hope to come to this, though it is a long way ahead, of course—that every charity in Amsterdam will combine and have one plan for dividing the city, so that every charity shall have the same limits to every district. That will make the work much easier than it is when each of them has its own plan of dividing the city.

100281. Turning now to medical relief, all the gratuitous medical relief is municipal, is it not?—Generally speaking: yes, although some churches do also give some.

100282. When the patient has to be admitted into a hospital does the municipality pay, or is it a private matter still? Suppose a person is in receipt of outdoor relief, or is likely to be in receipt of outdoor relief from municipal funds, and then falls ill; in such a case does the municipality pay for the patient if the patient himself cannot?—Yes, the municipality pays for it.

100283. Would those cases that you have counted in your totals rank as receiving indoor relief?—No. The medical relief is kept quite separate, whether it means money or medical support in the family.

100284. If one wanted to ask you the total number of paupers in receipt of relief in Amsterdam, would one get a return of those in receipt of outdoor relief only?—I do not catch your question.

100285. I want to know how far in your returns the relief given to people in institutions was counted as Poor Law relief?—Not at all; because, generally speaking, indoor relief is given by the churches.

100286. Then it would not be recognised as pauperising?—No.

100287. (*Mr. Nunn.*) But the people would be disfranchised, I understand.

100288. (*Mr. Loch.*) Yes, but I was thinking of the question from the point of view of the funds—that this was relief which could not be attributed to the municipal fund.

100289. (*Sir Henry Robinson.*) Is the system of relief in Amsterdam successful in keeping down mendicancy, or are there many beggars in Amsterdam?—There are very few, but there used to be many more than there are at present.

100290. Would the police prosecute them for begging in the streets?—Yes; you are not allowed to beg in Amsterdam. Then the man comes and sells you a box of matches, and if he does that ten times he is considered a beggar.

100291. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) With regard to the disfranchisement, would the receipt of medical relief only disfranchise?—Medical relief is not considered as a reason for not being allowed to vote.

100292. Therefore, if you gave medical relief to a person, or took him into a hospital, he would still be able to vote?—Yes.

100293. Both for the local authority and also for Parliament?—Yes, for the town council and for everything else.

100294. There is no legal right to relief, is there?—No.

100295. Does that produce any difficulties? Are there any cases where relief ought to be given where it is not given?—No. There are so many charities in Holland that that case does not present itself.

100296. (*Mr. Nunn.*) In Paragraph 19 you say: "Private charities may receive, under circumstances, allowances from the municipality;" is that largely done?—

Mr. J. F. L. Blankenberg.
11 May, 1908.

Adequacy and proposed combination of charities.

Extent to which medical relief is gratuitous.

Mendicancy in Amsterdam.

Medical relief carrying no disfranchise.

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onds.

Mr. J. F. L. Blankenberg. It is never done. The conditions are as follows: When any local charity wants any allowance from the municipality, it must prove first that it has got all the money from its members that they could possibly give. That is the first difficulty, because you can never say your members have given everything they could. Then, they have to hand in reports of the last year, and the budget for the next year. I do not know what you think about it, but I think it is very difficult to make up the budget of a charitable society. So that, at any rate, not a single society has ever applied. There is another reason. At a meeting of my society one of the members proposed to ask for some kind of recognition from the municipality, and then in the next moment ten members said, If you ask for gifts from the municipality I will withdraw my contribution. We should get very little from the municipality, and we should lose more money from our subscribers than

we should get in cash from the municipality; so it is never done. The law provides for it, but it has not occurred in a single instance.

100297. (*Chairman.*) What proportion do the numbers receiving outdoor relief bear to those relieved in institutions? Are there more people, do you think, in receipt of outdoor relief than the people who are relieved in institutions?—There are far more outdoor than indoor. If you want to have the exact figures, I could send them over.

100298. I would be obliged if you would?—Yes, I will with pleasure. (*See Appendix No. XXII (D).*)

100299. (*Mr. Nunn.*) None of the indoor relief is State relief?—No, because public charity always emanates from the municipalities.

Dr. Emil Muensterberg

11 May, 1908.

DR. EMIL MUENSTERBERG, called; and examined.

100300. (*Chairman.*) I should like to introduce to the Commission Dr. Münsterberg, who has very kindly come over from Berlin, where he has for many years been the head of by far the largest board for the administration of poor relief in the German Empire. He has given us the benefit of his experience and advice in a very excellent paper, which, I think is in the hands of the Commission. (*To the Witness.*) I propose to take this Statement of yours as your Evidence-in-chief, if you will permit me?—Yes. (*The Witness handed in the following Statement.*)

1. In the following remarks I have added to the inquiry put by the Royal Commission the questions introduced by Mr. C. S. Loch. I pass over those points which are already clearly set out in the printed accounts of German legislation and of particular German States. I would remark also that it is impossible to answer all the questions with absolute completeness without writing a large book. I venture to assume that the Royal Commission desire to see examined only in the most compressed form some of the weightiest points which are of special importance for Poor Law reform.

2. I must permit myself to preface the reply with some general observations. In the first instance, in no province is, in my opinion, the legislation alone of so trifling importance as it is immediately in that of poor relief. The law itself is of no importance when it is not carried out by sound administration. It is not too much to say that, in fact, in this sphere, good administration counterbalances the want of good laws, but that good laws do not make up for bad administration. For my part I have always held the English laws of 1601 and 1834 to be very good laws, under the provisions of which, when they shall have been slightly modernised, public poor relief can still to-day be successfully conducted, provided that it succeeds in organising a suitable administration.

3. A distinction must first be made between large and small administrations. In the country, and in the small towns, the burgo-master, the local magistrate, the clergy, and private charitable persons, and indeed the general body of parishioners are the persons best acquainted with particular cases. When it fails of success, it is due mainly to the want of financial support. It is therefore in the well-understood interest of law and administration that the smaller villages should be so ordered that they can really meet their own burden. In the experience of all civilised countries the best arrangement is found to be one by which small communities are united with bigger ones, so that help is given to the overburdened villages, and for secure, technical, difficult and costly institutions of poor relief the larger districts of the county or the province should provide. In Germany the complaint about poor relief in the country is very general, that the system of relief by doctors, midwives, and nurses is very inadequate, so that the tendency in Germany is, first and foremost, to provide better for the country in this direction, through the medium of provincial and State arrangements.

4. In the larger villages, specially in the big towns, it is so far from failing for lack of funds that large sums are, through public relief as well as by private charity, provided for distribution and frequently wasted. Hence only such an organisation of poor relief can be of assistance as sets itself to deal well

and carefully with each individual case, and such arrangements as render possible the combination of private charity with public relief.

On the several questions I may offer the following observations:—

1.—THE ELBERFELD SYSTEM.

5. It is a common error to say that the Elberfeld system is the invention or discovery of the town of Elberfeld. The groundwork of the system is the individualised treatment of each separate case. This is attained by the division of the town into a number of not too large districts, each of which is provided with a sufficiently large number of "helpers." On the Elberfeld plan not more than two to four cases will come under the care of a single "helper." Moreover, the "helper" is supposed to remain in permanent and close relations with the needy person, so that at all times he is fully acquainted with the circumstances of the case. For this reason, even where the need continues for a long period, indeed for many years, relief is never allowed for more than two weeks at a time, so that the "helper" is pressed each time again to acquaint himself with the circumstances, and to form an opinion of the case as to whether the relief should be continued in the same form, or should be given in a different form, whether special circumstances (such as sickness in the family, loss of work, etc., a rise of pay or the reverse, the regaining of the man's working powers, the loss of his faculties and similar incidences) render necessary the reduction, or even the entire cessation of relief. These provisions are revived in a modern and efficient fashion in the Elberfeld Ordinance of 1852. But they already form the groundwork of relief in the old Christian communities, and of the poor relief ordinances of the Reformation period, and always have been repeated at each reform of poor relief in the German towns, as they were, for instance, in a very efficient manner in the Relief Ordinance of Hamburg of 1783.

6. Thus most of the German towns, long before the Elberfeld system, carried out a division of the town into districts, with a sufficient number of "helpers." Only, of course, the constant necessity for readjustment was not followed up with the same care, so that in Hamburg itself, in a period of 100 years, the number of the needy had grown out of all relation to the "helpers," and the reform of 1892 was principally an endeavour to restore the proper relation between the two. This has succeeded abundantly. Some 1,600 "helpers" have been obtained in place of the former 400, appropriate districts have been carved out, and the point has been reached at which each separate case can be investigated with the utmost care. The moral and financial results have been very marked, but on these I shall have something further to say in reply to Question 4. The Hamburg Ordinance of 1892 fails, however, as a real example of the Elberfeld system, since under it continuous relief is permitted to be granted for a period of a whole year, and thereby a very material inducement to undertake fresh investigation of the case is lost. Yet a safe counterbalance is provided, in that each "helper" has personally to pay the relief to the poor who are allotted to him week by week, and consequently four times a month, and by this means keeps up the opportunity of personally seeing and speaking to the poor. In general, the results of the present Hamburg relief system will be

Excellence and adequacy of Poor Law of 1601 and 1834.

Distinction between large and small administrations.

Inadequacy of rural outdoor medical relief.

Need of co-ordination of private charity and Poor Law.

Comparative extent of indoor and outdoor relief.

Groundwork of the Elberfeld system.

Pre-existence of Elberfeld system in many towns.

Defects of Elberfeld system carried out in Hamburg and Berlin.

regarded as thoroughly successful when these difficulties begin to show themselves similar to those which have manifested themselves in a very acute and dangerous form in Berlin, and which must equally be investigated. In the case of Berlin also the town was, long before the Elberfeld system, divided into districts, and each district was provided with a president and a sufficient number of "helpers." Their duty likewise is quite honorary. The instructions given to the "helpers" require them, as in Elberfeld and Hamburg, continually to keep in touch with the needy and to examine and watch over their established relations with them. In Berlin, too, the grant of continuous relief for a whole year is permissible; but important defects are manifest, in so far as payment of relief is made once a month only, and not always by the agency of the one "helper" to whom the pauper concerned is allocated. Consequently there is no security that the case is continually watched, so that very important changes may supervene without the poor relief district having knowledge of them. Another defect is that it is hard to get a sufficient number of "helpers" for the newly-constituted districts in the suburbs, and particularly to act as "helpers" (as has hitherto been successfully managed in Hamburg), the various circles, especially the inhabitants belonging to the higher classes. Berlin, which at present employs nearly 4,000 helpers in some 400 districts, should, to completely meet the poverty, have some 8,000 to 9,000, a number exceedingly difficult, if not impossible, to raise. Finally, the need of adequate education makes itself felt in the demands on the intelligence made by poor relief duties. Hence in the consideration of reforms a subject very vigorously discussed is the completion of the work of "helpers" in two directions, one of which is through a vigorous introduction of women, which is now legally permissible, but encounters strong opposition among the male helpers. On the other hand, the suggestion is made to associate socially educated "helpers" with the relief districts, to stand by the ordinary "helpers" and advise them, and to undertake inquiries of a special kind, the conduct of which offers difficulties to the honorary "helpers." Such an association of paid officers, which up to the present has been only theoretically discussed, introduces, however, very big difficulties, for the reason that the honorary "helpers" are in this respect very sensitive, and readily apprehend, in the association of paid officers, the setting up of a controlling authority, and thereby some diminution of their prestige. Further, we lack arrangements for the education of social workers such as is provided in the philanthropic schools of America.

7. If I dared to apply this development to arrangements which have been otherwise made in England, I might say that the carrying-out of poor relief through paid officers calls for serious consideration. In any case these officers must not in future be appointed from the class of inferior officials; especially must they be socially educated persons, who can understand the domestic circumstances of the poor and their social needs. In other words, they must be generally "social workers." Women have shown themselves of such a character in a high degree, and their strong co-operation in the work such as is provided for to the fullest extent in the law of 1894 seems to me eminently desirable. But it seems to me to be also essential that the parishes should not only be provided with honorary officials, but also that as the necessary powers for the purpose can be obtained, the exercise of relief should be entrusted to the honorary workers in conjunction with the above-named "social workers."

2.—CO-OPERATION OF PUBLIC RELIEF AND PRIVATE CHARITY.

8. There exists, so far as I can see, in no civilised country a doubt that a co-operation of the different functions of public relief and of private charity is not only useful, but even essential. It will not be centralisation which confounds all tendencies and means together, but rather a systematic co-ordination of the different organisations. In Germany the new type of "Central bureau for private relief" is in existence, which, especially in Berlin and in Frankfurt-on-the-Main, has been attended with good results, just as the Charity Organisation Societies in England and America. These central bureaux serve in the first place to supply information to the charitable about persons who have petitioned them. Still, they have extended

their operations and have taken pains to remain in constant association with the municipal relief and with other charitable organisations, so as to prevent the misuse of charity on the one hand, and on the other to promote a common working. Of course, the organisation in small villages offers no difficulties where the supporters of relief and those of charity can come to an understanding very easily with each other. The problem develops its own difficulties, just as in the case of public relief in the larger towns and in the capital. In my opinion it can only be satisfactorily solved by the association being upheld uniformly from all sides, and by ranging alongside of the central office a corresponding number of helpers corresponding to the density of the population, among whom again the socially-educated "helpers" are working with voluntary officials.

9. The experiments which have been made in recent times in this direction in Liverpool, Birmingham, and Halifax appear to me to be most hopeful. In America I had an opportunity to learn the methods of the Charity Organisation Societies in New York, Boston, Chicago and Philadelphia. I acknowledge highly the activity of the Charity Organisation Society in New York; but the numbers of the districts controlled by it is far too small for that huge town, and the lack of voluntary helpers is to be deplored. On the other hand the division of Boston into districts is thoroughly good; and there are some 1,000 voluntary helpers to assist the trained officials. Moreover, a close association with public relief is well guaranteed by the arrangement by which its administration and the Associated Charities have their offices in the same building.

3.—OUTDOOR AND INDOOR RELIEF.

10. It is a fact that in Germany outdoor relief completely preponderates. Indoor relief is, according to the judgement of nearly all authorities, to be confined (a) to the "workshy," the vicious and drunkards, in the form of institutions for enforced labour; (b) to aged friendless folk, in the form of "aged poor homes"; (c) to the sick, in the form of hospitals; (d) to the defective, in the form of lunatic asylums, blind asylums, deaf and dumb institutions, idiot asylums, and similar institutions. In other words, indoor relief is to be employed in those cases where either enforced labour under supervision is shown to be necessary, or where better technical methods of treatment, relief and support are to be provided. The reason that hitherto outdoor relief in Germany has been employed on the whole without danger, lies in the fact that in all the bigger towns a system similar to the Elberfeld system has been carried out, i.e., generally public relief is administered in small districts with a corresponding number of helpers. I hold outdoor relief to be generally the right system where the practice of an "individualised" relief is securely established, that is, where care is taken that by means of thorough investigation and watching, and of friendly co-operation of the helper with the poor, misuse is, if not entirely obviated, at any rate reduced to a minimum. It must be pointed out as thoroughly desirable that those who are not unworthy poor should be able to keep their households going. This holds good especially in the case of widows with children, for old people, who do not actually need institutional relief, for cases of temporary loss of employment, where there is no doubt of the man's willingness to work, or for persons who through temporary sickness find themselves in urgent need. Hence, in Germany, opinion is altogether opposed—and in my opinion rightly so—to requiring the workhouse test in all cases, quite apart from the fact that the erection of institutions in sufficient proportion to the need would be extremely expensive. In general, sure experience shows that where the workhouse principle is vigorously applied, private charity is needed to fill up the lack, though it works with even insufficient means and cannot possibly expand its powers as public relief can.

11. Above all, where in some way a want of good will to work is suspected, the offer of institutional relief shows itself as working well. We in Germany desire for—a point to which I shall return in connection with Questions 7 and 8—sharp compulsory measures and punishment for the "workshy," and for heads of families who leave their families in want of public help.

Dr. Emil
Muensterberg
11 May, 1908.

Dr. Emil
Muensterberg

11 May, 1908.

Extent of
outdoor
relief in
Berlin and
Hamburg.

Cost of
relief in
German
centres.

12. For support by way of outdoor relief in Berlin and Hamburg may be given: (1) money simply, (2) fuel, (3) soup, (4) articles of use, (5) free medical treatment, (6) special sick diet, *e.g.*, milk, wine, and so forth, surgical appliances such as trusses, spectacles, bandages, artificial limbs as well as baths and disinfectants, (7) assistance in confinement and subsequent treatment, (8) free burial.

4.—COST OF RELIEF. PRINCIPLES OF RELIEF.

13. As has been shown in the preceding section, the centre of gravity of public relief in Berlin and Hamburg lies in outdoor relief, and the cost of it is very considerable. In Berlin the cost of the total relief, wherein is included the care of the sick, insane and infirm in institutions, amounted to:—

	£
1906 - - - - -	1,300,896
1905 - - - - -	1,199,405
1904 - - - - -	1,155,283

These figures include for outdoor relief alone:—

	£
1906 - - - - -	557,581
1905 - - - - -	546,521
1904 - - - - -	532,136

In Hamburg the cost of outdoor relief for the last three years amounted to:—

	£
1906 - - - - -	96,455
1905 - - - - -	98,100
1904 - - - - -	99,321

And the average cost for each individual case of relief, to:—

	£	s.	d.
1906 - - - - -	10	9	6
1905 - - - - -	10	8	5
1904 - - - - -	10	8	1

14. As to the amount of relief in Berlin the decision rests entirely with each poor relief district, on the basis of Articles 50 and 51 of the Instructions as to Outdoor Relief, which read as follows:—

“(1) Public relief must confine itself to the provision of what is absolutely necessary for the support of life. Only so far as the person's own income is insufficient for the purpose, is the deficiency to be made up by relief. (2) The pauper shall not be placed in a better position through relief than the person who provides for his own support by free labour. On the other hand relief shall be afforded for the one object, that an existence worthy of a human being shall be made possible for the person in need, and that he shall not merely be prevented from starving by the grant of entirely inadequate relief. (3) In settling the amount of relief, must in the first place be taken into account the profit derived from the man's earnings. Earnings of dependants living in the house of the applicant for relief are, according to the circumstances, to be reckoned in their entire sum or for a portion. As a rule children up to the full age of sixteen years will have to give up their entire earnings to their parents, in return for their lodging, care, and clothing. In the case of children over sixteen years of age, consideration should be given to the fact that by too high demands they will be easily inclined to leave their parent's home.

“It must also be left possible for them to save something for themselves, with the object of bettering their own position, marrying, etc. It is also desirable that some pocket-money for reasonable amusements should not be denied them if they work very hard. On the other hand, it is not necessary that children contribute to their parents merely the amount which they would have to pay strangers for their board. It will be the work of poor relief to strike the happy mean in this matter and to contribute towards the strengthening of the relation between child and parent. If there are many grown-up children in the household the entire maintenance of the rest of the family will be expected of them rather than that one alone should bear the whole burden. (4) Steady pensions, given by public corporations, such as the State or municipalities, are to be brought into account at their full

amount in determining the relief to be given. (5) Allowances from associations for legal insurance, such as sick pay, invalidity, accident and old age pay, are in the same way to be taken into account. If the insurance allowance commences after the necessitous person has already entered on continuous poor relief, it must be considered whether the relief can be reduced or stopped altogether. If the circumstances are in no way changed, then the reduction will, as a rule, be so arranged that one-half of the insurance allowance will be taken in deduction from the amount of relief given up to date. (6) Of material importance in the decision as to the grant of relief are also such considerations as the age of the necessitous person, the conditions of health of members of the family, the number of children in the household, etc. In the case of old people living with their children, to whom they are of assistance in the household, consideration must be given to this fact, and to the obligation of the children to give their parents lodging.

“Fixed allowances from charitable endowments, societies, and special private charity are always to be taken into account in their fair proportion in determining the grant of relief. Yet the case shall never be so dealt with that such an allowance is simply withdrawn from those who have hitherto received and have accepted also public relief to a greater extent than was necessary, in order that private charity may not thereby be disheartened and its beneficent object altogether be disappointed. Further, in the case of needy and worthy persons, such as widows with several children, to whom public relief can only provide the bare minimum, private assistance which serves for the better bringing up and education of the children is highly desirable. On the other hand, when a person receiving assistance obtains by way of supplement through an allowance of this kind—as not infrequently happens—more than public relief can ever give him, or at any rate so much that he can in different ways support himself without help from public relief, it is desirable to discontinue the public assistance. The decision will always be given case by case, and with careful regard to the relations of public and private relief. To promote the latter in all respects, and to maintain it in constant touch with the work of public relief, is to be regarded as one of the principal objects of the officials of public relief.”

15. The position is altogether similar in Hamburg. The free judgment of each poor relief district is, just as in Berlin, only limited to this extent—that if prescribed points are overridden the assent of the central administration is necessary. For the rest, no limits have been set, so that relief to the amount desirable, according to the size of the applicant's family and the existing emergency, is allowable. In fact, in case of the complete incapacity for work of the head of the family and of a very large number of children in the family, relief is given to the extent of £4 to £5 a month.

16. In contrast with the method of free judgment stands the system of a prescribed tariff of relief, which is employed in Elberfeld, Frankfurt, Mainz, Mannheim, Düsseldorf, Mülheim-on-the-Rhine, Königsberg, Leipzig, etc. By the tariff system is meant that a fixed allowance for the need of a family is established, and the “helper” has carefully to reckon whether the scheduled amount is reached by the relief or not. In no case will more be given than the tariff allows, so that the relief given has the character of a contribution (*Zuschuss*), which corresponds with the circumstances of the family. The question which of the two is the superior system has been very often discussed in Germany. There can be no doubt that the tariff system is theoretically far superior to the system of free judgment, since the amounts allowed have not been altogether arbitrarily arrived at, and can be accommodated to individual needs. In practice, however, the result is that the employment of the tariff is only possible where the “helper” calculates quite regularly and with the utmost care the total income of the family, and reckons according to the shifting receipts of the family the necessary addition to correspond. To carry this out ordinarily in practice is very difficult, if not impossible. Besides, there are many other points in the calculation, such as the greater or less capability of the wife, together with the existing income at her disposal for housekeeping, the share of grown-up members of the family in the housekeeping, temporary sickness, loss of employment, and so forth. Hence one has serious apprehension in

Instructions
as to outdoor
relief in
Berlin.

Extent
to which
relief
given
in Ha-

Theoretical
superiority
of “tariff”
over “free
judgment”
system
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the application of the tariff system to Berlin and Hamburg that the "helper" would be occupied for a longer time with the single reckoning that he has allowed for his first allowance of relief, and that consequently the additional grant may be a little too high or too low, without following closely the changing circumstances of the case. Here also we see again that the employment of sound principles is less a question of legislation and regulations than of good and ever-careful administration.

17. I wish to mention another most important point. In all German Poor Law administration, and especially in Berlin and Hamburg, the employment of good and adequate case-papers is considered essential. In these forms and records are embodied all the information that a careful "helper" needs to form an opinion on each individual case, such as the circumstances of age, health, and income of the head members of the family, the number and age of the children not yet grown up, the allowances from rents, insurance, and so forth, the existence of relatives not living in the pauper's household, and their obligation to provide support, and so on. In my judgment, good case-papers are quite indispensable for such a work, so as to guide the insight of the "helpers" at once in the thousand and one recurring circumstances to the exact points at which it is essential to arrive. They must also be freely revised to meet current circumstances, so that there is no danger of the "helpers" trusting to old records. In Hamburg this risk is avoided, and with good results, by the use of the so-called "Personal Book," which provides a compact account of the whole family, and in which also statements are provided for showing the results of repeated investigations, and the money and allowances that have been provided in consequence, together with a note of removals to institutions, etc.

18. In Berlin also a similar "Personal Book" is kept, but the regular upkeep of it is not so exact here as could in the interests of administration be desired—a matter which is connected with the circumstances to which special attention was called in Section 1.

5.—THE PROCURING OF MEANS.

19. The means required for the practice of public poor relief are covered almost entirely by the general receipts at the disposal of the municipal administration for all purposes. The poor relief administration appears as a section of the general municipal administration. The principal receipts on which the budget of the parish is based are the municipal income-tax and the taxes, which are either levied directly or as additions to the State taxes. There are often supplementary taxes on dogs and on amusements. As receipts for the special benefit of poor relief administration, there are in addition those sums which are refunded by the paupers themselves or the institutions which are liable for them, especially insurance allowance for sickness, accident, and invalidity. In isolated cases also it happens in Germany that the poor relief administrations have such large means placed at their disposal from old foundations that they can therewith defray the cost of public poor relief.

6.—THE RIGHT OF THE POOR.

20. An actionable right of the poor to poor relief is not recognised by German legislation. The legal conception is that every community is obliged in the interests of public order to grant the relief requisite in individual cases. So far as, in the opinion of the poor person, this obligation is not satisfied, he has the right to complain to the authorities set over the community, which as a rule decide on the grounds of the report of the Poor Law administration. This procedure has the great defect that it is very clumsy, and the decision, even if it is in favour of the poor persons, is often made known too

late. On the other hand, it follows from the nature of the poor relief, as assistance granted without payment in return, that objection cannot well be raised to a claim having a hard and fast legal definition, concerning which decisions could be made in the usual legal procedure. If this is an evil it can in any case only to be obviated by the Poor Law administrations being made to satisfy their obligation, and the continued supervision by the controlling authorities of the execution of this duty.

7.—LOSS OF THE ELECTORAL VOTE.

21. The receipt of public poor relief debars the recipient from the active and passive electoral vote both in regard to the German Parliament and the State Parliaments, and in regard to the great majority of the other public corporations. It is often a matter of dispute as to what is to be understood by public poor relief, so that a variety of practice in the treatment of the matter prevails in Germany. The German Parliament has, in agreement with the most distinguished expert representations, repeatedly asked the State Governments to give clear provisions, and especially to designate as inoperative on the electoral vote those kinds of public relief in which it is not a question of the loss of economic independence, but only a question of unmerited and temporary circumstances. This applies especially to the granting of medical treatment, medicines, maintenance of the head of the family, or his dependants, by admission into a hospital or nursing institution.

8.—POOR RELIEF STATISTICS.

22. General German poor relief statistics have only been collected once (for the year 1885), so that information of such completeness and reliability as that issued by the Local Government Board for several years for the English administration does not exist in Germany. By means of the statistics of 1885, the observation made equally in all civilised countries that it is not the poorest parishes that have the highest poor relief figure, but, conversely, the more prosperous the neighbourhood the greater the relief, was confirmed. Thus it appears that in 1885 in urban parishes the relieved persons formed 5.24 per cent. of the inhabitants, compared with 2.16 per cent. in the rural parishes; in Prussia the proportion was even more unequal—5.31 to 1.99; in Alsace Lorraine even 8.09 to 2.36; while in Bavaria, with a preponderating rural population, it was 3.86 to 2.46. The large administrations, especially the towns, publish regular administrative reports, in which also usually the figures for earlier years are compared with those for later ones. In Berlin the following were the figures for 1906:—

Recipients of relief (persons receiving permanent relief - - - - -	33,813
Female recipients of subsistence money (women, especially widows with children) - - - - -	7,440
Other persons relieved (persons relieved but once or temporarily) -	4,924

25. The following figures group by age the first of the above groups:—

20-50 years of age - - - - -	4,238
50-65 " - - - - -	9,722
65-70 " - - - - -	6,607
Over 70 " - - - - -	19,438

24. It should be of interest to learn in this connection that wherever new poor relief regulations in accordance with the Elberfeld system were carried out, there were good financial results, which showed themselves in a considerable decrease of the number of persons relieved, with a simultaneous increase in the payments made per case. For example, the following is the result for Mainz:—

Year.	Cases.	Total Expenditure.	Expenditure per Case.
		Marks.	Marks.
1893-4 - -	1,689	123,977	73'40 } before
1894-5 - -	1,761	129,401	73'50 } reorganisation.
1895-6 - -	1,432	106,258	167'34 } after
1896-7 - -	1,182	88,206	191'33 } reorganisation.

Dr. Emil
Muensterberg
11 May, 1908.

Disfranchise-
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need of
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statistics.

Dr. Emil Muensterberg 25. In Mannheim, whose poor relief was reorganised in 1898, the contribution of the municipal fund has gone up; nevertheless it remains with 2.22 marks and 2.35 marks per head of the population in 1899 and 1900, considerably behind the rates for 1885 and 1895 (2.90 marks and 2.55 marks. In 1901, which was a very hard year for all poor relief administrations, the ex-

penditure rose to 2.70 marks. On the other hand, with the exception of 1901, the increase in the expenditure falls considerably short of the increase in the population.

26. The following are particulars for Erfurt, whose poor relief was reorganised in 1893:—

Year.	Cases.	Total Expenditure.	Expenditure per Person Relieved.	Expenditure per Head of Population.	Percentage to Total Population of Persons Relieved.
		Marks.	Marks.	Marks.	
1893 - - - -	1,549	128,622	83.04	1.70	2.05
1894 - - - -	1,681	133,960	79.69	1.74	2.18
1895 - - - -	1,606	117,956	73.45	1.51	2.05
1899 - - - -	1,263	112,887	89.38	1.33	1.50
1901 - - - -	1,278	106,636	83.44	1.22	1.47

27. Finally, Hamburg is designated as the most striking example of the working of individualised poor relief. The example is of greater importance in that, with its population of close on three-quarters of a million, it presents much harder circumstances than any other poor relief administration except Berlin. The reorganised poor relief has, on the occasion of its tenth

year of existence, published a report which, apart from the textual explanations, contains a series of very instructive tables. One of these shows the position of the organs of relief before and after 1893, and, with the number of poor shown in another place, and the particulars of expenditure on public poor relief, combines to give the following interesting results:—

Year.	Population	Number of Poor Persons Relieved	Number of Persons Relieved.	Average Number of Persons Relieved per District.	Number of Helpers.	Number of Persons Relieved per Helper.	Percentage of Population formed by		Expenditure for Outdoor Relief.	Per Person Relieved.
							Persons Relieved.	Poor Population.		
										M.
1885	470,744	53	6,425	121	291	22.0	1.51	3.20	1073.108	155
1892	580,855	79	8,932	113	440	20.0	1.55	3.29	1675.516	191
1893	585,671	90	9,178	102	1,535	6.0	1.53	3.27	1637.732	204
1896	633,535	104	9,117	88	1,546	6.1	1.44	3.05	1876.152	203
1898	666,420	108	9,290	86	1,569	5.9	1.40	2.96	1928.802	200
1900	696,502	108	8,851	82	1,561	5.7	1.32	2.69	1866.256	213
1902	727,721	108	9,066	84	1,563	5.8	1.25	2.54	1899.638	210

9.—UNEMPLOYMENT.

28. The problem has been recently discussed in so comprehensive a manner, especially in Percy Alden's book and the reports of the Board of Trade and the Distress Committees, that I will not go further into the theoretical side of the question. In Germany we are of the opinion that in the question of unemployment four possibilities come under consideration:—

(1) *Labour agencies*—i.e., the obtaining of work actually existing.

(2) *Insurance Against Unemployment*, which, according to our previous experiences, only promises success on the principle of the Ghent system—i.e., in junction with trade organisations. In Germany an experiment in this direction has hitherto only been made by Strassburg, in Alsace.

(3) *Provision of Work*.—In Germany the activity that has been organised in England on the strength of the Unemployed Act has been actually practised without legal compulsion in numerous towns so far as intense distress existed. In the towns public works which were not urgent, but were yet necessary for the parishes, have been undertaken. At such work are employed, either principally or exclusively, persons who have

already lived and worked in the parish concerned a long time. This distress activity (concerning which the book, "The Regulation of Distress Works in German Towns," produced in the Labour Department of the Imperial Statistical Office, 181 S., Berlin, Carl Heymann, 1905, gives detailed information) has in hard times been not without its advantages, although it has been unable to solve the real problem. In my opinion the problem is absolutely insoluble by the provision of work by the parishes. If work often stops or declines in the economic market, it is a self-contradictory process to call forth artificially work which the natural labour market does not supply. Such an endeavour leads in its consequence to the results of the Ateliers publics (public workshops) of 1848, or the allowance system, which in England called for Gilbert's Act at the end of the eighteenth century. So far as I can survey the state of the matter in England from the reports of the Distress Committees, people in England are quite conscious of these limitations. In this matter only economy, self-insurance, and legislative and administrative measures which seek to avert unemployment at the start can be of help.

(4) *Poor Relief*.—As I have already specially pointed out in Section 4, the poor relief administration cannot and

Need of preventive rather than curative measures for unemployment.

Distress of ref. city.

completely abstain from relieving persons industrially capable, and can safely do this so far as the individual case is sufficiently clearly put and its range known. So far as work-shy persons are concerned, the measures discussed below are to be employed. Moreover, in Germany the assistance of deserving persons industrially capable is often looked upon as a useful exercise of private charity, which, by loans, granting of tools, granting of means for travelling in search of outside situations, etc., can be of more extensive help than public poor relief.

10.—COMPULSORY DETENTION.

29. The question as to what measures can be taken against persons who abuse poor relief, and, above all, against those who desert their families, leaving them destitute, forms also in Germany the object of incessant debates and gravest complaints. The desertion of the family is considered an ever-increasing social evil of the gravest kind. At present it is a question of no less than 3,000 in Berlin, and of rather more than 1,000 women with children who have been deserted by their husbands and fathers in Hamburg. Against this three remedies are employed, of which the first rests on Imperial Law, and is applicable throughout Germany, while the second and third have only been introduced or can only be introduced by legislation of the individual States:—

(1) *Penal Measures*.—According to Section 360 of the Imperial Penal Code, drunkards, idlers, beggars and tramps can be punished if in consequence of their conduct they or their families must be relieved out of public means. The punishment consists of fines or imprisonment; besides this, the assignment to compulsory labour in a workhouse up to a period of two years is permissible. The administration of this penal provision, however, on account of the difficulty of its application, leaves very much to be desired. Moreover, the regular courts are for the most part not familiar with the social premises of these cases, so that they very often desist from the much-dreaded punishment of assignment to the workhouse. Moreover, this provision does not affect those heads of families who, without being idlers or drunkards, leave their families in the lurch.

(2) *Administrative Measures*.—In Prussia there was a law of 1855 on the grounds of which persons industrially capable could by administrative procedure be assigned to the workhouse if they deserted their families, leaving them destitute in such a way as to force relief to be given. This law has, to the great regret of all experts, been repealed, and not replaced by other provisions. On the other hand, a few other States, especially Wurtemberg, Anhalt, and recently Hamburg, have issued new laws, whose tenor is substantially that of the former Prussian law. Quite recently, in Hamburg, the question has been thoroughly examined from all points of view. From the social side the opinion was especially expressed that, instead of the legal procedure provided with the requisite precautions, an arbitrary administrative procedure should be introduced. Against this the Hamburg law has sought to ensure by provisions the exclusion as far as practicable of any arbitrariness. Section 21 of the law runs:—

"Whoever himself or in the person of his dependants (Section 12, paragraph 1) is relieved by public means can, so far as this is requisite for the removal or lessening of the existing need, be made by decision of the Committee for Relief Work (Kommission fuer das Armenarbeits-wesen) to execute work suitable to his powers. Should the relieved person refuse to execute the work assigned to him by the Committee, the decision of the Committee can be put into effect by the employment of direct force. For this object a relieved person can also be lodged in a poor relief workhouse against his will. In the case of need caused by only temporary circumstances, these provisions do not apply.

"The Committee consists of a Senate member of the Poor Law Board as President, and two members of the Board elected by the citizens, and two heads of the poor relief district or helpers as assistants. At least one of the assistants must possess qualification for a judge's office. The members of the Committee are appointed by the Poor Law Board for the period of

a year. In like manner the requisite number of deputies shall be appointed, and it shall be decided in what succession the deputies shall take the place of members who are prevented from being present. Fresh elections required in the course of a year through the withdrawal of members or their deputies hold for the rest of the year. The Committee is only competent to pass resolutions if all members, or in the place of members prevented from being present, deputies of corresponding number, are present. The decision of the Committee is made on the grounds of oral discussion. The Committee is authorised to examine witnesses, and put them on their oath. Before the decision is made, opportunity for speaking shall be given the person relieved against whom the proceedings are directed. The person relieved is authorised to appear in the proceedings with counsel. The provisions of Section 157, 2 PO, apply to the counsel in a similar way. For a decision establishing the enforcement of work, a majority of four is requisite. Complaints against such decisions (which shall be furnished with grounds) shall be made to the Senate; they shall also be disputable by way of action before the regular courts. The action is to be directed against the Poor Law Board.

"The execution of the decision is carried out by the Poor Law Board. The police administrations are obliged to grant any aid requisite for such execution. The execution shall not be delayed by the laying of the complaint before the Senate or the bringing of the action before the regular courts. After the bringing of the action before the court, the court can on proposal, or on its own initiative, order the cessation or the postponement of execution.

"The execution of the decision shall cease as soon as the legal grounds for it have disappeared, or in the opinion of the authorities the maintenance of the labour compulsion is no longer requisite. The person relieved against whom the decision is directed can at any time propose to the Committee for Poor Relief Work the postponement of execution of the decision. But the Committee is only obliged to decide on such proposal if at least three months have elapsed since the formulation of the decision or since the refusal of a proposal to abrogate the decision. If the relieved person is lodged in a workhouse, and such lodgment has lasted a year, the Committee, before establishing the continuance of the grounds for the obligation to work, shall, by means of a cessation of the lodgment for at least six months, give the relieved person opportunity of proving that the grounds for the execution of the decision no longer exist. The provisions of paragraph 3 apply to the procedure and the contesting of the decision in a similar way.

"The resulting earnings, so far as they are not required for covering the cost of lodging, shall be used for the maintenance of the family dependants, and in case such do not exist shall be given to the pauper on his discharge."

(3) In addition to these coercive measures in some States, especially in Prussia, the Poor Law Administrations are given authority to execute an administrative procedure against the next of kin, husband (wife), as against a wife (husband), children and parents, refund the relief granted their dependants, so far as they are in a position to do this. It is frequently sought to make use of this measure. The difficulty lies in the practical execution, because those concerned very often change their working places, and thereby evade the execution. Notwithstanding this, the procedure must be commended, since it completes the other measures in a suitable way.

11.—VAGRANCY.

30. I have expressed my views on this question in a Labour letter which I wrote at the desire of the National colonies Conference of Charities and Correction to their for vagrants. reporter, Mr. Lewis, 1906.

The letter ran as follows:—

"It is not easy to answer your questions briefly. The literature and the material on the subject

Dr. Emil Muensterberg

11 May, 1908.

Administrative procedure against deserters of families.

Dr. Emil
Muensterberg

11 May, 1908.

Intention of
German Poor
Law as to
vagrants.

have increased in Germany remarkably. The modern movement for the treatment of itinerant begging by work stations and labour colonies is about thirty years old.

"The German Poor Law prescribes that necessary relief shall be granted to every needy person, of whatever origin or nationality, at the place where he is at the moment of need. If this law were actually enforced, every large city and small town would have to support all needy persons, even transient wanderers, according to their individual needs. This has never been considered the intent of the law, and cannot be so considered, because needy wanderers require quite different relief measures from those adopted for temporary treatment. Poor relief funds, particularly in small communities and in the country, are not at all sufficient for this kind of aid.

"We understand by wayfarers able-bodied persons who go from one place to another in search of work. This form of wandering corresponds to the old German custom. If it were only a question of persons who honestly seek work, the problem would not be very hard to solve. In reality, there are, in addition to those who seek honest work, very many others who knock around the country on the pretext of seeking work; there are also those who long since lost the work habit, live by begging and by occasional theft, robbery, or even worse. Prisons and workhouses are constantly discharging persons who do not find their way back to honest work. There are still others who originally sought work, but who, seduced by the easy life of the road, have not found their way back to work, and gradually have become beggars and vagrants.

"We distinguish, therefore, fundamentally between the first category, those who really wish to work, and the second category, those who have under this pretext devoted themselves to begging and vagrancy. The assumption that all wayfarers are more or less work-shy has not proved tenable, because under unfavourable industrial conditions, as in 1902 and 1903, the number of vagrants increased very markedly, and fell off again with more favourable conditions from 1904 on. Practical aid is therefore particularly difficult, in the absence of a distinguishing mark by which we can determine whether the able-bodied man belongs to the first or the second category. One can determine illness and injury by medical examination, and age speaks for itself as a cause of relief, but we need a touchstone to determine, in the case of the able-bodied person, whether the lack of employment is his own fault. In other words, whether we have to do with a work-seeking or a work-shy person.

"The only possible test is the offer of work. This thought, which has a certain relation to the English workhouse test, led to the establishment of institutions equipped to offer such work. The work, however, had to be so arranged that the needy person should not be prevented from gradually travelling on to some place of permanent employment. The work should require but a short time to do, and no special previous training. On the other hand, the work should not be paid for in cash, because of the temptation to use the money wrongly, particularly for drink.

"So arose the desire to aid not in cash, but in 'kind' (Naturalien)—that is, food and lodging. The wanderer must gradually get to his destination, so any lengthy care in lodging and meals was not to be permitted. The places thus aiding the wanderer were brought into communication with each other, and each place thus acquired the character of a station, just as in the case of railroad stations. And because these stations gave relief in 'kind' (Naturalverpflegung), in return for work, the name 'Naturalverpflegungsstation' soon became current.

"Treatment by these stations differentiates itself from that of other local relief institutions, in that they are not established in every community, but, by agreement, within a certain larger district, similar to a county. The authorities and the citizens were asked not to aid relief-seeking wanderers directly, but to refer them to the stations. Thus developed in a series of counties a network of relief stations, which united in 1884 in an Association

of German Relief Stations (Gesamtverband deutscher Verpflegungsstationen). However, these series of stations exist actually only in those parts of the German Empire where the stream of wayfarers is greatest. The eastern portion of the Empire has taken little part in this movement.

"The network of stations should be practically without gaps, so that the wanderer should not, for instance, go immediately from a territory well provided with stations into one where there are no such institutions. Recently those whose experience gives their opinions authority have advocated a regulation of the matter by law. States and provinces should be empowered to establish network-like series of stations, and to require their maintenance by the communities and counties concerned.

"Very many stations were at first established that actually increased the chances of begging instead of diminishing them. To meet this situation a system of concentration has been developed recently, particularly in the district of Bielefeld and the province of Westphalia. Stations, not too frequent, are established, with good opportunities for work, offering a forenoon's work and immediate further wandering in the afternoon. The railroad is made use of to a considerable extent for the wayfarer's transportation, the ticket, but not the cash fare, being furnished him. A definite itinerary (Wanderordnung) serves to ensure a definite plan of work, and a way-ticket (Wanderschein) serves for his identification. The number of stations has decreased, due in part to lack of funds; however, unnecessary stations have been discontinued and amalgamated. There are at present in Germany about 1,200 stations.

"The most important development of the station is its connection with the Labour Registry (Arbeitsnachweis), an arrangement by which an employment bureau is established at the station itself, or in communication with it. This movement is supported very actively by Government funds.

"The labour colonies developed from the experience of the stations, the first colony being established in 1882, at Bielefeld. The purpose of the labour colony is to win back to work those wanderers who in consequence of a protracted life of begging or vagrancy have lost the energy to work. There are at present 33 colonies, receiving in 1906 9,113 colonists; the number of days' work in all colonies was 826,931.

"The Home Inns (Herbergen zur Heimat) developed out of the old apprentices' inns and serve a somewhat better grade than the real wayfarers. In some places the stations and the inns are united. There were in all Germany, in 1905, 462 home inns; total number of lodgers, 2,307,830; total lodgings, 4,089,093.

"Opinions are very varied as to the success of the above-mentioned institutions. Some feel that the stations and the colonies have developed for begging and vagrancy, an opinion not shared by most specialists. On the contrary, the conviction has grown that the legal provisions at present are not adequate, and that an organisation adapted to the treatment of this special condition is necessary. I share this opinion. Although I grant that the institutions mentioned are not free by any means from misuse, and that they have not rid the land of all begging and vagrancy, I do feel that, judging from our experience, they are the only practical means of bettering conditions.

"One must differentiate carefully between two categories of wayfarers mentioned above. The first class must be served by the stations, in connection with organised labour registries, thus enabling the wandering, unemployed man to move in a regulated fashion from place to place, without the necessity of begging, until he has found work. He must, however, pledge himself to take offered employment if it is at all fitted to him.

"Whoever refuses offered work, and declines without reasonable grounds the station work, should be counted in the second category; he should not be aided, but handed over to the police, and dealt with by the law. We need a much better set of penal statutes, so that the really work-shy will be recognised as parasites of human society,

Definition
and origin
of vagrants.

Need of
differentiating
between
work-seeking
and workshy
wayfarers.

Natural-
verpflegungs-
stations for
vagrants.

Railway
tickets
furnished
for
vagrants.

Govt.
employment
co-
operation
bureau
with
our
registries
for
vagrants.

Labour
colonies
and
work
for
wayfarers.

Effect
provisions
for
vagrants.

Need
differentiating
between
wayfarers
and
homeless
penal
statutes.

sentenced to hard labour, and when found to be recidivistic and incapable of reformation, rendered permanently harmless to society.

"The labour colonies have proved themselves a means of now and then restoring to work persons unaccustomed to work. But the number of the really improved is comparatively small. Nevertheless, the labour colonies are for precisely this class a very welcome supplement to ordinary poor relief, for the men really work during their stay in the colonies, and refrain from drink. Thus they are protected, and society is protected from them. A very large number of persons roam the highways, who, because of their manner of living, and particularly because of drink, are actually no longer capable of work.

"These, as well as aged persons, must be received for permanent care in the proper hospitals, institutions, or homes for the aged."

12.—MEDICAL SERVICE.

31. In Berlin and Hamburg doctors are appointed who in all questions concerning the health and industrial capacity of the poor persons have to give their opinion, and, as far as it is a question of sick persons, to see to their treatment or assign them to suitable hospitals and nursing institutions. The districts of these doctors are strictly adapted to the relief districts, so that as a rule not more than two (Hamburg) or three (Berlin) districts fall to a single poor relief doctor. He receives as remuneration for this activity a lump sum, which in Hamburg amounts to 1,000 marks for two districts, in Berlin to 1,500 marks for three to four districts. But in Berlin there is an intention to raise these salaries by 20 to 25 per cent. The question of the so-called free choice of doctor, i.e., whether every poor person should have the right to consult any approved doctor at the expense of the poor relief administration, is much debated. Theoretically, this question is readily answered in the affirmative, because one cannot begrudge the poor person his having at hand the doctor in whom he has confidence. From the practical point of view, on the contrary, the free choice of doctor is rejected by all experts. It is necessary that every poor relief district should have at hand a trustworthy doctor, acknowledged by it and always available. Since further authority is granted the poor relief doctor to prescribe not only medicines, but also remedies like milk, meat, eggs and the like, it is to be feared that the doctors who prescribe the said remedies mostly and most freely will be those most sought. This fear has been confirmed by the experiences hitherto made in France and Germany. In the case of free choice of doctor, it would also be difficult to regulate the remuneration for individual cases of treatment. It is sought in the big towns with permanently appointed doctors to prevent possible inconvenience by selecting the doctors very carefully, and carefully controlling their activity. For the most part it may be said that the medical care of the poor in large towns, especially in Berlin and Hamburg, satisfies reasonable claims, the more so as in these towns there are large well-organised hospitals, as well as clinical establishments for the treatment of out-patients in almost as great numbers as in-patients; and, finally, the poor relief administration has, in addition, made agreements with a large number of specialists, particularly oculists, ear specialists, gynecologists, nerve specialists, etc., so as to assure to the poor person special treatment in such cases. A much harder question is medical care in the country, which also in Germany leaves much to be desired. The rural parishes have no, or very small, means with which to appoint doctors; also the doctors themselves are little inclined to settle in the country. In my opinion the only remedy here is for the Provinces and the State to undertake this duty, and either grant the rural parishes means with which to appoint doctors, or to directly effect the appointment of doctors.

13.—CARE OF CHILDREN.

32. As regards the question put to me as to what system in Germany is specially favoured, I can answer that the system of family care (i.e., boarding out) has almost entirely supplanted the system of institutional relief. The big towns have, as in Berlin and

Hamburg, an orphanage into which the children to be maintained are taken first of all. The children can make longer stays in the institution where it is a question of comparatively short absence of the parents, especially of the mothers, and the children can be forthwith given back; or where they are sick children who require special care and medical treatment; or, finally, where they are children of refractory character who must be observed for some time first of all so as to form an opinion as to whether they should be given to family care or to an institution. The Prussian Law on Compulsory Education also places family care in the first rank. The premises unconditionally laid down by all experts as regards family care are, however, firstly, the foster families must be selected most carefully; with the help of special trustworthy persons this careful selection is secured; secondly, the foster families must be continually supervised, which is likewise effected by trustworthy persons who live in the neighbourhood, as also by inspectors directly sent by the Poor Law Boards; thirdly, that suitable money be paid for the care of the children. Its amount depends on local circumstances; but by all means one must aim at securing that the foster parents do not think of money-making in the first place, but take a liking to the child, and consider and treat it as their own. On the whole the experiences made in this connection are to be characterised as favourable.

100301. (*Chairman.*) You attach great importance to large areas of administration, I think?—Yes.

100302. Because then the rich districts help the smaller and poorer ones?—Yes.

100303. You find that in the small districts the difficulty is very often that of finance?—Yes.

100304. As regards the Elberfeld system, I think you consider its great characteristic the constant visitation of the people by the visitor who is responsible; am I right in that?—Yes. As I have pointed out, it is a mistake to call it exclusively the Elberfeld system, as the system has existed ever since Christianity has occupied itself with charities. The chief point of the system is to inquire into the single cases, and to have as many helpers as are needed to inquire into the single cases. We have a system of honorary helpers, and there are so many of them that they only deal with three or four cases each. The system in its modern form has been re-organised in Elberfeld, where they had the great advantage of getting very many helpers, so that they had very few cases for each helper, and every case could be investigated so thoroughly that the total burden on the town became very much decreased, while at the same time the relief granted to the single case became much higher.

100305. In Berlin the grant of continuous relief for a whole year is permissible, but I presume the person to whom such relief was given would be constantly visited during the year by some one?—Yes. I am sorry to say that I am not quite sure that my district committees are so careful as they should be in every case. It is a mistake to allow permanent relief for a whole year, and if I could do away with it I would. I think every case must be inquired into at least every month. By our General Orders, of which I have quoted some in my Statement, it is prescribed that the helpers must have a permanent over-watching of the poor, and if the orders were carefully followed, then it would be impossible that any change in the conditions of the relieved persons could escape the view of the helper; but as a fact I must confess that we have cases in which the change does escape the view of the helper. That is a fault of administration only, and not a fault of the rule.

100306. Have you paid officers who are associated with the visitors?—In Berlin, not; in other towns, yes.

100307. In Berlin then you trust the visitors entirely as regards visitation?—Yes.

100308. Should you like to have paid officials, or do you think that would be unadvisable?—We should like it very much. We think it would be very helpful to have some paid officers, but no men of an inferior class. I want really educated social workers, who will help the helpers, the district committee, to understand their task better. We are now occupied in considering that question. We have in the smaller towns such paid officers besides the honorary helpers, and as far as I know they have proved very well.

Dr. Emil Muensterberg

11 May, 1908.

Superiority of "boarding out" system over others.

Advantage of large areas for administration.

Advantages of Elberfeld system and need of paid officials.

Dr. Emil Muensterberg 100309. In Berlin you have now 4,000 helpers, I think?—Yes.

11-May, 1908. 100310. How are these helpers obtained? Do you ask people to join, or is it the head of each particular district who does that?—They are appointed by the town councillors. It is an honorary duty, and it is not by appointment through the magistrate but by the town councillors, who are elected by popular vote. The whole town is divided into a great many districts; every town councillor is a kind of chairman for his district, and if there is a vacancy in one of the districts the town councillor for the district is requested to see that new helpers are provided. On this proposal they are appointed by the town council itself.

Appointment of "helpers," and disfranchisement on refusal.

100311. Would the councillor ask the person whom he proposed to nominate whether he was willing to serve?—Yes, he would as a rule. But it happens sometimes that he does not ask, and then we may have difficulties.

100312. Can anybody decline to serve after he has been nominated?—Yes; after three years' service he may decline.

100313. But in the first instance can he decline?—No, he cannot. If he does, we have a bye-law which gives the power to punish him by increasing his income-tax on the quarter and by depriving him of his electoral vote for three years. I wish to add that it is very seldom that we make use of that power, because we do not wish to deal with unwilling helpers.

100314. Do you act on a bye-law of the municipality?—Yes.

100315. It is not an Imperial law then?—No. The Imperial law prescribes nothing else but that the poor must be maintained; that is done in two lines, and there is nothing else in the Imperial law. The State laws add that the poor must be relieved by shelter, medical treatment, institutions for out-relief, and so on. The execution of all these prescriptions is absolutely left to the municipality, which can do as it likes.

100316. They have the power of raising the taxation?—Yes; but that is not a poor tax—it is the general tax of the municipality. The whole cost is taken from the money of the municipality. Poor relief is only a department of the whole of the administration of the town. I am an alderman of the city corporation of Berlin, and it is in my quality of alderman, and as a member of the general administration, that I am appointed by the mayor president of this one department of public relief.

100317. Do those who have performed this work like it, so that after they have served three years they will remain longer?—Yes; as a rule they will remain, the greater part of them, for ten years or twenty years or twenty-five years.

100318. So you really have little difficulty in getting people to serve, even without applying the penalty?—We have now a difficulty on one point, in which we are perhaps similar to your conditions in the suburbs of London. We have land which is not built on until the population increases, and then in the new parts of the town where there are only newcomers it is very difficult to get helpers. In the older parts of the town there is no difficulty in that regard.

Co-operation of charities with public relief.

100319. Passing on to the second part of your paper, which deals with the co-operation of public relief with private charity, there is no obligation, as I understand, at present on the charities to co-operate with the public bodies?—Only in a very small degree. The Prussian law prescribes that every incorporated charity and endowed charity—no private charities as such, but endowed charities, church corporations and corporations which are of *utilité publique*—shall give the names of the poor they assist, and the amount of the help which is given to them. It is very seldom that we make use of that power.

100320. Do they offer to give you that information?—Yes. We ask them for it, but it is a little difficult to keep the registers in a big town like Berlin. In many others of the German towns, the relations between the public charities and the private charities in this way are very good and very helpful to the administration.

100321. As regards the relief given, outdoor relief greatly preponderates in Germany, I think?—You may

say that it more than preponderates; you may say that it is the regular form of relief. Preponderance of outdoor relief.

100322. You say in your Statement that indoor relief is only given to certain classes?—Yes.

100323. Your experience is that the system of outdoor relief is a good system where the practice is that of individualised relief?—Yes.

100324. You attach great importance to that, I suppose?—Yes.

100325. You can inquire into the conditions of each individual, and shape your relief accordingly?—Yes.

100326. I understand that in Berlin you frame your own bye-laws?—Yes.

100327. You give us some of them in Paragraph 14. Does each great municipality in Germany frame its own bye-laws?—Yes, they nearly all do.

100328. I was going to ask you if you would not mind letting us see all the Articles of the Instructions as to Outdoor Relief framed by you for Berlin?—Yes. It will be a pleasure for me to send you twenty-five copies.

100329. If you send us three or four that will be sufficient, as we can get them translated. These articles seem to me to be very well drawn; they are comparatively modern, are they not?—Yes. I will send them to the secretary.

100330. You have a system of public insurance in operation which does not exist in the same way here; and old age and you take into account the insurance allowances in giving relief?—Yes. Invalid pension.

100331. I think you have an insurance for sickness, for unemployment, and for old age?—Not for unemployment.

100332. But you have for sickness and old age, I think?—For sickness, invalidity, old age, and accidents.

100333. Would you kindly tell us something about sickness and invalidity?—Do you find that in a great many cases it is difficult to distinguish between sickness, invalidity, and an old-age pension?—Yes, that is so. That is a question which is very much discussed, before all other questions connected with insurance. We want to unite the different institutions for sick relief, invalidity, and old-age relief, because a man who is sick is apt to become invalid before he reaches old age; and so he has not to wait until his seventieth year, but if he goes invalid before seventy, he gets his pension earlier.

100334. That is a point I rather want you to make clear. Under the old-age scheme he would not get his pension till seventy, but if he becomes sick before seventy, and invalidity is proved, he gets a sick pension, which is much the same as old-age pension, I take it?—No, a pension is not allowed for sickness. The allowance he receives for sickness he receives only during his illness. It is usually a weekly allowance; or he is treated in a hospital, or he has free medical relief. The insurance for sickness is not meant as a permanent relief or a permanent allowance. Sickness in our system of insurance is a temporary state, and if the patient becomes a man who is permanently sick he is, so to say, transferred from the sick insurance to the invalidity insurance. All people who are insured against sickness must be at the same time insured against invalidity and old age.

100335. At what age may an invalidity payment begin—I mean when could a person be maintained on the ground of invalidity?—From the moment in which he is declared to be invalid. It does not depend upon a certain age.

100336. Supposing somebody could prove invalidity at sixty years of age, would he receive the invalidity payment up to seventy?—Yes, and after seventy, the old-age pension having been changed before reaching the age of seventy into an invalidity pension. They are to closely connected that one is like the other. If he gets at sixty years the invalidity pension, then he remains in possession of that allowance after having reached his seventieth year.

100337. Do you know if the invalidity pensions are greater than was anticipated?—Yes. They grow from day to day, and whilst in the beginning the old-age pensions were higher, now the invalidity pensions are very much more numerous.

Preponderance of outdoor relief.

100338. Does the man receive under the invalidity pension as much in the year as he would under an old-age pension?—More. It depends a little upon his contributions. If he is unfortunate enough to become invalid after ten years or more, perhaps in his thirtieth year, the pension is smaller, of course, than if he becomes invalid in his sixtieth or sixty-fifth year.

100339. I understand that these invalidity pensions are becoming a serious charge upon the funds?—Yes. The invalidity and old-age pensions will be now nearly £8,000,000 or £9,000,000, or 150,000,000, marks; and the whole amount of sick insurance and old-age pensions and accidents is a little more than £25,000,000.

100340. The medical insurance is not universal, I gather, because a certain number of workmen not in regular employment do not pay that insurance?—Of course.

100341. Do you provide medical relief for those who are not medically insured?—Yes.

100342. You have a large staff of doctors for that purpose in Berlin, have you not?—Yes. I do not know the exact number, but we have now between 100 and 110.

100343. Are those doctors allowed to practice as well?—Yes.

100344. You pay them a lump sum a year, do you not?—Yes.

100345. And they have to attend to those cases?—Yes.

100346. How do you settle which case a doctor has to attend to?—The whole arrangement is managed by the chairman of the district committees. Everyone who is in need of help of any kind, outdoor or institutional, has to apply to the chairman of the district committee. The chairman gives him a certificate for the doctor, and then the doctor is allowed to do whatever he thinks fit for the patient. He can send such a person to a hospital or to an infirmary, or he can treat him immediately by medical relief, giving him medicine and such things. He has to do everything that is necessary to restore the man.

100347. No one in Prussia has a legal right to relief?—That is so.

100348. But if he objects to the relief given he can appeal, can he not, to an authority?—Yes, but not to a court—only to the administrative power.

100349. You are rather doubtful as to the advantage of a tariff system of relief?—Yes, but only for practical reasons. Theoretically I agree absolutely with the tariff system; but practically speaking, judging from my experience, and I have now been twenty years on the administration, the helpers do not calculate so exactly.

100350. The employment of good and adequate case-papers is an essential part of your system, I think?—Yes, but more as a matter of custom than of prescription. We employ very many forms, and I think it is quite indispensable to have the full particulars of the case before us. Then, if a family or a man moves from one point of the town into the area of another district committee, the new committee would have the whole papers before them and in consequence could deal with the case much more easily. It also makes it easier for control by the board.

100351. Passing on to your fifth subject, the procuring of means, I understand that you prepare a budget, taking into account all receipts, and then obtain from the municipality the sum which you have just budgeted for; but if there is greater distress than was anticipated and you require more money, you would get your budget supplemented?—Yes, without any difficulty. Nobody would refuse the means which are wanted for the poor.

100352. May I put a personal question? Do you think that is because you are the head of the administration, or is it the practice to give it? Is it because they have confidence in you, or do you think it is because it would be the practice?—It is the practice. Practically it would be unheard-of, if the Board of which I am president were not to get the money. For instance, at this moment I know that I shall exceed my budget this year, because we are passing through unusual times. Perhaps I shall want £5,000 more. If I go to the town council it will be granted without a word.

100353. We have dealt already with the next heads, the right of the poor and the loss of the electoral vote.

There is a difference of opinion as to what does disqualify; sometimes it is a question whether the person who has received the relief has lost his economic independence or whether he has only received a merited and temporary relief; the law is not very clear on that point, is it?—No, it is not. As a rule the man loses his electoral vote when he receives temporary relief; but, rather on account of administrative difficulties, there is a little leniency shown really. It is too difficult to give an account of all the medical reliefs—the medicine that is given for 2d., for instance; we cannot write that down—it would be such an immense piece of work. Therefore, practically, we do not take an account of the medical relief. But now the question is being very much discussed, and all theoretically agree about the point that treatment in a hospital and in an infirmary must not be bound up with the loss of the electoral vote, because it is a disaster and not a fault of the man. We hope, therefore, that that condition will be abolished.

100354. Would medical relief now disqualify?—Yes; according to the system of our law it disqualifies, but the practice is a little more lenient.

100355. (Sir Samuel Provis.) You ignore it a little, and you do not exactly take account of it where it is small?—That is so.

100356. (Chairman.) I think I need not deal with the figures that you give in your eighth section, as they speak for themselves. Coming now to unemployment, I think you have a labour agency in every populous district?—Practically, yes, but not always as a municipal institution. At Munich, for instance, it is a municipal institution, but in Berlin it is not—though in Berlin it is maintained in such a way that it is nearly a municipal institution.

100357. In Berlin it plays a very considerable part in industrial questions between employers and employed, does it not?—Yes.

100358. Then as to insurance against unemployment, you think the only system which promises success is that on the principle of the Belgian system?—Yes.

100359. That hardly touches the poorest class of workmen, does it? The Ghent system only applies to or affects the organised trades, and not the poorest class?—That is so; it is quite without influence on the latter.

100360. Therefore it is no insurance of the poorest class?—No. That is the real difficulty that we have. Then also a great many trade unions take care of their members in times of unemployment. I made observations in connection with the great building strike last year. We have had nearly no applications from the side of members of the building trade unions; but those people who do not belong to a trade union, and who are unemployed, give us great difficulty.

100361. Do you think that unemployment can be dealt with by the provision of work by the parishes?—Yes, partly. We have in every town work similar to what is provided by the distress committees, but not by order of the law; it is done by the free decision of the administrations, because we think it desirable to have some work which is useful but not urgent, which can be reserved for other times. So practically in Germany a great deal is being done for the unemployed in the harder times, but it is done without rule and without law. It is done by individual town administrations.

100362. Passing on to compulsory detention, I see you have two classes of measures—you have the penal measures detention, under the Imperial Penal Code, by which drunkards, idlers, and tramps can be punished either by imprisonment or by compulsory labour in the workhouse for two years?—Yes.

100363. Are those penal measures much used?—No. I am sorry to say they are very useless, because they are employed by judges who have no understanding of social conditions of this kind. In all our meetings we complain of this state of things. It is really a pity to see the healthy and able-bodied people walk through the town and desert their families, because we have no means to punish them, or if we bring them before the judge he merely fines them 10 marks, which they can earn within a week. The law is not bad, but the administration of the law is bad.

Dr. Emil Muensterberg
11 May, 1908.
Disqualification of medical relief.

Unemployment in Germany and application of Ghent system of insurance.

Compulsory detention, and classes so detained.

Dr. Emil Muensterberg
11 May, 1908.
Compulsory detention and classes so detained.

100364. Then you had administrative measures which were enacted by the law of 1855, under which persons could, by administrative procedure, be assigned to the workhouse if they deserted their families; but that law has been repealed?—That is not in practice now; that is abolished.

100365. But in Hamburg they have got a law something like that, have they not?—Yes, a quite new one. It is not yet in force, but I think it will start very probably next January, and we are very curious to see what will be the success of it.

100366. I see you say that: "For a decision establishing the enforcement of work, a majority of four is requisite"; the court consists of five, does it not?—Yes.

100367. And four of those would have to agree?—Yes.

100368. Is that right?—It is to give the greatest protection that is possible against abuse.

100369. Do you think something of the kind described in your Statement ought to work well?—I hope so. In Germany we are really very anxious about this new step at Hamburg; we hope very much from it, and we hope that it will be a model for other States, and perhaps for the Empire.

100370. At present, the only means of detaining a person is through the Imperial Penal Code, apparently. Have you any other power of detaining a person?—No; we can only act through the Criminal Courts. But Hamburg will now have the power of such a kind of detention without a judicial decision.

Labour colonies and home inns for wayfarers.
100371. The labour colonies to which certain people go are not institutions maintained at the public expense, are they?—No.

100372. But you have penal workhouses?—Yes.

100373. Which are maintained at the public expense?—Yes. They are put up not by the municipalities, but by the provinces, which would correspond perhaps with your counties.

100374. Do the provinces combine to maintain one for the use of a great many?—They do not combine. A province is a great administrative division of the whole kingdom. The whole kingdom is divided into thirteen provinces, and the province is one of the greater departments.

100375. You say: "The labour colonies have proved themselves a means of now and then restoring to work persons unaccustomed to work; but the number of the really improved is comparatively small." Not many have been reclaimed through these colonies, have they?—I daresay in a year nearly 4,000. But first we send old people and people who are really destitute and outcasts—drunkards and wayfarers.

100376. Then I see you have in Germany Home Inns where persons who want work can receive lodging for the night. I understand that workmen who are really in want of work get better treatment there than the ordinary vagrant; is that so?—I cannot say so, because we admit able-bodied people also to other relief. If the district committee can prove their willingness to work, then they are admitted. The invalidity card is a great help. If a man, for instance, has the twelfth or thirteenth card with stamps, that is a sign that he has had work all the time. If he shows such a card, and if the other information in the house is good, then he gets other relief. We have for the able-bodied without employment very large night shelters and refuges.

Rural and urban medical relief in Germany.

100377. Now I come to the medical service. In paragraph 31 you describe to us the system of Berlin and the big towns, and at the end of that paragraph you say a much harder question is the medical care of the poor in the country?—Yes, that is so.

100378. Your idea is that they want more money?—Yes.

100379. And a larger area I suppose?—Yes.

100380. As they at present are unable to appoint the number of doctors that is necessary?—Yes. That is my opinion in regard to all Poor Law administration in the smaller towns and villages. Poor Law relief there is only a question of money—nothing else; its administration is very easy in a small village. But in a large and big city, it is not so much the want of money as the

question of administration, and in the country generally the case is very bad.

100381. The last subject you deal with is the care of Boarding-out children; the system that you adopt is that of general boarding-out the children, is it not?—Yes, absolutely.

100382. Do you find that works well?—One cannot answer with a quite bare yes or no. In Berlin we are now very careful in selecting the foster-parents, and to over-watch them by the inspectors. If good inspection is not guaranteed, the system works very badly.

100383. Have you any difficulty in getting the right sort of people with whom to board these children?—No, we have not. We do it very much in the country and not in Berlin. We have many hundred colonies in several parts of the Empire where we board our children.

100384. If you send Berlin children to a district some way from Berlin, who looks after the children, and inspects the children?—We have in every one of those little villages, which we call colonies, trustworthy people such as clergymen, teachers, farmers, to whom we pay a little compensation for every child in order that they should look after it. From time to time we send inspectors to the different colonies. The system works fairly well.

100385. There is no direct election in Germany for the Poor Law, but it is part and parcel of the municipal government, I think?—Yes. The Poor Law is only a general prescription that every poor person must be relieved conformably to his need. There are towns which refuse outdoor relief, and others which refuse money and give relief only in kind, so that the practice everywhere is quite different; but as a rule, one can say that outdoor relief is prevalent.

100386. Do politics in Germany enter very much in municipal contests?—Absolutely not.

100387. Not at all?—No. They do a little in educational work, but there are rather Confessional questions and such like, that arise. In our work I may say absolutely not.

100388. When a contest takes place in a new municipality, would not politics enter into the contest?—No, as a rule not.

100389. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) With regard to the care of the children, what is the area which bears the expense outside the large towns?—Every municipality. There does not exist any part which is not covered with a municipality, a borough, or a village. It is done conformably to the laws of settlement.

100390. When it is not a large town, is that a small area?—Yes.

100391. Does that make the expense heavy sometimes for small towns?—Not only expensive but absolutely ruinous for small towns. Two weeks ago our Law of Settlement was changed on that account. Our aim is to help those little villages by contributions of the larger departments and the State; but at this moment it is really ruinous. It is impossible to stand such a budget.

100392. How do you propose to meet that; by making the area larger, or by making a contribution?—We who are experts, if I may say so without lack of modesty, agree with creating a larger area so that a number of small villages are combined into a greater union. It is allowed now by law, for such a law exists; but, as a fact, none of those small communities have ever made use of it, because if the one has a little more wealth than the other they are in fear that they will have to pay for the other; therefore it must be by compulsory law. It will never succeed if you have it dependent upon the good-will of the single villages. We now aim to have compulsory law to compel the small villages to unite.

100393. That is more on the lines of our union system?—Yes.

100394. Going back for one moment to the question of the right of the poor to relief, I think you said there was an appeal to an administrative officer? Is that an appeal to a Government officer?—Not to an officer; it is to the Government itself. It is to the province government, what we call oberpräsident; we have some administrative powers with administrative courts, and the appeal is to the administrative court; but it is not dealt with by a judicial procedure.

Appeal and right of poor to relief

and 100395. What I understand is this : that a person who poor is refused relief may appeal ?—Yes.

100396. But the appeal is to an administrative body, which does not decide on judicial grounds, but on administrative grounds ?—Exclusively.

100397. (*Chairman.*) Is the body to whom the person appeals connected with the Poor Law ?—No, only connected with the general administration—all kinds of administration.

100398. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) Do you have many cases of such appeals ?—No, very seldom, it depends. For instance, in Berlin I am the court of appeal. I am kind-hearted with regard to all the poor ; and if they appeal to me I enter into the case ; but as a rule we very seldom have appeals of that kind.

100399. I see that you are not in favour of the workhouse test, but would regard a very stringent system of examination and a very full system of examination as superseding the necessity for a workhouse test ?—Yes. That is a very difficult question. We have not what you call workhouse tests for the greatest part of our cases. We have no workhouse tests at all except in this way : If a man or woman applies to be helped, and the district committee has inquired into the case and is of the opinion that such person cannot be helped or cannot be relieved by outdoor relief, then they say : “ If you are in such need that you cannot help yourself, we will take you into the workhouse.”

100400. (*Mr. Loch.*) That workhouse would be the Poor Law workhouse ?—It is not prescribed that every union must have a workhouse ; but most of the bigger cities and of the greater communities have such a workhouse or almshouse ; but it is not quite the type of workhouse in the sense that you have.

100401. They are more like a poor-house ?—Yes.

100402. (*Sir Samuel Provis.*) Your scheme involves a very great number of investigators, does it not ?—Yes.

100403. Are you able to secure uniformity of investigation or uniformity of action on the part of those people ?—Yes.

100404. How do you do that ?—We have a general order or rule of which the Chairman spoke ; and I will send you copies of it. That is directed by the Board, of which I am the President ; and I myself am very careful to see that the instructions are followed. I allow audience to every poor person in the town, which consists of more than 2,000,000. Every poor person may apply to me directly. I have three days a week audience, and everyone may apply to me ; so that by this personal influence care is taken that the district committees are not out of touch with the head of the administration.

100405. Do you find your helpers rather tender-hearted and rather desirous of giving relief ?—It differs ; in the wealthy districts they are sometimes a little generous, but in the poor ones they are more reluctant.

100406. Do you find difficulty from that in securing uniform action on the part of your helpers ?—Yes, there is uniformity only in the one community, not in the whole country. Every town rules as it likes.

100407. (*Mr. Loch.*) In your organisation of poor relief in Berlin you group your small areas into larger ones, kreise, do you not ? You have three authorities ; the central, then somebody over a group of small districts, and lastly the small districts ?—Yes ; there is the general board of direction ; and then under the general administration there work nearly 400 district committees, who have to deal with the single cases without approval of the Board. They have to decide upon the single cases.

100408. In this way the control which you exert from the central body extends over the whole of the area ?—Yes.

100409. And the smaller local areas are controlled by a group of committees with one president ?—Yes, in a certain way. We have arranged for some years that between the Board and the district committee there should be another authority which consists of the chairmen of the single committees ; fifteen to twenty are grouped as an authority ; and they have to decide upon the complaints of the poor, and upon certain general questions. That has proved itself a very good means of

taking the burden from the general board, and from my own work, because we have an intermediary between the districts and the Board. *Dr. Emil Muensterberg*

11 May 1908.

100410. These districts are not in any way connected with the wards for electoral purposes, or anything of that kind, are they ?—No, they have nothing to do with the wards.

100411. They are entirely independent of the other districts ?—Yes.

100412. At the central office which you preside over you have a register of all the cases in this population of 2,000,000 ?—Yes.

100413. Do you include the suburbs at all ?—No ; because the suburbs are quite separate municipalities. I am sorry to say that, but it is so. We give mutual information ; but we have no insight into the cases which are in the suburbs.

100414. Do you think that a system of registration such as you have would be applicable to a larger population such as we have, say 5,000,000 ?—Of course, it must be possible. We cannot do without it. Every case is registered in alphabetical order ; and, when we have the papers, it is found out in a moment, whether we have investigated the case before or not.

100415. Then your district committee is always obliged to consult you, before going on with a case, as to whether it is known ?—Yes, they report every month. After their monthly meeting they have to report to the general board, and give in the report the papers of the new cases which they have treated ; then the papers are embodied in the general register, and sent back to the district committee.

100416. Your clerk or clerks look through the papers, to see if the case is already known elsewhere ?—Yes, they should do so ; but that is also a little deficient. I have a separate office in which the reports of the district committees are controlled. I think there are perhaps twenty or twenty-five people who have nothing to do but to control the reports of the district committees, partly with regard to the accounts which they have to give, and partly on account of the quality of the case ; so that, for instance, a case which does not conform to our rules may be reproached or sent back.

100417. Then, in that way you are practically checking the whole administration of the town in detail from the centre ?—Yes.

100418. Not merely in general ways, but in detail ?—Yes ; not in a general way, inasmuch as we have in control the whole administration, and give rules and orders, and deal with single committees whom we control, besides the single cases ; but as a rule the single committee is quite independent.

100419. Do you have inspectors besides ?—No.

100420. Do you think that would be a good thing to have with your system ?—Yes, I think it would be a very good thing, but I should not be very anxious to do so, because I think the members of my district committees would kill me if I gave them inspectors. It is nearly impossible to give them with honorary officials. I am very cautious. There is a board they know, and it is empowered to reproach them or give them orders ; that they are accustomed to ; but to give them inspectors, paid inspectors who have to watch over them, I would not say it would be quite impossible, but very difficult. I can assure you it is such a serious question that we are very much occupied with it, and I think to do it, but in a concealed way, so that they do not become aware that there is an inspector.

100421. With regard to the applicants who are placed by you in hospitals, do you pay for those out of some fund that is granted to you ?—Yes, the same budget. It is divided into titles and divisions, but it is the same budget. *Co-operation of Poor Law with voluntary institutions.*

100422. And you would include those persons in the total of the number of poor persons in Berlin for the particular day or year ?—Yes.

100423. Do you send them to any large extent to voluntary or municipal hospitals, and pay for them there ?—Not so very many ; there must be made the distinction between infirmaries and sick hospitals, and hospitals in the larger sense for old people, and such like. Private sick hospitals are quite excluded because we have now,

Dr. Emil
Muensterberg

11 May 1908.

Go-operation
of Poor Law
with
voluntary
institutions.

perhaps, 6,000 beds of our own, so we do not need private hospitals. But the old people, or a great many of them, are sent to private institutions. We have some institutions with which we are in relation. When we have a good institution for deserving old women or deserving old men we allow them to go into those institutions; and we pay £1 10s. or £2 a month, for them there.

100424. Those are voluntary institutions in which you would place them?—Yes.

100425. To a large extent you are using voluntary associations in supplementation of your general administration?—Not so much; but, for instance, such new institutions as the sanatoria for consumptives, and the holiday homes for children. In the last few weeks there has been instituted a quite new organisation for crippled children; and with that institution we have agreed to send the children to them, and we pay because we have no such institutions. I have convinced myself that that is a very useful institution—where they have apprenticeship, and so on.

100426. And so you are always ready to turn to account any institution that you think may be of service to you in administering poor relief?—Yes, we are quite free in that respect; but that is, of course, an affair of the general administration; that cannot be done by the district committees, only by the Board.

100427. As a rule, are the admissions to institutions arranged by the Board and not by the district committee?—Yes; that is because it would be impossible to allow 400 district committees to send to the institution. It must be done by way of the general board; but it is not so very difficult; they report to us; we have several general rules; the cases are investigated; and then they are sent by the order of the general board.

100428. Your general board really acts as a controller and administrator in all the institutions?—Yes; we send people there to revise them; they are private institutions partly; and we send members of the Board in order to revise them.

Relief to
able-bodied
men with
families.

100429. When you have an able-bodied man with a family your practice, if he was a man of obviously good position, with a good character, and so on, would be to give him outdoor relief?—Absolutely.

100430. In those cases is there any limitation as to the continuation of the relief, or do you let it go on subject to a general control?—It is done in the same way as the other relief. If it is a really deserving man, whose willingness to work is without doubt, he is relieved several times, perhaps two or three months, without hesitation.

100431. You do not find evil results from that?—They are very good. We are quite satisfied with the results if, as I must repeatedly point out, there is a thorough investigation.

100432. Supposing you have the other class of man, not of satisfactory position, known to have applied before, and so on, and the sort of case that we should very likely offer an order for admission to the House, what do you do with that case?—If we have able-bodied men who are not deserving, who live with their families, then perhaps we give the wife and the children relief, and tell the man to go to work; if he does not, we refuse further relief, and then he must do something. If he is very undeserving, and the children are in danger of being neglected, then we ask for a judicial order so that we may take the children away, because we have no power to compel the man to give us the children. We have no other power than to decide upon relief or no relief. If we say: We refuse relief, then the case is rejected; but if the district committee becomes aware in that case that there are children in a very bad state, neglected, ill-treated, and such things, then they report it; and we try to have the children placed under our authority. For those purposes we need a judicial decision.

100433. (Mr. Nunn.) If a man is told to go to work, is work provided for him?—No.

100434. (Mr. Loch.) He is told to get work anywhere he may?—Yes.

100435. The penalty in such a case is that the children at any rate, are taken away?—Yes.

100436. What becomes of the wife?—That is a very difficult question. If we can we compel her to pay for

the children; but we have a very weak law, which is also very badly administered. It is the law that we can cause her to be compelled; but the law is very badly administered by our judges. It is just the same as I told you before; We can ask the wife or the man to pay for the children, and if we proceeded so far that he is compelled and then try to execute the order, he changes his workplace, or even he leaves the city, or he is not to be found. On paper it is a wonderful law; but in practice it is nearly useless.

100437. Practically, when it comes to this stage, you are very often left finally without a remedy against the man?—Yes.

100438. Do you find that these children are increasing in number; that you have to take charge of a larger and larger number year by year?—No, it is not so very bad.

100439. Do you find that there is much desertion of children?—Yes, very much.

100440. Irrespective of any procedure such as we have been talking about just now?—Yes.

100441. What do you do in these desertion cases? How do you hear of them; in the first instance by an application from the deserted wife?—Yes. We try to make him or her condemned, and we try to have payment from him or her; but it is very difficult to execute such an order.

100442. Practically, do you find the man has gone away leaving the wife to make the complaint simply?—Yes.

100443. He is not in the same town possibly?—As a rule they remain in Berlin, but it is very difficult to find them out, they are in another place.

100444. To turn to another point, do your statistics show that, taking the last twenty-five years, your outdoor relief has been increasing?—Not so much. In my Statement I have given some figures about the efficiency of the Elberfeld system, and you will find where there is a very thorough investigation, as happened after the reform of 1892 in Hamburg, there is a visible decrease in the number of relief cases. You may see from that, that with thorough investigation it is quite without danger to give outdoor relief.

100445. (Prebendary Russell Wakefield.) With regard to the non-tracing of people who go from one part of Berlin to another, I should have thought under your German system, the *dossier* system, it would be quite easy to trace a person who had deserted his wife?—By means of the police?

100446. Yes. You said a man might go from one part of Berlin to another. What I was rather feeling, having lived in Germany for some time, is that it is rather easier to trace people in Germany than in England?—It is easy to trace them, because we have compulsory registration of all inhabitants; it is not so very difficult to find them; but it is very difficult to keep a man up to his duty; because if we have an order for payment and he has work he leaves the place he has occupied and betakes himself to another place; so, though it is not very difficult to find him, it is very difficult to keep hold of him.

100447. (Mrs. Webb.) Do not the police notify to you that he has changed his address?—Yes.

100448. Cannot you follow him up at once?—Yes, we apply to the police; we are in continuous communication with the police that they should give us the address of such people, and that is very well managed.

100449. Is it still difficult for you, with that police information, to follow him up? No, it is not difficult.

100450. (Mr. Loch.) Still, they very often succeed in getting away without being caught?—Yes.

100451. In practice, do you find that immediate steps are taken to find them if they go away and desert? Are they, in fact, always followed up at once?—No.

100452. They are not followed up, and so they get away?—Yes; very often they remain in communication with their wives, and are only deserting on account of poor relief.

100453. Do you find that the money that is being spent on outdoor relief is increasing very largely?—No.

100454. One of the tables in the Berlin Year Book made me think that it was increasing?—It is, but not so very much, it is only a certain percentage, not in proportion to the increase in population.

100455. Not in proportion to the increase in population?—No.

100456. It is 4,600,000 marks in 1907–8, and 6,527,000 in 1905–6 under the same headings; but on the whole you think that that is nothing excessive?—No, not excessive, compared to other towns.

100457. You think it is higher relatively than in other towns, Dresden, for instance?—Certainly. In Hamburg it is much lower relatively. If we had the same figures as in Hamburg we should have to pay 1,500,000 marks less.

100458. That is due to the character of the people who are managing things in Hamburg, perhaps?—Yes; the city is smaller; the number of helpers is much greater; and they are accustomed to a more thorough investigation than in Berlin.

100459. Do you think that the time may come when the interest in this question will pass away, and the helpers become fewer and fewer?—I think it is a danger of which we become aware every day; the danger to-day is not so very great, but I feel it will become greater at a later time, with the increase of the town, when there will be the same custom as in London; that the one class goes to the west and the other remains in the east. I am afraid then that we will have to deal with this danger.

100460. In that case, which is nearer our position in London, you would have to trust more to officials to make the enquiries, would you not?—Yes. Up till now there is no case in which the enquiry is made by a public officer; but I believe there will come the time when we shall be obliged to have some paid officers in order to supplement the enquiries of our honorary people.

100461. There is a difficulty when you get a comparatively poor district in which there are few men of leisure, and you have to trust all this work to people from the poor district. I notice it was said that in some towns in those circumstances they appoint paid chairmen of committees to manage the business?—No, not up till now. Up till now in all the towns I know it is the same system without exception, it is an honorary system. In the very few towns where there are paid officers they have only to assist the honorary people; but the first enquiry, and the decision about the relief itself is in every town in the hands of the district committee merely.

100462. With regard to the one point of the government of a German State. We have here a very low franchise. Do you not, in German towns, have the three-class system?—For electoral wards?

100463. Yes?—We have.

100464. The people who have the larger property get the special option of choosing, I think, one-third of the council?—Yes.

100465. The consequence is that you have in your electoral system a very great check on what you may call popular election?—Yes.

100466. Does it not follow from that, that you have a social position in relation to all this administrative work, which is due largely to the persons who are managing it being persons of property and responsibility? Do you not think this is a very strong factor in carrying this thing through?—It is more in the smaller villages that there is the influence of the proprietors and landlords, it is stronger there than in Berlin. In Berlin there is the liberal air, and it is impossible that the interests of house-owners should be of so great an influence on the administration of the Poor Law; but we have no bad experience in this way.

100467. This would affect smaller towns, would it not, towns not of the size of Berlin, but towns of 200,000 or 300,000 inhabitants?—No, not 200,000 or 300,000, but 50,000 or 60,000, and smaller ones.

100468. With regard to the provision of employment, you make no arrangements at all in connection with the administration of the poor; you trust to what the municipality may do?—Yes. We do not undertake any work on the part of the poor administration, but perhaps we induce the town administration. I am myself a member of the town administration; so, without any formality,

I can point out in our meetings of the town council that it is a very bad time and we need some help. For instance, four weeks ago the question was discussed very passionately in the town council; and it was decided that all the work which could be done immediately, which would have been delayed a little, should be done now, so that there should be a little more employment than in regular times.

100469. Would the supply of that work all over Berlin depend on the town council, or would there be some subordinate authorities on whom it would be thrown?—On the whole of Berlin, because we have not, as you have, thirty-one vestries or parishes.

100470. Has what the town council has been able to do met the difficulty hitherto?—Not very much.

100471. It was enough to carry on with?—Yes. It is not so very much, it is more to console them a little, the same as your law for unemployed workmen; to show the people that we are inclined to do something; but it is not of such very great importance.

100472. With all your experience, are you satisfied with the definitions that are generally used in relation to relief, so that public relief must confine itself to the provision of what is absolutely necessary for the support of life? Only so far as the person's own income is insufficient for the purpose is the deficiency to be made up by relief. Is that what you may call a fairly good practical guide in what you are doing?—I think so; I think it has proved so in practice; but it depends very much on the ability of the district helpers.

100473. That is what you put before them as the line they should take?—Yes.

100474. Just to take another definition: "The pauper shall not be placed in better position through relief than the person who provides for his own support by free labour. On the other hand, relief shall be afforded in such a way that an existence worthy of a human being shall be made possible for the person in need, and that he shall not merely be prevented from starving by the grant of entirely inadequate relief." Taking that as a whole, you think that is a fairly good guide for your workers practically?—It is. It is the test of less eligibility, so that people in no way earn more by relief than by wages. On the other hand, we do not wish that a widow who cannot earn so much should be nearly starving, but that she should have a fairly good existence.

100475. Your argument is that what is done must be done humanely, in consideration of good feeling and humanity?—Yes; we recommend to our helpers that they are, if they can, to deal with widows with children very kind-heartedly; and we have in the last session of my board decided that the relief for widows with children shall be raised.

100476. With regard to voluntary contributions, do you find that the cases you are relieving at the district committees, if I may so call them, are also being assisted from voluntary sources?—Yes, they are very often.

100477. Do you think those voluntary sources are always known to you?—No, we do not know in every case; but now I can say by my efforts our district helpers and the chairmen of the committees are on most friendly relations with the private charitable associations and undertakings. I point out as often as I can that they must co-operate with the private societies.

100478. This plan is rather different from what people in London have been working upon. Here the desire has been rather more like what they are doing in Amsterdam: To create a line of charitable work parallel to the Poor Law work. I understand that in Germany you do what is being done in England unconsciously. You unite in a manner and publicly organise the unification of so much charitable relief work with so much Poor Law relief?—That is not quite so; because we deal, relatively, generously with our poor, say a widow with children, so that there is no need of very much help on the part of private charities; and our aim is that the private charity should supervise such help as is outside necessities, for instance, the apprenticeship of children, and treatment in separate homes, and such things. We have also what you have here, which your name and organisation is a model for; in Germany we have quite the same kind of charity organisation society; but I think with a more restricted practical influence.

Dr. Emil
Muensterberg
11 May 1908.

Provision for
unemployment
in
Berlin.

Test of eligi-
bility applied
to poor relief.

Co-operation
of charitable
relief work.

Dr. Emil Muensterberg 100479. (*Miss Hill.*) In enrolling these helpers how do you set them to work? You find first the people who will be your visitors, then they become members of a small committee; who teaches them?—The whole town is divided into about 400 district committees, every one of which has a chairman and eight, ten or fifteen helpers. Those chairmen and those helpers are appointed by the town councillors, and the town councillors appoint them as they will. The whole town is distributed to the town councillors, and they find out honorary people. They form little communities of citizens in a very small area, who are well acquainted with each other; and if, for instance, a man of more progressive character wishes to be appointed, it is very difficult to bring him into that district committee, because the others resist; and it is the same with the women.

100480. What I was wondering was how they learned, how they got the experience necessary to enable them to deal wisely with the cases?—They acquire experience and knowledge by inspiration.

100481. And by working side by side with those who know more than themselves?—No; I am sorry to say; we are now also in very serious discussion whether we cannot have some helpers with a kind of education. A little help is that I myself convoke all the chairmen of the town three or four times every year and give them a lecture, not a lecture in a formal sense, but I speak with them about the whole matter, and then they have free discussion. That is a little help; but as a rule they learn from each other by experience.

100482. It often seems to me that the great difficulty of what we call the Elberfeld system is the difficulty of setting people who have no experience to decide what it requires a good deal of experience to decide wisely?—That is so.

100483. Your person to whom you give four or five families is excellent if he or she knows what to do; but if they do not, unless they get advice somewhere, it seems to me it is a very difficult system to carry out well?—I do not think it is so very difficult; one must not underestimate what is the experience of life. A little dealer, for instance, has seen so many people come up; he knows the small lodgings; he knows the people who live there; they tell about each other; and in my experience, if they are a little intelligent and kind-hearted such little merchants are not the worst investigators. We have also very good experience with teachers; they have not so great an experience when they begin, but they acquire it; and they learn by the other members of the district committee. It is not so bad as it may seem.

100484. Then I suppose you trust a good deal to the fact that they only have four or five families, and that they concentrate their attention on those four or five?—Yes.

100485. Instead of scattering their sixpences and shillings all round?—Yes.

100486. And they watch those families and get to know them?—That is the true essence of the Elberfeld system.

Comparative merits of tariff against free judgment system. 100487. In your Statement you contrast what you call the tariff system, which I suppose is what we call the scale system, with a rather freer decision. You prefer the freer decision to the tariff system, I gather?—Yes, not theoretically but practically, because we have had experience. If I tell the helper: you must take into account the income of a man or his wife with all that is contributed out of the income of the grown-up children, and so on; and then you must make a bill in which there is on the one side the whole income, and on the other side what they want, and then you will give the difference as the allowance; that is in theory very good, but practically it is very bad, because we have had experience that the helper, perhaps, for the first time, when he has to deal with the case, begins with a just calculation; but if it is a permanent case he does not review it, and so he does not find out whether there is a need to increase the relief, or if there is reason to diminish it, or to abolish it; therefore I repeat, practically we have had experience, but theoretically I think the tariff system is the only just one.

100488. In those cases in which a man deserts his wife and children, and you take the children under your care, do you take them permanently, or can the man claim them back?—It depends on each case.

100489. He can claim them?—Yes.

100490. Can he take them back again?—Yes. If we see that it is a bad woman, or that the children will be demoralised, or neglected, or ill-treated, we get the decision of the judge, so that we have a judicial order, to have the power to keep them as long as we may.

100491. (*Prebendary Russell Wakefield.*) Up to what age?—The law for compulsory education gives the power until the twenty-first year. We have tutors until the twenty-first year; but the age up to which we can have a judicial order is only the eighteenth year; but once we have them we can retain them until the twenty-first year.

100492. (*Miss Hill.*) Are all your helpers men?—I am sorry to say the greater part are. I have with 4,000 male helpers only thirty females. Advances of employing women; invest torn.

100493. You can have women if you want them; you have the power of enlisting them?—It is quite the same: the helpers, whether male or female, are appointed by the councillors. I like female helpers, and if I could I should have not forty but 400, and perhaps 2,000, so absolutely satisfied are we after our experience with the female helpers; but our district committees resist immensely. They declare: "If you compel us to take women into our committees then we shall resign."

100494. I think it is very likely that the men would come less if the women were brought in?—Yes.

100495. I think it might discourage the men, which would be a pity; but I agree with you it would be well to have some women?—Certainly.

100496. (*Mr. Chandler.*) I think your Poor Law administration is conducted entirely through voluntary committees?—Yes. Admini- ration of er- man P Law.

100497. The only connection your council has with it is the appointment of the chairman?—No, the helpers are appointed by the town council. May I make this observation, it is perhaps a mistake, but we have two bodies of administration in every town. One body is the government, which goes under the name of magistrat, which consists of aldermen; and the other body is the council, which consists of 134 members elected by popular election. Those town councillors have to appoint the helpers, and if the helpers are designed for a certain district committee, then the helpers may themselves appoint their chairman, and the chairman must have the consent of the board, or my consent, the consent of the President of the Board.

100498. Are you president of the entire operations of Berlin?—Yes.

100499. Including a number of committees?—Yes, that is because in this part of our administration, which is the magistrat, and which consists of the aldermen, the aldermen have the presidency of one or other of the departments; one the sewerage; one the building; one the engineering work; and I am, for instance, in my capacity of alderman, President of the Department of Public Charities.

100500. Is that a paid office?—Yes; we are half paid and half unpaid. I was a long time unpaid; but because I could not manage for all the time to devote my whole time without pay, I have been elected a paid alderman.

100501. You hold a court three days a week and hear complaints?—No; our board meets once every month. But I personally give audience three times a week to my poor people.

100502. Do I understand you to say you gave three days a week?—Yes; but that is because I wish to do so. I am not obliged to do it. It is my own free will, in order to give a little confidence to my district committees, that they know there is someone who watches over them.

100503. Is that purely to be consulted by district committees?—No, not only that, anyone who will come; also people who wish to avoid public relief, and who wish to have counsel about it. It is a personal confidence in

the leader of the Poor Law administration, and because it is not so sharply separated; I am a member of so many private undertakings that they do not distinguish whether I act in my quality as president of the Poor Board or as representative of any charitable organisation.

100504. If a poor person felt that she or he were not being justly dealt with could they apply to you? Everyone.

100505. With regard to procuring means, is this power of calling in supplementary taxes vested in the town council?—Yes.

100506. Could they widen the basis of taxation and tax amusements?—Yes. We have only to apply to the town council for our means; but the town council has to say what percentage of the tax must be raised every year.

100507. That is quite outside the State taxes?—Yes, quite separate from State taxes, but on the basis of State taxes. The principal tax is on the basis of the State tax—*income-tax*.

100508. (*Dr. Downes*.) I am not quite clear as to the relation between the municipalities and the State Government. Has the State Government any control over the municipalities?—We are under the control for all municipal action. Our actions are under the control of the Government; and the Government can, if it will, send a member of the Government into the town and revise our papers, and such things; but as a fact no Government in Germany, so far as I know, does care about it. In fact we are quite free.

100509. Do the Government contribute in any way?—In some way, but not immediately. It is by way of the province. The provinces are similar to the Metropolitan Asylums Board, and have to provide institutions for the deaf and dumb; for the blind, for epileptics; and lunatics. The provinces, as we call them, are subsidised by the State by lump sums, not on account of the single cases; but the municipalities are without any help from the State.

100510. Is the State, when it contributes to the special institutions of the provinces represented on the management?—No; it is so very seldom that one can say it is not. It does not contribute to the single institutions; it gives the provinces a lump sum as a donation; it is a lump sum contribution.

100511. Does the Government seek to promote uniformity of regulations on principle?—No; it would be possible; but as a rule the regulation of those matters is quite left to the single municipalities.

100512. Are there any agencies which seek to promote uniformity of principle? Do you meet voluntarily with your colleagues of other municipalities to discuss the principle of relief?—Yes; we have a very strong and a very influential meeting, a little more than your Poor Law conferences, because our charitable organisations and agencies and private persons take part in it. It is the German Society for Charities and Poor Relief. I am the general secretary and vice-president of it. It has existed since 1880, and we have published more than 100 volumes. The society has had such a great influence on societies, municipalities, and governments, that one can practically say that no reform which has been realised in the last twenty years has been done without the help of the society. It is not official, it is private, but, in fact, in reality it has had an immense influence.

100513. With regard to medical relief, are there any statistics of the cost of medical relief in Berlin?—Yes; we have some in the reports of our hospitals, and also in the reports of the Poor Law Board; but they are a little unreliable. It is not very much.

100514. Is it an increasing cost for medical relief?—No, it is not; because, as the Chairman pointed out, we have now the increasing insurance, therefore a great many people are taken out of poor relief because they are on the insurance.

100515. I was going to ask you if you had anything to add as to the influence of insurance on public relief? You have told us it appears to have reduced the cost of medical relief?—Yes.

100516. Has it tended to promote thrift?—It has promoted thrift. I think we had the experience that the introduction of our insurance laws has given the population an insight into the value of thrift and saving and private insurance, which was never to be heard of before. We are very satisfied with its results.

100517. Has it promoted the establishment of mutual benefit societies?—Yes; one cannot say mutual benefit societies, it is on the lines of your trade unions. We have a great many so-called *Gewerkschaften*; just the same as trade unions; they help each other.

100518. With regard to the physicians for the poor, Machinery on whose order would the medical officer relieve a poor person?—On the order of the chairman of the committee. A poor person applies to the chairman, and he gives him a certificate which is in a very usual form, in which he puts the name; and then he goes to the medical officer, who has to give what he needs; either medical treatment, or hospital treatment or medicine, or whatever he thinks fit.

100519. What if it were a case of emergency, so that there was not time to go to the chairman?—That is very seldom. If it is a case of emergency, and he does not know the medical poor doctor, then he may apply to anyone; and we pay the strange doctor for what he has done.

100520. Would you pay to the strange doctor in any case?—Yes.

100521. Even if the person were able to pay?—In that case, no; only when it is a poor man; but the difference is that we have a rule that every man shall apply to our doctor; but in case of emergency we allow him to go to another doctor. If he has gone to another doctor, and he presents his bill, we pay it.

100522. Do you prepare lists of persons entitled to free medical treatment?—No. That is the French law. It is a riddle to me how they can prepare lists for free medical treatment. They must be corrected every day. I think it is quite impossible to know beforehand whether anyone will be in need of medical treatment.

100523. In the case of admission to hospitals, whose recommendation sends the patient to the hospital?—The medical officer's; but that is what is really a hospital, not, for instance, an old-age institution; it is a hospital in the sense of a sick hospital, an infirmary or a lunatic asylum.

100524. Have you any Poor Law hospitals for the sick?—No, we have no Poor Law hospitals. We have municipal hospitals. We have now five very large hospitals, I think, with about 4,500 beds, and they serve at the same time as poor hospitals; so that the medical officer has the right to send all his patients to those hospitals.

100525. And those hospitals, I take it, serve for all classes of people?—Yes; in our municipal hospitals we have only one class.

100526. In the ordinary voluntary hospitals at Berlin do they take paying patients?—Yes; and they are taken also in our municipal hospitals; if, for instance, anyone applies without the order of the medical officer and says he will pay, then he is taken into the hospital at his own cost.

100527. If he is a person who is able to pay, but does not pay, can they enforce payment?—Yes.

100528. How do they enforce payment?—We inquire into his condition; and then if he will not pay voluntarily we must enforce a judicial order, and issue process against him.

100529. As a process of debt?—Yes.

100530. Would he have to go to prison if he did not pay?—No.

100531. What would happen?—If he does not pay then he does not pay; it is like other civil debts.

100532. (*Mrs. Webb*.) Cannot you levy on his goods?—Yes, but with certain restrictions; we have to leave what is necessary for life; beds, and the most necessary pieces of household furniture are not subject to seizure. I may add that, as a rule, if there is any question of medical treatment in hospitals we are very lenient; if it is not very bad will, and a man in a very good position,

Dr. Emil Muensterberg
11 May 1908.
Effect of insurance on medical relief

Procedure as to repayment of medical relief.

Dr. Emil Muensterberg we pass it over, because we think it is a disaster to become ill; and he cannot be punished for having been ill.

11 May 1908. 100533. (*Dr. Downes*.) Taking a bad case of abuse, could you deprive a man of his vote, or do something of that sort?—Yes; every case of relief, including also cases of medical treatment, excludes him from his vote by itself, whether deserving or not deserving, we have no choice. It cannot be considered as a punishment from our side, but it is the law that we are to give notice to the electoral bureau, so that they cross out the name for a certain time.

Medical relief disqualification.

100534. Are you in favour of maintaining that law?—No, all in our city I mentioned before, and the greater part of the Parliament, are agreed in desiring the abolition of that influence of medical relief on the electoral vote. That is a survival of the Middle Ages, in our opinion.

Inadequacy of medical relief to class above paupers.

100535. You tell us that the poor relief administration has agreements with a large number of specialists, who are available for the service of the poor?—Yes.

100536. Would a man who is not a person receiving poor relief, a man of the free labourer class or a clerk, who has maintained himself independently of the Poor Law, have equal recourse to those specialists?—No.

100537. Has not the person who obtains poor relief rather an advantage over the man who is not receiving Poor Law relief as to that special class of medical treatment?—Every man who applies to our doctors or to the specialists must be a poor man. He must have the certificate of the chairman of his district committee, otherwise the specialist would not begin to treat him.

100538. Supposing I am a poor clerk, not so poor as to come upon poor relief or charity, but I cannot afford to pay a sufficient sum for the special advice I want, what would be my position?—I should pity you, but I could not help you. If it is impossible you must go to the chairman, and in difficult cases they do give it. For instance (and we have it not seldom), if they need an artificial leg or a foot for their children, if they are mutilated, a man of a little higher degree may come to us in order to ask for his child such things as are so very costly.

Administration of poor relief.

100539. (*Mrs. Webb*.) I understand that your committee does not manage any of the institutions to which you send people except the shelter?—Yes. It is so arranged that, besides the Poor Law Board in the proper sense, there exist several other boards, who have to deal with the several institutions. We have a board for the lunatic asylums; one for the municipal hospitals; one for the infirmaries; one for the orphanages; one for the shelters and house of correction; and the Poor Law administration has the right of disposition for all those institutions without any consent of the Board in the single cases; so that I can order that this man is to be brought into a lunatic asylum, and I do not need the consent of the President of the Board of Lunatic Asylums; but the general management administration, the technical management, is in the hands of the Board.

100540. Do you approve of the arrangement by which the institutions are managed by specialised committees?—Yes; we have had very good experience of that. Suppose that the poor board disposes of the single places, so that it has no difficulty in dealing with the single cases, then we think it is a very good arrangement, because the single boards gain a certain experience in managing the single institutions.

100541. You would be against one and the same committee managing the institutions for destitute lunatics, destitute children and destitute sick people?—Yes it depends, for instance, in a smaller community of 50,000, 60,000, or 100,000 people you may have only one committee which manages all those institutions; but in Berlin they are very big institutions. We have now to erect the fifth asylum for lunatics; we have to provide for very nearly 60,000 lunatics every year. These practical reasons recommend that the management should be confined to a single committee.

100542. One of the advantages of the large area is exactly that specialisation of management under specialised committees, is it not?—Yes.

100543. Then practically your Board manages outdoor relief, and the distribution of the persons to the institutions of the other committees?—It is not exactly so,

but nearly so; the institutions of the municipality are at our disposition without pay. We do not re-imburse them.

Receiving-house for destitute persons including other treatment.

100544. Supposing you have a destitute family which is quite homeless, is there any place to which you can send that family before you decide which institutions are suited for them?—That would be, I think, the receiving-house.

100545. Have you a receiving-house?—Theoretically no, practically yes. We have one house which is connected with our public night shelter, but in separate rooms. We have what we call a family refuge; and in this family refuge the people are received to whom at the moment we cannot give any other treatment.

100546. How long do you keep them there?—A very short time.

100547. Would you say under a week?—If we can, no more than a week. We try to deal with them very quickly. I must add that only once in the whole course of my administration we had in this family refuge more than 1,400 people at the same time. It was in a very unfavourable time, the number of small lodgings was very little, and the population had increased very much. We were surprised ourselves; we were really in a state of need and great embarrassment; but we had to take into our institution nearly 1,400 heads.

100548. How long did that last?—I do not know quite, that was an exceptional case. As a rule we have no more than perhaps seventy or eighty heads. That is nothing for the whole of Berlin.

100549. (*Mr. Bentham*.) Whilst your authority hears all applications for relief of all kinds, practically it distributes the cases to the various institutions which may be managed by other authorities?—Yes, where there is needed institutional care. As a rule we give money to the poor; but sometimes, with people who are not good housekeepers, it is also in kind, but not much.

Advice of all applications or relief through one channel.

100550. Do you think this possible at all: to have several agencies or committees for dealing with the respective applicants; say a separate authority to hear all applicants for children, a separate authority for the sick; and a separate authority for the able-bodied?—No, I cannot speak outside our experience; we think it is best to have confined in one committee the starting point, so that the poor in every case apply to the chairman of the committee, and he and his helpers have to inquire into the case; they must know whether to send them to institutions, or to deal by kind, by money, by medical treatment, and so on. They might then apply to other committees, who manage children's orphanages, and such things, but I think that it is a very great advantage that we have in one committee the first glance at the conditions of the poor.

100551. Really it means this: that all applications for public relief must come through one door?—Yes, that is quite a just expression.

100552. Then the distribution takes place afterwards according to the needs of the particular people?—Yes.

100553. There are one or two points of detail I would like to ask you about. There is one with regard to the payment. In the old cases which go on for a whole year, you say, that payment is made once a month?—Yes.

Advantage of Hamburg over Berlin system.

100554. But not always by the agency of the one helper?—Yes.

100555. What does that mean? Does it mean that some other person will pay?—Perhaps I can make myself better understood if I point out the Hamburg conditions. That is our ideal, our highest wish. There is a helper who has to deal with the single family; and he is entrusted with the care of the family in all relations. So you must imagine this helper is the friend, the trustee of the family; and the widow, for instance, comes to him and tells him: My child has fallen ill; or some such thing. He is also the payer; he has to pay in Hamburg every week; and when he pays out he becomes aware of the state of things. He speaks with the poor person, and so on. Therefore we hope very much from a helper who is the permanent helper of the same family. I am very sorry to say that I was not able to keep wholly on that system in Berlin as I did in Hamburg. In Hamburg that is so; and therefore, there is very good connection between the helper and the family.

100556. (*Prebendary Russell Wakefield.*) Is the difficulty in Berlin because the people are getting separated up into east and west?—We do not have such a great distinction between the different parts of the town as you have here. We have still in the so-called poor quarters decent people. It is not so bad as here; I have spent three hours in Whitechapel and three hours at Stepney; and we cannot compare our conditions with yours in that regard.

100557. (*Mr. Bentham.*) Is the payment always made by the helper who has dealt with the case?—Yes. I want to point out that we wish it to be made by the same helper; but we do not succeed in every case in having the same helper. We have not enough helpers to deal with the same poor continuously; but that is the case in Hamburg; therefore I prefer the system of Hamburg in this regard.

100558. You say there are only about 4,000 helpers in Berlin?—Yes.

100559. Does that mean that the helpers have more cases than they ought to have?—Yes.

100560. Or that some districts are absolutely without helpers?—They have more cases than they ought to have, according to the other system. Of course, a paid relieving officer may have 100 cases, or more, but an honorary helper, who has to exercise his profession besides, whose services to the town are merely honorary and extra work, must not have more than he can do without inconvenience.

100561. Do you have any districts without any helpers at all?—No, we have not; I am fortunate enough for that. I am afraid we shall come one day to that point that we have some districts without helpers.

100562. Would you consider it impossible for all the cases of outdoor relief in Berlin to be dealt with by private charity, and not by the rates at all?—No, I should never think that. That is an ideal.

100563. You do not think it is an ideal even to be aimed at?—No, it is an ideal which I would never be inclined to share. It is only the fault of the administration if the administration cannot manage outdoor relief.

100564. As you have no workhouse test, you rely entirely on a careful investigation of the circumstances of each case?—Yes.

100565. And thereby understand exactly whether that case is in need of relief or not?—Yes.

100566. What is there in the way of deterrent that is to prevent people from applying who might, with a little exertion, be able to provide for their own needs unless you have a workhouse test?—You refuse relief. If the committee is of opinion that he is an able man, and he might take care of himself and his family, we refuse him relief. We apply the workhouse test only in those cases in which we find there is a man with a family and wife, or a woman who needs relief, but on account of unworthiness, we will not give that relief in money or in kind. Then we offer him or her the House; but in the case of able-bodied people we do not offer the House, we simply tell them we refuse relief: We have inquired into your case, and we are of opinion that you are able to help yourself.

100567. You offer the House?—No, in all cases we do not offer the House.

100568. You offer the House in the one case because you consider it is the best form of relief for that particular party?—Yes, in that case, if we are inclined to give relief, but are doubtful whether money relief will be helpful.

100569. Then the fact that a person has no right to relief in the whole of Germany makes it possible for you to actually refuse a case?—Yes.

100570. That is the deterrent really, is it not, against people applying who really ought not to have relief?—Then they must apply to the administrative powers. Of course you have the same experience that we all have, you have good administrations and you have bad ones, and that is an arbitrary thing. We have small villages in which the poor relief is so bad that the people are really starving, and we cannot help them.

100571. You believe very strongly in the necessity for the case-papers to be well written up?—Yes.

Dr. Emil Muensterberg

100572. How do you do with regard to the change of address when a person removes from one locality to another. Is the case-paper transferred to the other helper?—Yes; in temporary relief it does not matter because he may apply every time; if he has applied in the month of April, and he also needs relief for the month of May, in every particular case he must apply to the chairman in whose district he has his residence; but if it is a case of permanent relief, we have a book in which there is printed "Address of the Chairmen"; and then the chairman who has the book in his hand writes down the name of the chairman to whose district the poor person will remove. If the poor person forgets to announce his removal or is neglectful, it is his own damage, so that we have no difficulty in this regard.

11 May 1908.

Extensive use of case-paper system.

100573. Even in temporary cases have you no difficulty?—No, because we have our papers registered very carefully, with the names, and the date of birth, the place of birth; and in the case of women, whether married or not married, the family name, and so on; so it is very easy to find out whether we have papers or not.

100574. A person may apply in one district as a first application, and would not be known there and relief might be given, whereas relief has been given in another district, and there is a case-paper?—Our chairmen are obliged to communicate with the general office. We have a certain form which they have to send by post immediately to the general office stating whether there has been relief given or not; then they receive from our general office a notice or the papers themselves, which we preserve in our office.

100575. That means that in every case practically the particulars are sent up to the central office, so that it is all centralised?—Yes, in every case we have a complete supervision.

100576. What is the object of the personal book in addition to the case-paper?—What we call the personal book is only used in permanent cases. The regular way is that: The district committees report monthly on a permanent case, and state: We have granted to this person permanent relief for half a year, or one year; this report comes into the office and there an extract of it is written into a book. This book is given back to the chairman of the district committee; so that he has in this book the most important dates of the family; and he is obliged to continue this book, and to notice when there is further permanent relief, or when there is particular relief; or when there are changes in the family; when a child has died or a new child is born; so that that personal book shall give at any moment a true picture of the state of the whole family.

100577. So that really the case-paper has all that information on it too, has it not?—The case-paper is in the general office, and the personal book is sent as duplicate. It is not quite in the same form, it is in another form; but in essence it is a duplicate. So that the chairman has in every case the picture of the family, and the most important details before his eyes.

100578. That applies really to permanent cases?—Yes, exclusively.

100579. According to these particulars there are 33,813 persons who are put down as being in receipt of permanent relief?—Yes.

100580. With regard to the loss of vote, who in Berlin decides when a person shall be struck off the register?—The district itself; it gives and it takes.

Authority for disfranchisement in Berlin.

100581. That is the head of the district committee?—Yes; that is the new step in the Elberfeld system that the decision is taken away from the Board—that not the board has to decide upon the written report, but that the chairman and his helpers, who have seen the people before their eyes, who have been in the homes, decide upon the single cases; and they have to decide whether to relieve or not; whether to cease it or not; and the whole practical administration of the case is in the hands of the district committee. But it is watched by the general board, because we have sometimes the case that a man is dead, and his relief is being paid six months later. That is very neglectful of the committee: but such cases happen in a large city.

Dr. Emil Muensterberg 100582. The councillor is the head of the district, and he is an elected person?—No, the councillor is not the head. The district committee consists of appointed helpers, the helpers appoint their chairman; and the councillor has nothing else to do but to look after the district committees, and to help to appoint people. He must find out the helpers; but once the committee appointed the councillor has to retire.

Combination of small municipal-ities. 100583. Do these municipalities ever combine for the purpose of dealing with any particular kind of case?—Yes, several of the smaller municipalities; but it is different in the various parts of Germany. We have some parts in which they are very reasonable, and unite, for instance, for erecting poor-house institutions, and such things. As I have said at the beginning of my Statement, I think that is one of the most necessary things: to compel the smaller villages to unite. It is a great mistake in our country that we have no compulsory measures to unite them.

Relief to various classes of children. 100584. With regard to the receiving home for children, I understand that there are certain children who can be boarded-out, and there are other children who belong to parents who may take their discharge, kept in the receiving home till the parents take their discharge?—Yes.

100585. Are all children kept in that receiving home except those that you have mentioned who can be boarded-out?—Yes.

100586. That is orphan children?—Yes. This which I call an orphanage is, perhaps, better described as a children's receiving house. Relief to various classes of children

100587. That is what I understood it to be?—Also, as you expressed it, going through one door, they are in the room, and now we open the door and send them to family care, to a special institution or to an orphanage; but first they are all assembled in the receiving house their case to be considered.

100588. Do you have any means of dealing with children who are rightly termed ins-and-outs, except in that orphanage?—We have a great many: for instance, crippled children, defective children, sick children, and neglected children. We have all kinds.

100589. I mean healthy children?—Yes; we can send them also to institutions; but we do not prefer that. For healthy children as a rule, if they are not bad in character, and untruthful, we prefer so absolutely the scheme of home care, family care, that there is really no exception; we send them all to families.

100590. I was meaning healthy children of parents who may be in an institution, but may take their discharge at any time. Are they all maintained in that receiving home until they take their discharge?—Yes; I think that is quite the same; I believe there is no difference.

APPENDIX TO NINTH VOLUME OF MINUTES OF EVIDENCE.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

APPENDIX No. I.

Papers Handed in by Mr. Charles Cleveland Ellis:—

	PAGE
A.—Statement showing in respect of certain Distress Committees in Scotland the total cost of the Work executed by Unemployed Workmen, the Value of the Work done, and whether the Standard Rate or less than the Standard Rate of Wages was paid - - - - -	511
B.—Statement showing the different views of Distress Committees as to the Suitability of Applicants for Assistance under the Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905, and the Regulations thereunder - - - - -	514

APPENDIX No. II.

Papers Handed in by Mr. James Ferguson, Glasgow:—

A.—Particulars as to the numbers, ages and classes of men applying to the Glasgow Distress Committee -	517
B.—Report by the Salvation Army as to the after condition of persons emigrated by the Glasgow Distress Committee - - - - -	521
C.—Return showing the average rate of wages of men chargeable in Hospital whose wives were in receipt of Outdoor Relief with their respective occupations - - - - -	522
D.—Condition of the men when admitted to Hospital, mentioned in "C" above - - - - -	522

APPENDIX No. III.

Papers Handed in by Messrs. Watson and Crowther, Bradford:—

A.—Classification of Trades and Occupations of all Applicants on Register, November 1st, 1905, to September 12th, 1906 - - - - -	523
B.—Table showing the Average Earnings of the Wives and Children of Men who put their Names on the Unemployed Register at Bradford from November 1st, 1905, to August 31st, 1907 - - - - -	524
C.—Statement showing how many Men who Registered accepted Work offered by the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway Company - - - - -	524
D.—Chart - - - - -	<i>Facing</i> 524
E.—Table showing the Number of Men who Registered and were not eligible for Employment during the Periods November 1st, 1905, to November 30th, 1906, and December 1st, 1906, to September 21st, 1907 - - - - -	525
F.—Return showing the Number of Men employed by the Bradford Works Department from January 1st, 1904, to December 31st, 1906 - - - - -	525
G.—Report as to the Condition of the Men emigrated to Canada by the Bradford Distress Committee - - - - -	526

APPENDIX No. IV.

Papers Handed in by Messrs. R. V. Broodbank and A. Evans Thorp:—

A.—Copy of "The Modern Rent Card," showing at a glance exactly what the Tenant pays in Rents and what in Rates - - - - -	527
B.—Letters showing the extent to which Rates influence Rents - - - - -	528

TABLE OF CONTENTS—*continued.***APPENDIX No. V.****Papers Handed in by Mr. C. G. Dye, on behalf of the Firewood Trade Association:—**

A.—List of Woodchoppers known to have become Inmates of Workhouses, etc. - - - - -	PAGE 528
B.—Report of Meeting between Representatives of the Firewood Trade Association and the Church Army -	529
C.—Memorial to the Social Department of the Church Army from the Firewood Cutters Protection Society -	529

APPENDIX No. VI.**Papers handed in by Mrs. Dunn Gardner, Chelsea:—**

A.—Chelsea Distress Committee: Information obtained from the Record Papers of 50 Recommended Applicants as to Length of Employment prior to Registration - - - - -	530
B.—Particulars as to the Cases of 50 Men who, during 1905-6, were recommended by Distress Committees in different parts of London for Employment by the Central Unemployed Body - - - - -	534
C.—Particulars as to the Cases of 50 Women who, during 1905-6, were recommended by Distress Committees in different parts of London for Employment by the Central Unemployed Body - - - - -	538
D.—Figures showing Proportion of Assisted and Non-Assisted Cases by various Distress Committees for the Year 1905-6, who again applied for Assistance in 1906-7 - - - - -	542

APPENDIX No. VII.**Paper handed in by the Rev. J. H. Anderson:—**

Form of Agreement between the Borough Councils and the Central (Unemployed) Body for London - -	543
---	-----

APPENDIX No. VIII.**Papers handed in by Mr. Arthur Newsholme, M.D., F.R.C.P., Medical Officer of Health for Brighton:—**

A.—Form used for the notification of phthisis - - - - -	545
B.—Arrangements for medical aid - - - - -	549

APPENDIX No. IX.**Paper handed in by Mr. Sidney Webb, L.C.C.:—**

Statement prepared by the London County Council (at the request of Mr. Sidney Webb), as to the different Branches of the Council's Work in the Sphere of Industrial and Reformatory Schools - - -	550
---	-----

APPENDIX No. X.**Papers handed in by Professor Sadler, Manchester:—**

Table showing the Conditions of Attendance at Continuation Schools in different parts of the German Empire	560
--	-----

APPENDIX No. XI.**Papers handed in by Messrs. W. F. Hamilton, K.C., and Walter Lloyd Jones, Church Army:—**

A.—Statements showing number of Homeless and Destitute Men dealt with in Church Army Labour Homes from January 1st, 1903, to September 30th, 1907, their previous record and their record with the Society -	561
B.—Statement showing the Occupations of the Inmates of Labour Homes - - - - -	563
C.—Copy of Agreement signed by the Men on entering the Labour Homes - - - - -	564
D.—Regulations of the Labour Homes - - - - -	564
E.—Occupations of men emigrated during Season 1907 - - - - -	565
F.—Particulars and statements of accounts of the Hempstead Farm Colony - - - - -	565
G.—Suggestions as to Land Colonies - - - - -	568
H.—Summary of Workhouse and Casual Ward, Ex-soldier, and Prison Cases for 1907 dealt with by Church Army - - - - -	569
I.—Balance Sheet of the Church Army for the year ended September 30th, 1907 - - - - -	571
J.—Statement of Receipts and Payments of Church Army Labour Homes for the year ended September 30th, 1907	574

TABLE OF CONTENTS—*continued.***APPENDIX No. XII.****Paper handed in by Messrs. J. Clarke and F. Barnes, Laindon:—**

Dietary Table in use at the Laindon Farm Colony	PAGE
- - - - -	575

APPENDIX No. XIII.**Papers handed in by Mr. J. Buteux Skeggs, Poplar:—**

A.—Statement showing losses on collection of rates in the Metropolitan Boroughs	576
B.—Memorandum on the Poor Rate Assessment and Collection Act, 1869	577
C.—Statement showing variations in the rents and rates in certain streets in the Metropolitan Borough of Poplar for the years 1885, 1890, 1895, 1900 and 1905	578

APPENDIX No. XIV.**Paper handed in by Mr. Henry Hamilton Watts:—**

Conditions of Employment signed by the Permanent Labourers of the London and India Docks Company	57
--	----

APPENDIX No. XV.**Paper handed in by Mr. R. A. Bray:—**

Statement showing the number of Children in London in Residential and Day Industrial Schools from 1900 to 1907	579
--	-----

APPENDIX No. XVI.**Papers handed in by Mr. R. H. Tawney, Glasgow:—**

A.—Scale of Payments per Month to Persons in Receipt of Public Relief in Strassburg	579
B.—Numbers of Persons and their Dependants in Receipt of and the Amount of their Relief in Strassburg	580

APPENDIX No. XVII.**Paper handed in by Mr. E. J. Urwick:—**

Country Work Scheme for Boys leaving School at Fourteen	580
---	-----

APPENDIX No. XVIII.**Papers handed in by Mr. Archibald Campbell, Edinburgh:—**

A.—City of Edinburgh Distress Committee. The Ages of Applicants for Employment-relief, who have registered or re-registered during the period from the Date of Opening the Register, January 2nd, 1906, to May 15th, 1907	582
B.—Situations found for Workpeople on the Register of the Municipal Labour Exchange from Date of Opening, April 23rd, 1907, to March 9th, 1908	582
C.—Conditions of Labour at Murieston Estate	583
D.—Applicants for Work at their own Trade, on the Register of Municipal Labour Exchange at February 29th, 1908, and who have also registered for Employment-relief	584

APPENDIX No. XIX.**Paper handed in by Mrs. Ogilvie Gordon:—**

Draft of "Education Committee" Management of an Educational Information and Employment Bureau	585
---	-----

APPENDIX No. XX.**Papers handed in by the Rev. P. S. G. Probert, M.A., Fulham:—**

A.—Statement <i>re</i> the Poor Law in England and Wales submitted by the Special Poor Law Committee of the British Constitution Association	586
B.—Statement as to the Amount of Relief recovered in Fulham	586

TABLE OF CONTENTS—*continued.*

APPENDIX No. XXI.

Papers handed in by the Board of Trade:—

	PAGE
A.—Memorandum on the Method of Compilation of Board of Trade's Percentages of Unemployed and the extent to which they may be taken as a measure of unemployment - - - - -	587
B.—Memorandum on Cyclical Trade Depressions - - - - -	595
C.—Memorandum on the Growth of Trade Unions with particular reference to the payment of Unemployed Benefit - - - - -	612
D. (i.)—Statistics of Seasonal Industries and Industries carried on by Casual Labour - - - - -	633
(ii.)—Statistics of Numbers employed by Railway Companies, Gas, Water and Tramway Companies and undertakings - - - - -	638
E.—Estimate of Numbers of Wage-earners grouped according to wages earned (distinguishing between male and female, juvenile and adult) and an account of the movements in the wages in certain groups of industries and in the cost of living over a period of twenty years - - - - -	656
F.—Statistics, &c., as to Emigration from the United Kingdom, 1887–1906 - - - - -	686
G.—Statistics, &c., as to Alien Immigration - - - - -	691
H.—Memorandum on the extent to which female and juvenile labour has displaced adult labour in the last twenty years - - - - -	697
I.—Statistics of Labour Bureaux for 20 years or so long as available, distinguishing between those managed by Distress Committees under the Unemployed Workmen Act and those not so managed - - - - -	714
J.—Memorandum as to Country-born Men in large Towns - - - - -	724
K.—Memorandum as to Insurance against Unemployment in Foreign Countries - - - - -	735
L.—Memorandum as to Labour Colonies on the Continent - - - - -	768

APPENDIX No. XXII.

Papers Handed in by Mr. J. F. L. Blankenberg, Amsterdam.

A.—A Dutch Charity Organisation Society - - - - -	800
B.—Statement showing number of persons relieved by Public, Private, and Church Charities in Holland - - - - -	802
C.—Statement as to Medical Clubs in Holland - - - - -	802
D.—Statement as to the numbers receiving Indoor Relief in Holland - - - - -	803

APPENDIX No. XXIII.

Replies by Mr. J. T. BAKER, ISLINGTON - - - - -	804
---	-----

APPENDIX No. XXIV.

Replies by Miss CONSTANCE R. BARTLETT, CHELMSFORD - - - - -	805
---	-----

APPENDIX No. XXV.

Statement of Evidence by Mr. G. W. CLARKE, STEPNEY - - - - -	806
--	-----

APPENDIX No. XXVI.

Replies by Mr. WALTER POTTER, BRIGHTON - - - - -	807
--	-----

APPENDIX No. XXVII.

Replies by Mr. S. C. POTTS, HUDDERSFIELD - - - - -	808
--	-----

APPENDIX No. XXVIII.

Replies by Mr. EDMUND SHERIFF, ST. MARYLEBONE - - - - -	809
---	-----

APPENDIX No. XXIX.

Replies by Mr. C. WILLIAM TAGG, CAMBERWELL - - - - -	810
--	-----

APPENDIX No. XXX.

Replies by Mr. W. WADE, LEEDS - - - - -	811
---	-----

TABLE OF CONTENTS—*continued*.**APPENDIX No. XXXI.**

	PAGE
Statement of Evidence by MR. W. A. WILLIAMS, HACKNEY - - - - -	812

APPENDIX No. XXXII.

Statement of Evidence by MR. H. E. BALDEN, BIRMINGHAM - - - - -	813
---	-----

APPENDIX No. XXXIII.

Replies by MR. F. B. CROUCH - - - - -	813
A.—Copy of an Article appearing in "The Times," of April 2nd, 1902, on The Housing Question and Local Rates - - - - -	814
B.—Additional Memorandum regarding Assessments upon low-rented Dwellings and the direct payment of Rates by Occupiers - - - - -	817
C.—Copy of Letter dated 14th November, 1907, from the Peabody Donation Fund to their tenants as to increase in the rates - - - - -	820
D.—Notes of an Interview (and Report thereon) with the Town Clerk of Finsbury as to the Assessment of the Peabody Donation Fund Dwellings - - - - -	820

APPENDIX No. XXXIV.

Replies by MAJOR DANCE (late R.E.) - - - - -	821
--	-----

APPENDIX No. XXXV.

Replies by MR. F. HAYWARD FIELD - - - - -	822
---	-----

APPENDIX No. XXXVI.

Replies by MR. H. L. FIFE - - - - -	822
-------------------------------------	-----

APPENDIX No. XXXVII.

Statement of Evidence by MR. ARTHUR MOORE - - - - -	823
---	-----

APPENDIX No. XXXVIII.

Replies by MR. E. J. MOSTYN, ARUNDEL - - - - -	823
--	-----

APPENDIX No. XXXIX.

Replies by MR. ROWLAND E. PROTHERO - - - - -	824
--	-----

APPENDIX No. XL.

Replies by MESSRS. RAWLENCE AND SQUAREY, SALISBURY - - - - -	825
--	-----

APPENDIX No. XLI.

Replies by MR. THOMAS WILKINSON - - - - -	825
---	-----

APPENDIX No. XLII.

Replies MR J. M. WOOD - - - - -	826
---------------------------------	-----

APPENDIX No. XLIII.

Statement of Evidence by MR. WILLIAM BUTLER, M.B., D.P.H., WILLESDEN - - - - -	827
--	-----

APPENDIX No. XLIV.

Statement of Evidence by MR. SIDNEY DAVIES, M.A., M.D., etc., WOOLWICH - - - - -	829
--	-----

TABLE OF CONTENTS—*continued.***APPENDIX No. XLV.**

Statement of Evidence by MR. G. F. McCLEARY, B.A., M.D., D.P.H., HAMPSTEAD - - - -	PAGE 834
--	-------------

APPENDIX No. XLVI.

Statement of Evidence by MR. H. COOPER PATTIN, M.D., NORWICH - - - -	841
--	-----

APPENDIX No. XLVII.

Statement of Evidence by MR. H. MEREDITH RICHARDS, M.D., CROYDON - - - -	844
--	-----

APPENDIX No. XLVIII.

Replies by MR. PEYTON T. B. BEALE, F.R.C.S. - - - -	848
A.—Regulations and forms for Paying Patients in the Great Northern Central Hospital - - - -	851

APPENDIX No. XLIX.

Replies by SIR HENRY BURDETT, K.C.B. - - - -	854
--	-----

APPENDIX No. L.

Replies by DR. J. FREDERICK W. SILK - - - -	857
---	-----

APPENDIX No. LI.

Replies by MR. THEODORE THOMPSON, M.A., M.D., M.R.C.P., F.R.C.S. - - - -	858
--	-----

APPENDIX No. LII.

Statement of Evidence by DRs. A. E. COPE and ARTHUR DRURY - - - -	860
---	-----

APPENDIX No. LIII.

Statement of Evidence by King Edward's Hospital Fund for London - - - -	860
---	-----

APPENDIX No. LIV.

Memorandum by the Medical Officer of the Local Government Board on the Unification of the Official Medical Services for the Poor - - - -	862
--	-----

APPENDIX No. LV.

Statement of Evidence by the Queen Victoria's Jubilee Institute for Nurses - - - -	869
A.—Statement showing the Grants made by Boards of Guardians to 242 Nursing Associations affiliated to the above Institute - - - -	873
B.—Statement showing the Grants made by Boards of Guardians to 144 Associations affiliated to the County Nursing Associations - - - -	875

APPENDIX No. LVI.

Statement of Evidence by the School Dentists' Society - - - -	876
A.—Statement of Conditions recommended for adoption by Boards of Guardians or of Management, in regard to the Appointment of Dental Officers - - - -	877

APPENDIX No. LVII.

Memorandum from the Workhouse Nursing Association - - - -	877
A.—Extract from "Nursing Notes," July, 1906 - - - -	879
B.—Extracts from information received from a fully trained Nurse (dated October 23rd, 1906) - - - -	880
C.—Extract from "Nursing Notes," October, 1906 - - - -	881
D.—Extracts from "Poor Law Officers' Journal," March 16th, 1906, and from "Nursing Notes," October, 1906 - - - -	882

TABLE OF CONTENTS—*continued.***APPENDIX No. LVIII.**

Statement of Evidence by GENERAL BOOTH - - - - -	PAGE 883
A.—Memorandum by Mr. Bramwell Booth with reference to the Industrial Schools Acts, 1866 and 1880, and proposing a Bill to compel Education Authorities to provide Industrial School Accommodation - - - - -	892

APPENDIX No. LIX.

Statement of Evidence by the Chelsea Committee of the Charity Organisation Society - - - - -	893
--	-----

APPENDIX No. LX.

Statement of Evidence by MISS MARY CLIFFORD - - - - -	899
A.—Copy of Opinions expressed at a meeting of Women Guardians - - - - -	900

APPENDIX No. LXI.

Statement of Evidence by MRS. ELLINOR C. L. CLOSE - - - - -	900
A.—Copy of an Opinion by Mr. H. B. Mothersole as to Mrs. Close's Scheme - - - - -	902

APPENDIX No. LXII.

Statement of Evidence by Mr. WILLIAM CROOKS, M.P., L.C.C. - - - - -	906
A.—Poplar Union; Dietary Table—Laindon Farm Colony - - - - -	912

APPENDIX No. LXIII.

Statement of Evidence by Miss M. M. DALGLISH - - - - -	913
A.—Suggestions to Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Committees newly starting - - - - -	915
B.—Directions as to finding a Vacancy for a Boy - - - - -	915
C.—Directions for placing an Apprentice or Learner - - - - -	915
D.—List of Useful Books for Reference, and Pattern Form of Indenture as used by Local Committees - - - - -	916

APPENDIX No. LXIV.

Statement of Evidence by MRS. G. F. HILL - - - - -	917
A.—List of Courses given as to the Training of Relieving Officers with Name of Lecturer and Details as to Attendance - - - - -	919
B.—Specimen Examination Papers - - - - -	920

APPENDIX No. LXV.

Correspondence between the Commission and MESSRS. STAFFORD HOWARD and F. A. HYETT as to Areas, &c. - - - - -	922
--	-----

APPENDIX No. LXVI.

Correspondence and Memorandum as to the system in vogue in Reformatory and Industrial Schools under the Jurisdiction of the Home Office for keeping some supervision over the after careers of children who have been in such Schools - - - - -	923
A.—Copies of Forms used for keeping the above record - - - - -	925

APPENDIX No. LXVII.

Statement of Evidence by Mr. JOHN HUTTON, NORTHALLERTON - - - - -	926
---	-----

APPENDIX No. LXVIII.

Statement of Evidence by Miss HELEN G. KLAASSEN, KENNINGTON - - - - -	929
A.—Cases illustrating the difficulties under which Boards of Guardians and their Officials labour in their attempts to give adequate help by means of Out-relief - - - - -	930

TABLE OF CONTENTS—*continued.***APPENDIX No. LXIX.**

Memorandum by the Local Government Board as to the internal arrangements for the administration of the Poor Law - - - - -	PAGE 932
---	-------------

APPENDIX No. LXX.

Memorandum by the Local Government Board on the subject of Deaths attributable to, or accelerated by, privation or starvation - - - - -	934
---	-----

APPENDIX No. LXXI.

Statement of Evidence as to Contracts by the London County Council - - - - -	935
A.—Regulations governing the Accounts of Farmfield Inebriates Reformatory - - - - -	938
B.—Regulations governing the Accounts of the Industrial and Special Schools - - - - -	941
C.—Regulations governing the Accounts of the Avery Hill Training College - - - - -	944
D.—Regulations as to Contracts and Accounts - - - - -	946

APPENDIX No. LXXII.

Statement of Evidence by the London County Council as to the incidence of cost of maintenance of pauper lunatics in London - - - - -	948
--	-----

APPENDIX No. LXXIII.

Replies by the London County Council to questions as to Industrial and Reformatory Schools, &c. - - -	954
A.—Summary of Returns from Schools with which the Council has Agreements showing the Number of Children Licensed Out since 1897, and the manner in which they have followed their Occupations -	956

APPENDIX No. LXXIV.

Statement of Evidence by MAJOR C. L. A. SKINNER, L.C.C. - - - - -	957
A.—Statement giving particulars of Cases brought before the Cases Section of the Special Schools Subcommittee of the London County Council from November, 1906, to November, 1907, where Children have previously been in Workhouses or Parish Schools - - - - -	959

APPENDIX No. LXXV.

Correspondence between the London County Council and the Commission as to the quality of the Work performed by the Unemployed - - - - -	966
---	-----

APPENDIX No. LXXVI.

Statement of Evidence by MR. WALTER MILLEDGE, BRADFORD - - - - -	967
--	-----

APPENDIX No. LXXVII.

Statement of Evidence by MR. ALFRED A. MILLWARD, ST. PANCRAS - - - - -	970
A.—Extracts from Papers on the Training of Relieving Officers read before the South Eastern and Metropolitan Districts Poor Law Conference, on 10th December, 1903, by Mr. A. A. Millward, and Mr. H. A. Craig, and discussion thereon - - - - -	970

APPENDIX No. LXXVIII.

Statement of Evidence by MR. HENRY F. NEW - - - - -	974
A.—Tables showing Numbers, Ages, and Occupations of Boys belonging to the various Unions which have been reported upon by the Association for Befriending Boys during the last six years - - - - -	976

APPENDIX No. LXXIX.

Statement of Evidence by REV. J. B. PATON, D.D. - - - - -	977
A.—A Modified Elborfeld Scheme - - - - -	979

APPENDIX No. LXXX.

Memorandum by MR. A. C. PRIGOU, M.A. - - - - -	981
--	-----

TABLE OF CONTENTS—*continued*.**APPENDIX No. LXXXI.**

Memorandum by Mr. J. D. STUART SIM	- - - - -	PAGE - 1001
------------------------------------	-----------	----------------

APPENDIX No. LXXXII.

Statement of Evidence by Miss EDITH SELLERS	- - - - -	- 1001
A.—Poor Relief Administration in Denmark	- - - - -	- 1006
B.—Poor Relief in Berlin	- - - - -	- 1007
C.—Poor Relief Administration in Vienna	- - - - -	- 1012
D.—Addendum to Appendix as to Poor Relief in Berlin	- - - - -	- 1013
E.—The State Children of Hungary	- - - - -	- 1014
F.—Report on an Inquiry as to what percentage of Workhouse Inmates have relations with whom they could live, if they each had a pension of 5/- a week	- - - - -	- 1018

APPENDIX No. LXXXIII.

Statement of Evidence by Miss L. TWINING	- - - - -	- 1020
--	-----------	--------

APPENDIX No. LXXXIV.

Statement of Evidence by Mr. W. VALLANCE	- - - - -	- 1020
--	-----------	--------

APPENDIX No. LXXXV.

Statement of Evidence by the Women's Local Government Society	- - - - -	- 1022
A.—Circular Letter sent out to Boards of Guardians by the Women's Local Government Society asking for opinions on the subjects of Female Relieving Officers, and Female Inspectors of Workhouses	- - - - -	- 1026
B.—Extracts from Letters received in regard to Women as Relieving Officers	- - - - -	- 1027
C.—Summary of Answers received by the Women's Local Government Society in respect to the need for many more Women Relieving Officers and Inspectors	- - - - -	- 1035

APPENDIX No. LXXXVI.

Copy of Correspondence with Admiralty and War Office on the subject of the possibility of greater regularisation of Government work	- - - - -	- 1036
---	-----------	--------

APPENDIX No. LXXXVII.

War Office Letter and Memorandum as to the feasibility of calling out the Militia during the Winter Months.	- - - - -	1049
---	-----------	------

APPENDIX No. LXXXVIII.

Statement of Evidence by Mr. R. J. ANGEL, M.Inst.C.E., BERMONDSEY	- - - - -	- 1050
---	-----------	--------

APPENDIX No. LXXXIX.

Statement of Evidence of Mr. A. E. CAREY, M.I.C.E.	- - - - -	- 1051
--	-----------	--------

APPENDIX No. XC.

Statement of Evidence by Mr. WILLIAM DAWSON, BRADFORD	- - - - -	- 1051
---	-----------	--------

APPENDIX No. XCI.

Statement of Evidence by Mr. M. W. JAMESON, STEPNEY	- - - - -	- 1052
---	-----------	--------

APPENDIX No. XCII.

Statement of Evidence by Mr. WILLIAM R. LESTER, M.A.	- - - - -	- 1052
--	-----------	--------

APPENDIX No. XCIII.

Memorandum and Tabular Statement by the Local Government Board showing extent to which Guardians have resorted to exceptional measures for the Relief of Distress arising from Want of Employment	- - - - -	1056
---	-----------	------

TABLE OF CONTENTS—*continued.***APPENDIX No. XCIV.**

Letter to Local Government Board and their reply thereto as to the means which have been adopted apart from the Poor Law for Relieving Distress due to Unemployment	PAGE - 1073
---	----------------

APPENDIX No. XCV.

Statement of Evidence by MR. ARTHUR PRIESTMAN, BRADFORD	- 1073
---	--------

APPENDIX No. XCVI.

Statement of Evidence by MR. A. BLACK, LEITH	- 1075
--	--------

APPENDIX No. XCVII.

Statement of Evidence by MR. WILLIAM J. CHRYSTAL, GLASGOW	- 1075
---	--------

APPENDIX No. XCVIII.

Statement of Evidence by MR. T. S. CREE, LL.D.	- 1076
--	--------

APPENDIX No. XCIX.

Statement of Evidence by MR. GEORGE B. ESSLEMONT, M.P., ABERDEEN	- 1078
A.—Table showing Number and Classes of Registered Unemployed from January 6th, 1906, to March 31st, 1907	1079
B.—Memorandum as to Work, &c., provided by the Town Council and Harbour Board for Unemployed Workmen, 1904-7	- 1080
C.—Tables as to the Outdoor Poor in Aberdeen, 1902-7	- 1080
D.—Table showing Families who have Incomes from other sources of £1 a week and over	- 1081
E.—Ages of Paupers in Aberdeen on 15th May, 1907	- 1083

APPENDIX No. C.

Statement of Evidence by MR. JAS. GOLDIE, GLASGOW	- 1083
---	--------

APPENDIX No. CI.

Statement of Evidence by MR. J. M. HODGE, BLAIRGOWRIE	- 1084
A.—Circular issued by Messrs. Keay and Hodge giving particulars of a Month in the Country for Working Girls	- 1084

APPENDIX No. CII.

Statement of Evidence by MR. ALEXANDER JEWELL, DUNDEE	- 1085
---	--------

APPENDIX No. CIII.

Statement of Evidence by MR. D. LAIDLAW, GLASGOW	- 1085
--	--------

APPENDIX No. CIV.

Statement of Evidence by MR. ROBERT S. LEITCH, DUNDEE	- 1086
---	--------

APPENDIX No. CV.

Statement of Evidence by MR. JAMES MACFARLANE, GLASGOW	- 1086
A.—Detailed Account as to Membership, Arrears due to National Fund, Funeral Claims paid, State of Trade, &c., for quarter ending 8th April, 1907	- 1087

APPENDIX No. CVI.

Statement of Evidence by MR. R. B. MACOUAT, GLASGOW	- 1089
---	--------

TABLE OF CONTENTS—*continued.***APPENDIX No. CVII.**

Statement of Evidence by MR. THOMAS MASON, GLASGOW	- - - - -	PAGE - 1089
--	-----------	----------------

APPENDIX No. CVIII.

Statement of Evidence by MR. JOHN ORR, GLASGOW	- - - - -	- 1089
--	-----------	--------

APPENDIX No. CIX.

Statement of Evidence by MR. GEORGE RANKINE, DUNDEE	- - - - -	1090
---	-----------	------

APPENDIX No. CX.

Statement of Evidence on behalf of the Scottish Firewood Association by MESSRS. JNO. and W. D. HALL, GLASGOW	- - - - -	- 1090
---	-----------	--------

APPENDIX No. CXI.

Statement of Evidence by MR. THOMAS SCRIMGEOUR, ABERDEEN	- - - - -	- 1091
--	-----------	--------

APPENDIX No. CXII.

Statement of Evidence by MR. ALEXANDER SMELLIE, LEITH	- - - - -	- 1092
---	-----------	--------

APPENDIX No. CXIII.

Statement of Evidence by MR. J. S. TEMPLETON, GLASGOW	- - - - -	- 1093
---	-----------	--------

APPENDIX No. CXIV.

Statement of Evidence by MR. A. TRAN, GLASGOW	- - - - -	- 1094
---	-----------	--------

APPENDIX No. CXV.

Statement of Evidence by MR. ROBERT WILSON, URR	- - - - -	- 1094
---	-----------	--------

APPENDIX No. CXVI.

Statement of Evidence by MR. R. BAIRD, GLASGOW	- - - - -	- 1095
--	-----------	--------

APPENDIX No. CXVII.

Statement of Evidence by MR. WALTER BELL, EDINBURGH	- - - - -	1096
---	-----------	------

APPENDIX No. CXVIII.

Statement of Evidence by REV. DUNCAN CAMERON, BRIDGE OF ALLAN	- - - - -	- 1096
---	-----------	--------

APPENDIX No. CXIX.

Statement of Evidence by MR. F. M'CULLOCH CRAIG, GLASGOW	- - - - -	- 1098
--	-----------	--------

APPENDIX No. CXX.

Statement of Evidence by MR. CHARLES DOUGLAS, AUCHLOCHAN	- - - - -	- 1098
--	-----------	--------

APPENDIX No. CXXI.

Statement of Evidence by MR. J. G. DUNLOP, CLYDEBANK	- - - - -	- 1102
--	-----------	--------

TABLE OF CONTENTS—continued.

APPENDIX No. CXXII.

Statement of Evidence by MR. W. GORDON, ABERDEEN	- - - - -	PAGE - 1103
--	-----------	----------------

APPENDIX No. CXXIII.

Statement of Evidence by MR. ALEX. GRACIE, GLASGOW - - - - - 1103

APPENDIX No. CXXIV.

Statement of Evidence by MISS A. HUSBAND, DUNDEE - - - - - 1104

APPENDIX No. CXXV.

Statement of Evidence by MR. J. M. JACK - - - - - 1104

APPENDIX No. CXXVI.

Statement of Evidence by MR. W. LONGAIR, DUNDEE - - - - - 1105

APPENDIX No. CXXVII.

Statement of Evidence by BAILIE J. H. MARTIN, DUNDEE - - - - - 1105

APPENDIX No. CXXVIII.

Statement of Evidence by MR. W. H. BLYTH MARTIN, DUNDEE - - - - - 1106

APPENDIX No. CXXIX.

Statement of Evidence by MR. WILLIAM NICOL, GLASGOW - - - - - 1107

APPENDIX No. CXXX.

Statement of Evidence by MR. PETER REID, DUNDEE - - - - - 1108

APPENDIX No. CXXXI.

Statement of Evidence by SIR CHARLES BINE RENSHAW, Bart. - - - - - 1108

APPENDIX No. CXXXII.

Statement of Evidence by CAPTAIN W. H. SHINGLER, EDINBURGH - - - - - 1109

APPENDIX No. CXXXIII.

Statement of Evidence by PROFESSOR SIME, DUNDEE - - - - - 1110

APPENDIX No. CXXXIV.

Statement of Evidence by MR. ROBERT STIRTON, DUNDEE - - - - - 1110

APPENDIX No. CXXXV.

Statement of Evidence by MR. W. S. WORKMAN, GLASGOW - - - - - 1111

Handed in by Mr. Charles Cleveland Ellis. (Q. 89080.)

STATEMENT SHOWING IN RESPECT OF CERTAIN DISTRESS COMMITTEES IN SCOTLAND THE TOTAL COST OF THE WORK EXECUTED BY UNEMPLOYED WORKMEN, THE VALUE OF THE WORK DONE, AND WHETHER THE STANDARD RATE OR LESS THAN THE STANDARD RATE OF WAGES WAS PAID.

Name of Distress Committee.	Date.	Nature of work provided.	Total cost of work.		Value of work done.	State whether the Standard Rate of wages was paid, or less than the Standard Rate.	Percentage of value of work to total cost.	
			Wages to unem- ployed workmen.	Other expenditure.				
Aberdeen	1906-8	Stone-breaking for road metal	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	Standard Rate.	40'0	
	1907	Screening road metal	3,528 4 4	—	1,413 9 8	Do.	64'5	
	1906-8	Collecting waste paper	61 19 1	—	40 —	Do.	80'2	
	1907	Clearing Golf Course	162 4 2	—	129 17 5	Do.	73'7	
Dalbeattie	1906-7	Roadmaking	£169 3 —	—	640 7 2	Do.	87'1	
		Pitching Embankment	734 11 9	—	160 —	About 12 % less than Standard.	100'0	
	1907	Levelling ground	160 — —	—	160 —	Standard Rate.	100'0	
	1906-8	Delivering circulars	179 9 6	—	179 9 6	Do.	100'0	
	1906	Making kerb and forming footpaths	29 — 10	—	29 — 10	Do.	105'4	
	1907	Widening and otherwise improving roads	354 19 8	111 15 4	530 —			
		Quarrying stones	9 5 9	27 8 10	—			
	Dundee	January, 1906 -May, 1907	Formation of new streets	£503 9 7	—	4,554 10 2	Less than Standard.	79'8
			Construction of sewers and stone-breaking	2,064 16 2	3,645 11 5	—	Do.	96'6
	Edinburgh	1905-6	Footpath at Craiglockhart Hill	£5,710 7 7	140 —	1,938 6 8		
Labouring in Public Parks and Gardens			144 11 3	—	620 15 9	50'0		
1906-7	Widening of roadways	3,876 13 4	—	30 —	Do.	90'9		
	Limewashing by Cleansing Department of City	—	—	26 8 6	Do.	76'5		
1907-8	Labouring in Public Parks and Gardens	1,241 11 6	—	40 —	Do.	93'0		
	Limewashing by Cleansing Department of City	—	—	314 5 1	Standard Rate.	100'0		
1906-7	Footpath at Craiglockhart Hill	33 8 9	—	200 —	Tradesmen paid Standard Rate. Others paid less than Standard Rate.	100'5		
	Footpath at Craigleith Poorhouse	34 3 —	—	—	Paid by results : Minimum rate per day, 1/6 to men and 1/- to women.	96'2		
1907-8	Reclamation of land (Bonaly Toon)	43 6 6	—	1,639 10 9				
1906-7	1907-8	Drainage Works for Burgh Engineer	314 5 1	82 7 7	—	—	—	
		Alterations on old Hospital for Firewood and Waste-paper Factory.	117 2 2	—	—			
1906-7	1906-7	Firewood and Waste-paper Factory	£199 9 9	705 17 4	—	—	—	
		—	999 11 3	—	—			
			£1,705 8 7					

APPENDIX No. I. (A.)—continued.
Handed in by Mr. Charles Cleveland Ellis. (Q. 89080.)

Name of Distress Committee.	Date.	Nature of work provided.	Total cost of work.		Value of work done.	State whether the Standard Rate of wages was paid, or less than the Standard Rate.	Percentage of value of work to total cost.
			Wages to unem- ployed workmen.	Other expenditure.			
			£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		
Edinburgh—contd.	1907-8	Firewood and Waste-paper Factory	1,408 16 10	623 16 9*	1,682 2 9	Paid by results; Minimum rate, 1/6 per day to men and 1/- to women.	82·7
	1907-8	Stone-breaking	21 19 -	-	15 - -	Paid by results: 2/6 per cubic yd., with minimum wage of 14/6 per week.	68·2
	1905-6	Westerhill: Digging and Levelling	2,996 16 8	276 10 11	913 5 -	Less than Standard.	27·9
	November, 1906 -May, 1907	Robroyston: Land Draining: General Farm Improvement Work, &c.	£3,273 7 7 524 9 11	131 1 11	200 19 4	Do	30·6
Glasgow		Westerhill, as above	£655 11 10 4,501 18 6	437 8 6	1560 - -	Do.	31·6
		Robroyston, as above	£4,939 7 - 583 13 5	135 17 2	241 17 10	Do.	33·6
		Coplawhill: Stonebreaking	£719 10 7 373 2 4	47 11 2	126 10 7	Do.	30·2
	May, 1907- November, 1907	Westerhill, as above	£420 13 6 1,101 - -	248 - -	950 - -	Do.	70·4
Govan			£1,349 - -	-			
	1906	Agricultural Work- Street Formation	15 5 7 199 17 - 1	-	7 - -	Standard Rate.	46·7
		Extension of Plantation Park	106 - 8 1	-	108 18 9 1	Do.	54·5
	1907	Trenching Ground - Painter Work at Merryflatts Poorhouse Levelling Ground at Shieldhall Hospital	29 5 9 43 8 4 18 2 6	-	57 13 3 1/2 9 15 3 23 8 4 12 1 8	Do. Do. Do. Do.	54·7 34·5 53·5 66·7
Greenock	1907	New Street	991 1 4	316 6 9	1,072 13 10	Less than Standard Rate.	82·1
Inverness		Stonebreaking	£1,307 8 1 253 17 1	254 18 8	311 2 6	Less than Standard: started at 2/- per day, increased to 2/6 and 3/- as men improved.	61·1
	March, 1906- May, 1906	Repair of Longman Road	127 18 4	54 13 2	99 5 0	Less than Standard.	54·1
	January, 1907- May, 1907	Do.	£182 11 6 254 16 2	55 6 6	170 - -	Do.	54·8
			£310 2 8	-			

* The clerk states that these figures cannot be held as instructing any result, as until the annual balance sheet is struck the exact and value of the work cannot be definitely ascertained.

Leith	1906	New Sewers at Portobello Road and Granton Road	£ 177 11 7	s. 4	d. 7	£ 943 4 7	s. 4	d. 7	Standard Rate.	100 0
		New Pathways and new Bowling Greens at Links	£943 4 7						Do.	100 0
		Taking down old buildings at Sheriff Brae	£1,356 17 8			1,356 17 8			Do.	100 0
			£236 7 -			236 7 -			Do.	100 0
Partick	1906	Breaking Brick	8 15 6			6 19 6			Do.	77 8
	1906	Rebuilding Wall	12 14 10			11 2 5			Do.	78 5
	1906	Pointing Walls	£14 4 10			30 5 9			Do.	68 2
	1906	Building Wall	£43 18 9			67 10 -			Do.	81 9
	1906	Repairing Footpaths	£82 19 5			7 2 8			Do.	70 0
	1907	Painter Work	£9 14 -			34 6 5			Do.	63 0
	1906-7	Excavation, Draining, Bottoming, Bowling Greens, Quarrying	£54 7 5			225 - -			Less than Standard.	66 0
	1907	Do.	£341 1 -			299 1 2			Do.	69 1
		Do.	£432 11 9							
Pollokshaws	1906-7	Road-making and Incidental Work including Banking of Earth, Excavation, Stone-breaking, Concrete-laying, &c.	205 8 2			137 - 10			Do.	59 6
			£230 3 3							

EXPLANATORY NOTE BY MR. ELLIS.

The object of the Table was to show whether in the event of the standard rate of wages being paid the value of the work was greater than where less than the standard was paid. I am afraid that it is impossible to draw from the table any useful conclusions on this point, owing to the different classes of men and the different circumstances under which they were employed. For instance, where the town council did not wish to make a charge on the distress committee, I know that no particular effort was made to value the work. In such cases, I am inclined to think the valuation is not altogether to be depended on. Again, for certain works, the men were especially picked (*e.g.*, Drainage Works for Burgh Engineer in Edinburgh) and there was in consequence no loss on their employment. In Dalbeattie you will notice there was a profit. This may be

accounted for by the fact that the unemployed were all men previously in regular employment at the Quarries, which were shut down for several months. These men, accustomed to rough work, were quite able to give, and did give, full value when employed on relief work.

In Leith we find that the total percentage of value to total cost is 100 for all work. But very few "unemployed" men were engaged on this work, and the few that were so engaged were drafted along with the corporation's own workmen, so that it was impossible to estimate the loss, if any, on the work of (say) one "unemployed" man among perhaps twelve ordinary workmen.

It is obvious, therefore, that the value of the work does not depend on the rate of wages paid but rather on the nature of the work and the type and physical condition of the man who has to do it. A jobbing tailor, for example, if put to work with

pick and shovel is physically unable to give full value no matter what wage he is paid. A navy on the other hand, if employed on navy work, may give full value even if paid less than the standard navy wage. It seems to me, therefore, to be quite impossible to ascertain what the Commission desire unless you could pick (say) fifty men of equal physical capacity and training, divide them into two batches of twenty-five each and pay the one batch standard wages and the other less than standard. In actual practice such conditions are not, of course, met with.

With these qualifications, I send the table for what it is worth, but I do not suggest that it is of any real value for the purpose the Commission had in view. I may, however, add that, when calling for this Return, distress committees were told what the object was, so that in giving the information it may be assumed that they had that object before them.

APPENDIX No. I. (B.)

Handed in by Mr. Charles Cleveland Ellis. (Q. 89105.)

UNEMPLOYED WORKMEN ACT, 1905.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE DIFFERENT VIEWS OF DISTRESS COMMITTEES AS TO THE SUITABILITY OF APPLICANTS FOR ASSISTANCE UNDER THE ABOVE ACT AND THE REGULATIONS.

The information herewith produced has been extracted from the official record papers.

The Distress Committee of V. passed the following cases :—

1. Occasionally given to drink.
2. Was given to drink, now doing better.
3. Five of a family. Lost work owing to misconduct.
4. Occasionally had a drinking bout.
5. A good deal given to drink. Very unsatisfactory at work. Five children.
6. Given to drink. Three children, two of whom earning 10s. per week. In receipt of relief from trades council and parish council.
7. Four children. Given to drink.
8. Thirty-one years of age. Labourer. Very much given to drink, and spends most of his earnings on drink. Wife has to go out to work to eke out a living for herself and two children. Employed at relief work last year, but stayed off work, saying he had met with injury to eye. Paid off, as he frequently called at office the worse of drink.
9. Discharged for failing to attend to his work.
10. Lad, eighteen. Labourer. Single. Three and a half years in last employment. Gave up situation as he was dissatisfied with his wages. Applies to be sent to Canada.
11. Twenty-nine years of age. Married. Two children. Lazy. Frequently leaves off work. Was in employment, but lost that work for misconduct. Employed on relief work last year. Left own accord, having found work. Afterwards privately employed, but stayed off drinking and was convicted for theft and indecent exposure for which he received a term of imprisonment.
12. Twenty-eight years of age. Given to drink. Lazy.
13. Twenty-two years of age. Left work owing to dispute with his employer.
14. Forty-two years of age. Married. Grown-up family. Income of £1 6s. 6d. per week from children for board. Worse of drink when calling at office.

The Distress Committee of W. passed the following cases :—

1. Thirty-eight years of age. Shipyard labourer. Married. Eight children (ages two to nineteen). Applicant in hands of police several times.
2. Twenty-nine years of age. Riveter. Married. Five children. Applicant had drunken habits and has, on several occasions, been in hands of police. Wife of good character. Applicant's discharge note from employers does not correspond with his own statements.
3. Age, forty-nine. Riveter. Married. Six children. Wife barefooted, and both she and house dirty. Applicant not deserving of help as his money all goes in drink.
4. Thirty-eight years of age. Riveter. Married. Three children. Last employer could not get a very flattering testimonial.
5. Sixty-four years of age. Casual labourer. Two children. Addicted to drink.
6. Forty-six years of age. Stonebreaker. Married. Two children. Does not bear very good character.
7. Forty-seven years of age. Labourer. Married. Two children. House (one apartment) dirty. Applicant and wife said to be of very drunken habits. No fixed employment.
8. Fifty years of age. Riveter. Married. One child (eighteen years of age, at present idle). Addicted to drink.

9. Twenty-five years of age. Riveter. Married. One child. Applicant of drunken habits. (Several similar cases to above.)
10. Thirty-six years of age. Holder on. Married. Three children. Applicant and wife not of sober habits.
11. Forty-two years of age. Labourer. Married. Three children. Applicant is of lazy habits and seldom works. Has been very little employed during last twelve months.
12. Forty-one years of age. Labourer. Married. Five children. Takes drink and always in poverty.
13. Thirty-seven years of age. Labourer. Married. Five children. Lost an eye in former employment and got £50 compensation. Never sober till money was gone. In very poor circumstances.
14. Forty-five years of age. Labourer. Married. Three children. Applicant and wife bear bad characters and drink all that they can lay their hands on.
15. Twenty-eight years of age. Carter. Married. One child. Employed on relief work last year. Of drunken habits. Was in prison recently for throwing a lighted lamp at his wife. Very bad case.
16. Thirty-six years of age. Married. One child. Dismissed from work by his employers for theft.
17. Fifty-five years of age. Holder on. Married. One son (seventeen years of age) who has just returned from the Stranraer Reformatory. Applicant bad time-keeper and of drunken habits.
18. Forty-eight years of age. Holder on. Married. Five children. Met with accident in last employment. Received compensation at the rate of 17s. per week from September 3rd to December 23rd. He and his wife not sober.
19. Thirty-five years of age. Labourer. Married. Five children. Follows no regular employment. Is of lazy and drunken habits and is well-known to the police, having been several times before the Court. Now in prison for five days for failing to send his child to school (10—12—07). Started work, January 13th, 1908.
20. Thirty-one years of age. Carter. Married. Six children. Lost his work owing to drink. Well-known to the police and several times before the Court.
21. Thirty-two years of age. Caulker. Married. Three children. Single apartment. Irregular workman, of drunken habits. Left his wife several times.
22. Forty-two years of age. Labourer. Married. Three children. Residential qualification his only recommendation.
23. Twenty-five years of age. Labourer. Married. Left work of his own accord.
24. Twenty-eight years of age. Casual labourer. Married. Two children. Dismissed from work for bad timekeeping. Well-known to police.

The Distress Committee of X. passed the following cases :—

1. Sixty-three years of age. Labourer. Married. Two children (ages twenty and eighteen). Applicant dismissed from relief work last year owing to drink. Charged with assault and breach of the peace, and fined 21s. or fourteen days.
2. Age thirty-six. General labourer. Married. Two children. Applicant left work owing to dispute with employers. Was, however, in last employment six years.

APPENDIX No. I. (B.)—continued.

Handed in by Mr. Charles Cleveland Ellis. (Q. 89195).

The Distress Committee of Y. passed the following cases :—*

1. Forty-five years of age. Labourer. Married. Four children. Son earns 10s. per week. Employed on relief work in 1906, and continuously employed on relief work from December, 1906.
2. Sixty years of age. Widower. Eight children. Income from children £1 per week. Employed on relief work in 1906, and continuously employed on relief work from December, 1906.
3. Thirty-five years of age. Casual labourer. Married. Two children. Continuously employed from December 28th, 1906.
4. Fifty years of age. Mason. Married. Eight children. Income 5s. per week. Paid off owing to dull trade. Continuously employed from March 26th, 1906.
5. Sixty-two years of age. Married. Three children. One a domestic servant in Model Lodging House with a wage of 10s. per week. Applicant has not worked for years. Not able for a full day's work. Continuously employed on relief work from May 3rd, 1907.
6. Fifty-four years of age. Shipyard labourer. Widower, no dependants. Lives in model and has done for years. Late employers say "a fairly good workman, but bad timekeeper; twice gave him a chance, but on each occasion came back on Monday after pay under the influence of drink." Continuously employed on relief work from May 3rd, 1907.
7. Sixty-nine years of age. Widower. Four children (married). Applicant reported as too old for work, hence reason for being paid off. Shipyard caulker to trade. Given work by Town Council in 1906, but left off after a few hours. Employed on relief work since May 3rd, 1907.
8. Sixty-five years of age. Married. Two children, one a charwoman, the other a domestic servant. Applicant has no prospect of work. Good character. Continuously employed on relief work since February 1st, 1906.
9. Forty-three years of age. Married. One child. Good workman, but occasionally took a day or two to himself. Employed on relief work since May 25th, 1907.
10. Forty-eight years of age. Shipyard labourer. Married. One child, a domestic servant at 5s. per week. Applicant a riveter to trade. Had shock to nervous system. No longer able to work at trade. Insurance Company will not accept him in shipyard. Started relief work December 18th, 1907.
11. Sixty-six years of age. Shipyard labourer. Married. Five children. Only fit for light labouring work.
12. Seventeen years of age. Shipyard labourer. Single. Was in employment, but left of his own accord. Started on relief work December 18th, 1907.
13. Forty-eight years of age. Married. Four children. Epileptic. Started on relief work December 18th, 1907.
14. Twenty-six years of age. French polisher. Married. Three children. Left work of own accord. Started on relief work December 18th, 1907.
15. Thirty-four years of age. Riveter. Married. Two children. Not living at address given. Employers say "applicant not particularly good at timekeeping."
16. Fifty-three years of age. Shipyard labourer. Employed on relief work in February, 1907. Reported on November 5th, as irregular timekeeper when last on relief work. Started again December 18th, 1907.

17. Twenty-three years of age. Riveter. Married. One child. Paid off for bad timekeeping. Applicant says "owing to wife being ill."

The Distress Committee of Z rejected the following cases as being unworthy of assistance under the Act and the Regulations :—

1. April 26th, 1906. Wife in Poorhouse. Doubtful case. He in prison for theft.
2. October 16th, 1901. Wife, 4s. 6d. weekly. Husband in prison. Thirty days for assaulting her. She was also chargeable—deserted by him. Employer certified applicant as discharged in respect of intemperance.
3. Wife on parish roll at 3s. per week from February 7th 1900, till July 11th, 1900. He in prison. The investigator reported :— "They seem to be in chronic poverty. Wife drinks. I have seen her the worse for liquor on one occasion."
4. Presently in receipt of 3s. 6d. weekly.
5. Applicant admitted to parish on October 8th, 1906, suffering from injury to legs and thigh. Was assaulted by two men while the worse for drink on October 17th, 1906. Wife offered Poorhouse. She is also said to be drunken.
6. At visit I paid on Saturday evening, December 1st, 1906, wife was in bed drunk and singing. An empty whisky bottle was on the table. He explained that a friend who called had been treating them.
7. This man was not found when visited. He called at office. Investigator reported :— "He seems to be a regular sort of loafer and has been knocking about here and there for years. He admits drinking. Would not recommend that work be granted in a case like this. He has been frequently refused as able-bodied by the parish council."
8. December 8th, 1906. Applicant has been idle since July 27th, 1906, and has no prospect of getting anything to do. Was in the City Poorhouse in 1901. This man has been a few times chargeable in the Poorhouse.
9. Investigator reported :— "House very poorly furnished. He does not seem much good. Parish records show this man to have been repeatedly chargeable from 1885 till date. His wife has also been chargeable—last time on July 26th, 1906." This man was forty-six years of age, and, as the parish records show, had been chargeable for twenty-one years. This is, from the age of twenty-five years, onwards.
10. The employers in this case stated :— "This man we could not get to attend regularly, although we gave him chance after chance. His average weekly wage was 12s. We do not think he is entitled to any relief, as his people have spoiled him at home, allowing him to sit at home when he should have been at his work. Had he attended to his duties he could have been here yet."
11. The employers in this case wrote :— "We employ no fruit hawkers, but the above-named was employed here as a millworker from February 2nd to 16th of this year. He seems to be of a migratory turn of mind, and like a lot more of his kidney, too lazy to put himself about to look for work, and, when he does get a job, too inactive to keep himself warm at it. He has been employed here several times."
12. Record shows this man to be a bad character, having been in prison for assault, etc.
13. The employers here certified the cause of discharge as irregularity in attendance at work. The investigator reported :— "This man is a drunken character and the house is under the name of Shaw, as he has periodical drinking bouts, at which times he disappears. Both he and his wife are a regular pair of liars."

* Note.—The object in quoting the above cases is to show the "continuous" employment offered rather than the character of the applicants. The date when these particulars were recorded was February 3rd, 1908.

APPENDIX No. I. (B.)—continued.

Handed in by Mr. Charles Cleveland Ellis. (Q. 89105).

- 14 This case is hardly one of a deserving nature, as he has partly contributed to his present state of poverty through improvidence, etc. I am not inclined to recommend work to be granted as they seem a bad lot." ("N.B.—See Parish Record, 6—69—128, for mother in prison in September, 1892, and it is there stated she is cohabiting with McCorkle, and has an illegitimate child by him.")
15. The employers here reported:—"Was only in our employment for three months over a year ago. Do not pay any notice to him. Will not work if he can get his meat for nothing."
16. Record (Parish), 6—70—193. This man has been chargeable in Poorhouse no fewer than twenty-five times since 1893, "skin disease, gonorrhœa," etc. He has always passed himself as *single*. Last chargeable to parish council from April 27th to July 3rd, 1905. Where was he married? (Stated in application for work to be married, boy thirteen years of age.)
17. Left parish hospital on October 23rd, 1906. Consumptive. Well known to parish and Charity Organisation Society. Not suitable for work.
18. Parish Record, 3—76—44, shows he was on T. S. "Mars" for three and one-sixth years. On July 11th, 1887, became chargeable suffering from gonorrhœa and bubo. Was then nineteen and two-thirds years of age. Again chargeable (as a married man) in 1899 and was granted medical relief. Wife chargeable in 1903 (twice) with two children. Husband in desertion. He was apprehended and on March 9th, 1903, dismissed with an admonition. He became chargeable again on April 15th, 1903. In City Poorhouse certified Synovitis. On July 22nd, 1903, wife and one child chargeable in City Poorhouse. Husband in desertion. Apprehended and got sixty days imprisonment on September 24th, 1903. Self and dependents chargeable from January 8th, 1904, to January 11th, 1904, in Poorhouse. On February 5th, 1904, applied for child's admission. Withdrawn as he had got work.
19. Investigator reported:—"Still idle and wife states he has done nothing of any consequence for the last seven years. She goes out and does a little washing and makes some weeks 2s. 6d. and others from 4s. to 5s., and 5s. 6d. from girl. Applicant was in hospital last February. Been three times chargeable to parish. In Poorhouse."
20. The employer stated:—"This man left before being discharged on account of bad time-keeping, etc. Not a case to be encouraged."
- 21 "This young man is only residing with his sister. At visit they were both in their beds and seemed as if they had been drinking. He has mostly resided about models and seems a lazy, useless fellow with no dependants."
22. December 12th, 1906. The Investigator reported:—"Still idle. This man was at parish hospital last year for six weeks. Has invalid daughter confined to bed for the last three months. Record shows this man to have been often chargeable and is at present in parish hospital. At visit wife concealed this and said he had just gone out, and record shows him to have been in parish hospital since December 6th, 1906, and still in."
23. The employer stated:—"This man was employed as a joiner and was in receipt of 10d. per hour or 42s. 6d. per week. He was in our service from June, 1906, to May, 1907, but latterly he became an irregular timekeeper."
24. December 7th, 1906. Applicant apparently has never wrought with anyone. He maintains himself moving through the country selling small articles. Was in the Poorhouse on several occasions. Record shows this man to have been moving in and out of the Poorhouse since 1896 (ten years). Made from sixty to seventy applications.
25. January 4th, 1907. Applicant and his wife lodge here. Married only on December 1st last (one

month ago) and on the 14th he got ten days' imprisonment for drunkenness. Wife applied to Parish then, but doctor certified her fit for work.

26. Parish Record B53896. More or less chargeable since February, 1895. The employer remarked:—"His foreman does not speak very well of him."
27. January 22nd, 1907. "From enquiries I find this man is given to drink. He has often left house and one off to the country for work. A regular sort of tramping labourer."
28. Parish Record 62,011. Wife 10s. per week—a year prior to application for work. He is in prison for assaulting police.

The Clerk to the Distress Committee of Z. in furnishing the above particulars states:—

"I have had little time to devote to it, but enclose, for your information, a note of excerpts taken from two volumes of the Record Papers of the Distress Committee for last year. Those volumes were taken at random, and I have gone hurriedly through them, noting those points which show the absolute necessity for thorough investigation prior to granting of work. The excerpts pretty much speak for themselves, and you will easily gather therefrom that investigation without the co-operation of the parish council officials, and the opportunity of consulting the parish records, must fall far short of what is desired.

"As you are aware, the distress committee since its inception, have insisted on the most thorough investigation being made into each case, applicants, prior to being granted work, being summoned before three members of the Committee, who have submitted to them reports by: (1) the investigating officers of the result of their inquiries and visit at the residence of the applicant, with any history of the case which the records of the distress committee or the parish council may provide; and (2) the applicant's past employers, as to character, rate of wages earned, and cause of discharge.

"The enclosed notes are merely samples of a few of the cases submitted to the Committee, and there is not the slightest doubt that, without investigation, the Committee, assuming they had the work to give, would have afforded employment to hundreds of absolutely undeserving persons—persons of bad character, in no way qualified for assistance under the Act, and, in quite a number of cases, altogether ineligible as being without the required residential qualification. In the figures for some of the towns quoted in the Reports of the Local Government Board I would be astounded to learn that there were not hundreds of persons passed for work, who, on any sort of investigation at all, would have received little consideration. It almost looks as if some of the committees, fearing that an applicant might find work or change his mind, had shown an indecent haste to assure him that they would be delighted to afford him employment. It is at least, too highly probable that quite a number of persons have been passed who had not the requisite residential qualification; but, in any event, and apart altogether from the fact of whether or not those committees did not properly discharge their duties under the Act, in providing work only to those persons "temporarily out of employment from exceptional causes, over which they had no control," surely far greater harm than good is done by the indiscriminate granting of work to any persons who may apply. Among the reasons for refusal by my distress committee in 214 cases you will find such causes as: (a) Subject to fits (epileptic); (b) recently in prison or wife deserters; (c) habitual drunkards; (d) not having the residential qualification; (e) too old, referred to parish; 2nd (f) gave false information. That table alone accounts for nearly 10 per cent. of the applicants, and shows that, for very good reasons, such a percentage was refused work.

"You will find that 20·6 per cent. of the applicants had applied to the parish for relief in the last year or in previous years. Surely this is worth knowing.

APPENDIX No. I. (B.)—continued.

Handed in by Mr. Charles Cleveland Ellis. (Q. 89105).

"Many of the reasons assigned by employers for the discharge of the men are more than sufficient, and when submitted to the committee, are quite conclusive of whether or not the men should be granted work. Quite a number of employers' certificates are returned: 'Left of own accord.' This at least wants some explanation from the men.

"You will observe from the Report that a considerable proportion of the applicants failed to attend before the committee when summoned. Those absentees have very often bad parish records. Their houses are reported dirty, the people thriftless. Investigation alone is sufficient in many of those cases. The man knows it is quite a waste of time to appear before the Committee. Very frequently the man, sometimes too, his wife, are found drunk when visited.

"Then there is another advantage of the communication with the last employer. Not infrequently the

employer returns the Circular with the request that the man should call, when he (the employer) would endeavour to give him work of some kind until there is a vacancy in his own line; or the statement may be made that the man can get his old job back again.

"Now, keeping in view the foregoing information, which as you are aware, is elicited in the cases here, the figures given in the Reports of the Local Government Board, as to the percentage which was found in certain towns to be qualified under the Act, are little short of amazing.

"There is only one other point, which I omitted to state above, namely, that in cases where there is any doubt as to the residential qualification, the address of the house factor is obtained and reference made to the rent books."

APPENDIX No. II. (A.)

Handed in by Mr. James Ferguson, Glasgow (Q. 90115 (13)).

Widows and Children on Special Roll as recommended by the Local Government Board, Circular of June 1902.

Number of Widows on Roll..	Rate per week.
8 at	18s.
1 "	17s.
8 "	16s.
38 "	15s.
15 "	14s.
5 "	13s.
71 "	12s.
1 "	12s. 6d.
15 "	10s.
31 "	9s.
8 "	8s.
4 "	7s.
1 "	7s. 6d.
3 "	6s.

Total 209

TABLE I.

GLASGOW DISTRESS COMMITTEE.

TABLE showing number of Applications received during the period 13th November, 1906 to 26th March, 1907, and how they were disposed of.

2240 applications for employment were received and disposed of as follows:—

Summoned to committee . . .	1705
Not found at address given . . .	211
Working when visited . . .	220
Residing in models . . .	49
Residing outwith city boundary . . .	14
Female applicants—(see App. II.) . . .	21
Under investigation . . .	20

A. I.	Of the 2240 applications for employment, 461 applied last year and 278 applied in previous years . . .	461	278
	Of the 2240 applications for employment, 289 had applied to the parish for relief last year . . .	289	
	183 had applied to the parish for relief in previous years . . .	183	
	1705 total number of applications dealt with by the employment committee and how disposed of:—		

	Number granted work . . .	877
	Number refused work * . . .	196
A. III.	Number who did not appear at committee . . .	581
	Delayed but afterwards granted, and included in total number of granted . . .	51
	1705	

See Table XII. showing causes of refusal.

420—IX.

TABLE II.

GLASGOW DISTRESS COMMITTEE.

STATEMENT showing number of Daily Applications received from 13th November, 1906, until March, 1907.

	Nov. 13	Dec. 6	Jan. 1
	62	40	1
	14 140	7 25	2 ...
	15 141	8 31	3 8
	16 121	10 14	4 ...
	17 72	11 35	5 8
	19 32	12 30	7 8
	20 103	13 40	8 8
	21 90	14 29	9 15
	22 72	15 9	10 13
	23 75	17 23	11 14
	24 35	18 15	12 6
	25 38	19 20	14 3
	27 29	20 10	15 12
	28 71	21 23	16 23
	29 43	24 18	17 11
	30 34	26 19	18 11
		27 11	19 10
	1158	28 6	21 3
		29 7	22 14
Dec. 1	28	31 4	23 13
3	14		24 11
4	56		25 21
5	44		26 12
Jan. 28	—	Feb. 16 7	Mar. 7 1
29	4	18 —	8 —
30	11	19 7	9 5
31	5	20 8	11 —
		21 —	12 —
	245	22 8	13 6
		23 2	14 13
Feb. 1	14	24 2	16 4
2	13	25 8	18 4
4	4	26 —	19 3
5	3	27 7	20 4
6	19	28 4	21 1
7	28		22 6
8	10		23 —
9	4		24 —
11	9	Mar. 1 4	25 —
12	14	2 1	26 1
13	13	4 10	
14	10	5 10	81
15	11	6 8	

Applications received at—

Corporation Baths . . .	871
District Police Offices . . .	805
C.O.S., . . .	196
Labour Bureau . . .	338
73 John Street . . .	30

Nov. 1158	
Dec. 551	
Jan. 245	
Feb. 205	
Mar. 81	
2240	

2240

APPENDIX No. II. (A.)—Continued.

Handed in by Mr. James Ferguson, Glasgow (Q. 90115 (13)).

TABLE III.

GLASGOW DISTRESS COMMITTEE.

STATEMENT of number of Applications dealt with by the Employment Committee, and showing previous Applications.

1906-7.	
Of the number granted work—	
148 had applied to the unemployed in previous years	148
93 had applied to the parish in previous years	93
	241
Of the number refused work—	
45 had applied to the unemployed in previous years	45
23 had applied to the parish in previous years	23
	68
Of the number not at committee—	
69 had applied to the unemployed in previous years	69
31 had applied to the parish in previous years	31
	100

TABLE IV.

GLASGOW DISTRESS COMMITTEE.

1906-7.

Residence of Applicants.

Private dwellings	2136
Model lodgings	49
Outwith city boundary	14
Females	21
Under investigation	20
	2240

Condition of Applicants.

Married men	1681
Widows	190
Single men	348
Females	21
	2240

From Models.

Married men	10
Single Men	13
Widowers	6
	29

TABLE V.

GLASGOW DISTRESS COMMITTEE.

1906-7.

Ages of Applicants.

Number under 20 years of age,	166
" 20 years and under 30	500
" 30 " " 40	802
" 40 " " 50	404
" 50 " " 60	265
" 60 " upwards,	103
	2240

Dependants of Applicants.

Number of applicants with 1 dependant,	465
" 2 " "	500
" 3 " "	459
" 4 " "	334
" 5 " "	210
" 6 " "	90
" 7 " "	54
" 0 " "	108
	2240

TABLE VI.

GLASGOW DISTRESS COMMITTEE.

RETURN showing Number and Occupation of those who made Application for Relief Work to Unemployed, 1906-7.

General labourers in factories, etc.	608
Builders' and contractors' labourers	242
Foundry, engineer, and shipyard labourers	121
Quay and sawmill labourers, coal carriers	118
Miscellaneous workers—(see analysis)	424
Tradesmen—(see analysis)	686
Females—(see analysis)	21
Under investigation	20
	2240

TABLE VII.

GLASGOW DISTRESS COMMITTEE.

ANALYSIS of Occupations of Tradesmen who applied for Assistance.

1906-7.

Bricklayers	12	Miners	2
Brushmakers	5	Metalpolishers	4
Bootfinishers	8	Miller	1
Boilermakers	9	Nailmaker	1
Bottleblowers	8	Printers	6
Bakers	7	Painters	138
Beltmakers	6	Potterworkers	4
Brassfinishers	6	Packing and tin case makers	16
Butchers	6	Plumbers	5
Brassmoulders	10	Patternfiler	1
Clerks	18	Quarrymen	4
Confectioner	1	Rivetmakers	3
Coppersmiths	10	Riveters	14
Coachpainters	4	Shoemakers	12
Cabinetmakers	5	Slaters	8
Corkcutters	3	Shipcarpenters	6
Chimney sweeps	2	Smiths	7
Drawing-paper makers	2	Steeldressers	3
Enginefitters	12	Slippermakers	2
Gratebuilders	5	Shuttlemakers	3
Gardeners	9	Sailmaker	1
Glassmakers	2	Sawyers	24
Glasscarvers	3	Tobacco-pipe makers	14
Hookmakers	2	Tinsmiths	15
Hotpressers	2	Toolsmiths	3
Ham curers	2	Tailors	7
Irongrinders	4	Tilelayers	2
Irondrillers	13	Tubeworkers	2
Ironsawyers	4	Tinplateworkers	2
Ironroofers	7	Tobaccospinner	1
Ironborers	5	Upholsterers	4
Joiners	23	Venetian-blind maker	1
Keelbuilder	1	Woodturners	3
Lathsplitter	1	Wireworkers	4
Mechanics	6	Wirefencers	4
Masons	57	Weaver	1
Moulders	51		
Miscellaneous	24		
Muslincutters	3		687

TABLE VIII.

GLASGOW DISTRESS COMMITTEE.

ANALYSIS of Occupations of Miscellaneous Workers who applied for assistance.

1906-7.

Asphalters	13	Irondressers	28
Aerated-water bottler	1	Jarwashers	2
Boatman	1	Lamptrimmers	2
Billiard-table maker	1	Mattressmakers	10
Carters, vanmen, etc.	63	Milk salesmen	2
Coalcarriers	4	Polishers	10
Circular deliverers	3	Porters	16
Caulkers	3	Paviors	20
Coachmen	7	Paintgrinders	3
Cement step finisher	1	Packers	5
Cattledrovers	1	Redleaders	3
Enginekeepers	7	Rivetheaters	3
Enginemen	4	Shipcooks	6
Embroiderer	1	Stablemen	7
Electric-hoist attendant	1	Stonebreakers	6
Foundry warehousemen	3	Saltheater	1
Firemen, stokers, etc.	45	Sagar boiler	1
Finishers (iron)	3	Sandpaperers	3
Fruitdealer	1	Sizers	3
Greenkeeper	1	Spirit salesmen	2
Hammermen	69	Waiters	5
Holder-on	6	Watchmen	21
Holeborers	3	Warehousemen	5
Hawkers	15	Window cleaners	3
			424

TABLE IX.

GLASGOW DISTRESS COMMITTEE.

Analysis of Certificate Circulars sent out to Employers re Applications for Work, 1906-7.

Number of Circulars sent out,	1,885
" returned,	1,464
Certified:—	
Dull trade, reduction of staff, etc.	864
Left of own accord	151

APPENDIX No. II. (A.)—continued.

Handed in by Mr. James Ferguson, Glasgow (Q. 90115 (13)).

TABLE IX.—continued.

Bad time-keeping	31
Unsteadiness, drink, etc.	59
Unsuitable and incompetent	12
Accidents and illness	33
Insubordination	6
Arrestments against wages	6
Disputes with Foremen	17
Restarted work	42
No trace by employer	87
Returned without remarks	59
Too old	3
Mental aberration	1
Strikes	47
Temporary workers	20
Left employ long time	26
Number of circulars not returned	421

— 1885

Showing how long unemployed :—

Number who have been unemployed 1 month	918
" " 2 "	565
" " 3 "	273
" " 4 "	180
" " 5 "	110
" " 6 and over	174

Under investigation 20

(21 females included.)

Showing how long in last employment :—

Under 1 month	643
1 month and under 3	392
3 " 6	403
6 " 9	310
9 " 12	420
12 " over	52

(21 females included.)

Under investigation 20

— 2240

TABLE X.

GLASGOW DISTRESS COMMITTEE.

RETURN showing the Number of Men working daily on the Unemployed Relief Works from 19th November 1906, until 26th March, 1907.

Westerhill.		Robroyston.	Coplawhill.	Total.
Date.	No. of Men.	No. of Men.	No. of Men.	
Nov.				
Mon. 19	32	—	—	32
Tues. 20	32	—	—	32
Wed. 21	32	—	—	32
Thur. 22	31	—	—	31
Fri. 23	65	—	—	65
Sat. 24	64	—	—	64
Mon. 26	88	—	—	88
Tues. 27	87	—	—	87
Wed. 28	85	—	—	85
Thur. 29	110	—	—	110
Fri. 30	111	—	—	111
Dec.				
Sat. 1	111	—	—	111
Mon. 3	149	—	—	149
Tues. 4	148	—	—	148
Wed. 5	151	—	—	151
Thur. 6	185	—	—	185
Fri. 7	187	—	—	187
Sat. 8	182	—	—	182
Mon. 10	224	—	—	224
Tues. 11	221	—	—	221
Wed. 12	228	—	—	228
Thur. 13	259	—	—	259
Fri. 14	263	—	—	263
Sat. 15	265	—	—	265
Mon. 17	295	—	—	295
Tues. 18	293	—	—	293
Wed. 19	301	—	—	301
Thur. 20	308	20	—	328
Fri. 21	315	20	—	335
Sat. 22	322	20	—	342
Mon. 24	293	20	—	313
Tues. 25	290	20	—	310
Wed. 26	283	20	—	303
Thur. 27	298	20	—	318
Fri. 28	320	20	—	340
Sat. 29	339	20	—	359
Mon. 31	301	44	—	345

TABLE X.—continued.

Westerhill.		Robroyston.	Coplawhill.	Total.
Date.	No. of Men.	No. of Men.	No. of Men.	
Jan.				
Tues. 1	257	39	43	339
Wed. 2	276	34	48	358
Thur. 3	241	32	44	317
Fri. 4	250	37	48	335
Sat. 5	260	37	48	345
Mon. 7	280	35	52	367
Tues. 8	293	37	43	373
Wed. 9	301	37	41	379
Thur. 10	308	36	41	385
Fri. 11	315	34	39	388
Sat. 12	323	38	41	402
Mon. 14	276	61	40	377
Tues. 15	293	62	38	393
Wed. 16	314	58	38	410
Thur. 17	335	56	37	428
Fri. 18	336	61	37	434
Sat. 19	337	60	38	435
Mon. 21	287	54	39	380
Tues. 22	293	48	36	377
Wed. 23	302	53	38	393
Thur. 24	310	53	36	399
Fri. 25	313	57	38	408
Sat. 26	312	56	39	407
Mon. 28	306	50	35	391
Tues. 29	306	51	35	392
Wed. 30	324	50	39	413
Thur. 31	329	56	40	425
Feb.				
Fri. 1	333	57	41	431
Sat. 2	333	55	41	429
Mon. 4	292	47	34	373
Tues. 5	295	49	36	380
Wed. 6	309	49	37	395
Thur. 7	327	51	36	414
Fri. 8	338	54	37	429
Sat. 9	343	53	36	432
Mon. 11	304	49	34	387
Tues. 12	316	49	35	400
Wed. 13	325	51	37	413
Thur. 14	331	50	38	419
Fri. 15	346	49	37	432
Sat. 16	344	52	37	433
Mon. 18	312	50	33	395
Tues. 19	331	48	36	415
Wed. 20	349	49	34	432
Thur. 21	347	51	36	434
Fri. 22	358	46	36	440
Sat. 23	357	47	35	439
Mon. 25	307	45	32	384
Tues. 26	314	45	34	393
Wed. 27	334	44	35	413
Thur. 28	356	44	36	436
Mar.				
Fri. 1	358	43	36	437
Sat. 2	357	45	36	438
Mon. 4	301	37	35	373
Tues. 5	339	42	34	415
Wed. 6	349	39	35	423
Thur. 7	359	39	35	433
Fri. 8	363	43	35	441
Sat. 9	363	44	35	442
Mon. 11	315	41	32	388
Tues. 12	349	41	31	421
Wed. 13	351	41	31	423
Thur. 14	362	40	32	434
Fri. 15	370	41	33	444
Sat. 16	369	41	33	443
Mon. 18	336	34	27	397
Tues. 19	344	37	27	408
Wed. 20	347	37	25	409
Thur. 21	346	36	28	410
Fri. 22	353	34	30	420
Sat. 23	357	36	30	423
Mon. 25	294	31	27	352
Tues. 26	308	29	28	365
Wed. 27	314	32	30	376
Thur. 28	323	34	31	388
Fri. 29	324	35	32	391
Sat. 30	324	35	32	391

APPENDIX No. II. (A.)—continued.

Handed in by Mr. James Ferguson, Glasgow (Q. 90115(13)).

TABLE XI.

GLASGOW DISTRESS COMMITTEE.

APPLICATIONS from FEMALES, 13th November, 1906 to 26th March, 1907.

Total Number of Applications.	Condition.			Occupation.								Total.
	Single.	Married.	Widows.	Charwomen.	Winder.	Shop-keeper.	Pottery-worker.	Tailoresses.	House-keeper.	Farm-workers.	Paper Bag Maker.	
21	5	10	6	12	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	21

- 4 Were married, whose husbands were working.
- 4 Were deserted by husbands; cases for the Parish Council.
- 1 Married woman, whose husband had already been working at Westerhill.
- 1 Applied as a single woman, but married; refused to give particulars.
- 1 Single female. Reported lazy and bad. Been in Lock Hospital.
- 1 Single female. Done no work for six years. Keeping house. Wants situation in an office.
- 1 Single female. Two illegitimate children; putative father paying for them.
- 1 Widow, presently in receipt of parish relief.
- 1 Widow, has a family able to support her.
- 1 Visited three times—not seen—son assisting her.
- 1 Applied to the parish, and offered admission to hospital in respect of age and unfitness for work.
- 1 Had been working two months prior to visit.
- 3 Not found when visited.

TABLE No. XII.

GLASGOW DISTRESS COMMITTEE.

Number refused work.

TABLE SHOWING CAUSES OF REFUSAL.

In respect of being single with no dependants	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	50
" " physically unfit	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	36
" " temporary unemployed	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	16
" " assisted by friends, etc.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8
" " subject to fits (epileptic)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
" " in receipt of parish relief	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
" " recently in prison and wife deserters	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8
" " in receipt of pension	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
" drinking habits	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	16
" not having the residential qualifications	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	15
" income from family	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	13
" age and referred to parish	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	22
" giving false information	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
Total	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	193

TABLE No. XIII.

GLASGOW PARISH COUNCIL.

TYPICAL CASES OF IMPROVIDENCE.

A/10274. R. H., 29 years, a plumber, certified "tuberculosis," wife 28 years, married 27/8/97, 4 children, off work 3 months, earned 34s. per week prior, in no society, rent £12 10s. per year, he admitted to Stobhill Hospital and wife placed on roll at 12s. per week.

A/9013. J. M'C., 36 years, a moulder, certified "Bright's disease," wife 32 years, married, 4 children, off work 2 months, earned 30s. to 34s. per week, in no society, rent 12s. per month, one apartment, he in Royal Infirmary, wife placed on roll at 12s. per week.

A/9901. J. C., 34 years, a furnaceman, certified "neurasthenia," wife 33 years, married 1894, 7 children, eldest in hospital, off work 12 months, earned when working 30s. per week, in no society, rent £10 10s., two apartments, he in hospital and granted 18s.

A/9952. J. C., 48 years, a mason, certified "phthisis,"

wife 47 years, married 31/12/83, 8 children, 3 working, earning 21s. per week, off work 12 months, earned 9d. per hour, in no society, rent £8 8s., two apartments, he in hospital and wife placed on roll at 10s. per week.

A/8830. A. W., 33 years, a mason, certified "rheumatism," wife 33 years, married 24/4/96, 6 children, off work 3 months, earned prior 9d. per hour, in no society, rent £9 19s. per year, he in Stobhill Hospital and wife placed on roll at 12s. per week.

A/10238. A. M'N., 36 years, a boilermaker, wife 34 years, married 17/10/90, 4 children, off work 5 weeks, earned 35s. per week, rent 17s. 1d. per month, in no sick benefit society, husband dead, funeral society £5 2s. 6d., widow placed on roll at 10s. per week.

A/10186. S. A., 34 years, single, blacksmith, sent to hospital, "itch."

APPENDIX No. II. (B.)

Handled in by Mr. James Ferguson, Glasgow (Q. 90356).

A number of the persons assisted to emigrate have departed from the country owing rent. Not only so, but they have departed leaving the factor to understand that the rent would be paid by the distress committee or by the Salvation Army. Numerous letters have been received from house factors stating that they understand that the committee is paying the rent, and asking for a remittance. Similar applications on similar grounds have been made by collectors for police and poor rates.

By special request, and for the information of the committee the following notes of the history since landing in Canada, of the persons assisted by the committee to emigrate have been transmitted by the Canadian officers of the Salvation Army, viz :—

Record No. 33a.—Sailed 20th April, 1907.

Sent to a farmer, Mr. George Julian, Vellore, P.O. Railway Station, Maple, who offered \$230'00 per year and free house and garden. Returned to Toronto and reported that he could not find the place. Obtained a situation with the Canadian Shipbuilding Company, Toronto, at \$1'50 per day, with promise of something better. A rivetter by trade. This family is above the average—two nice children. Wife tired and somewhat discouraged, but when children grow will be able to take work. Wife is a seamstress. They will get on well in this country. Loaned them an additional \$10'00. Rooming at 88, George Street, Toronto. Have asked an officer to visit them.

Record No. 30a.—Sailed 20th April, 1907.

This family was sent to Mr. R. Crookshanks, farmer, of Beamsville, and on arrival discovered that Mr. Crookshanks had been compelled to engage help elsewhere, and unfortunately did not notify us to this effect, although we make every provision in this respect. It appears that Mr. Crookshanks secured another situation for this man at \$200'00 per year, with free house and garden. This was refused, and—brought his family to Toronto, where we provided him with temporary accommodation at the "Newcomers Inn," and introduced him to the Canada Shipbuilding Company, who promised to give him a suitable situation. He is a boilermaker.

Record No. 1a.—Sailed 16th March, 1907.

Sent to farmer, Mr. John Bryant, Laurel, Ontario. Writes—"I am pleased to say that I can find no fault with my place, the people are very nice to me, and I hope everybody that comes out will be as fortunate."

Record No. 3a.—Sailed 16th March, 1907.

A situation as general labourer was procured for this man at the Gurney Foundry, Toronto, at \$1'40 to \$2'00 per day. I understand that he left this position for a better one. He is still in Toronto, and should be successful in this country.

Record No. 5a.—Sailed 6th April, 1907.

Sent to a farmer, R. M. Van Luven, of Kingston, but apparently misunderstood their directions, and applied to our representative, Adjutant Sims, of Kingston, who arranged to get him a position in the town, where work is plentiful. Our officer will render every assistance.

Record No. 10a.—Sailed 6th April, 1907.

Sent to Kingston, where suitable employment has been found by our officer in locomotive work at \$1'45 per day. Our officer writes :—"I can find work for all able-bodied men who come my way, so long as they do not require me to take them to my own home in an automobile or expect a furnished house awaiting them. I can supply work and direct to lodgings." An additional sum of \$5'00 advanced for house furnishings.

Record No. 43a.—Sailed 4th May, 1907.

At Kingston. Employed by Mr. Rankin, builder, at \$1'50 per day. Secured a boarding-house—temporary accommodation. Wants to go to Hamilton, but has been persuaded to remain where he is until he gets on his feet. Should succeed in this country.

Record No. 29a.—Sailed 20th April, 1907.

In Toronto, address 172 Spadina Avenue, working for M'Williams, contractors on William Street, at 20 cents per hour. If industrious, has opportunity of bettering his position. Gave his family financial assistance on arrival in Toronto.

Record No. 27a.—Sailed 20th April, 1907.

Working at the Canadian Shipbuilding Company, Toronto, as a rivetter. This firm has some large contracts on hand, and he should be all right here. Has rooms at 172, Spadina Avenue. Gave this family also some financial assistance.

Record No. 8a.—Sailed 30th March, 1907.

Sent to Montreal, where our representative has secured work and suitable accommodation.

Record No. 13a.—Sailed 20th April, 1907.

Sent to Mr. John Cartwright (farmer) Zimmerman, Ontario, Railway Station, Ash, Ontario, who offers \$240'00 per year with house and firing.

Record No. 16a.—Sailed 30th March, 1907.

Present address 488, Clement Avenue, Toronto. Being a mason by trade he will find plenty of work in the city at a good rate of wage, and is likely to do well.

Record No. 22a.—Sailed 13th April, 1907.

Reported at Halifax and booked through to London, Ontario, on his own responsibility. He did not ask our assistance in regard to employment. Will get further particulars of this family.

Record No. 2a.—Sailed 30th March, 1907.

This man has found employment with the Hamilton Steel and Iron Works, Hamilton, Ontario, where he can be employed all the year round, and, if a good, industrious, man will be able to make a home for his family after a little while.

Record No. 17a.—Sailed 13th April, 1907.

Reported at Halifax and booked through to Montreal on his own responsibility. He did not ask our assistance to find employment.

Record No. 28a.—Sailed 13th April, 1907.

Sent to Mr. W. Plunkett, City View, Ontario, who offered \$20'00 per month for experienced man, and \$10'00 a month for wife to do general house work. House rent and firing free.

Record No. 32a.—Sailed 20th April, 1907.

Booked through to Cape Rouche on his own responsibility.

Record No. 18a.—Sailed 13th April, 1907.

This man has found employment at his trade (stone-cutter), with Mr. G. Rice, of Bear River, N.S. Mr. Rice runs a large monumental work, and employs a number of men all the year round. The wages paid are from \$2'00 to \$2'25 per day. House rent and living are very cheap. I have no doubt if he is a good workman that he will soon be able to get a comfortable home for his family.

APPENDIX No. II. (B.)—*Continued.**Handed in by Mr. James Ferguson, Glasgow (Q. 90356).**Record No. 19a.—Sailed 20th April, 1907.*

Booked through to Oshawa, and is now working at the malleable iron works at that place.

Record No. 9a.—Sailed 30th March, 1907.

This man was sent to a butcher, James Vanstone, of Chatham, N.B., who offered \$240'00 per year, with house. As he was a butcher by trade, I have no doubt but what he will succeed.

Record No. 23a.—Sailed 13th April, 1907.

Reported at Halifax and booked through to Hamilton on his own account. In all probability he had friends there, as he did not require our assistance to obtain work.

Record No. 7a.—Sailed 6th April, 1907.

Sent to a farmer, J. F. Lusk, Heyworth, Que., who promised to pay \$20'00 per month, house and firing free, also could employ wife in her spare time.

Record No. 31a.—Sailed 20th April, 1907.

This man was sent through to Winnipeg, for Major Creighton to place. As yet we have not had a report, but it will be forwarded as soon as received.

Record No. 20a.—Sailed 20th April, 1907.

Booked to Oshawa. Is now working at the malleable iron works at Oshawa.

Record No. 6a.—Sailed 6th April, 1907.

Reported at Halifax and booked to London, Ont. Did not require our assistance, as he had friends at that place.

Having regard to the brief time which has elapsed since the emigration of the families assisted, it would scarcely be fair to venture any opinion on even the prospect of success in the majority of the cases; and the foregoing notes are only submitted as the best obtainable on very short notice.

APPENDIX No. II. (C.)

Handed in by Mr. James Ferguson, Glasgow (Q. 90476).

RETURN showing the average rate of Wages of men chargeable in Hospital whose wives were in receipt of Outdoor Relief, with their respective occupations.

AVERAGE RATE OF WAGES.

15/- to 20/- per week.	20/- to 25/- per week.	25/- to 30/- per week.	30/- to 35/- per week.	35/- and over per week.	Not ascertained.	Total.
35	34	29	21	19	46	184

OCCUPATIONS.

Blacksmiths	-	-	2	Draper	-	-	1	Masons	-	-	4	Ship fireman	-	-	1
Bricklayer	-	-	1	Engine fitters	-	-	7	Motor man	-	-	1	Storekeeper	-	-	1
Brassmoulders	-	-	2	Gasfitters	-	-	2	Machinemen	-	-	4	Spirit salesmen	-	-	3
Basketmaker	-	-	1	Hawkers	-	-	3	Metal polisher	-	-	1	Spindle grinder	-	-	1
Butcher	-	-	1	Irondressers	-	-	4	Marble cutter	-	-	1	Undertaker	-	-	1
Bottleblower	-	-	1	Irongrinder	-	-	1	Painters	-	-	2	Vanman	-	-	1
Cycle maker	-	-	1	Iron platers	-	-	3	Quarryman	-	-	1	Waiters	-	-	3
Carters	-	-	7	Joiners	-	-	6	Railway servants	-	-	3	Foundry labourers	-	-	12
Coal carriers	-	-	2	Lemonade salesman	-	-	1	Tailors	-	-	4	Quay	-	-	8
Cab drivers	-	-	2	Lamplighters	-	-	2	Stocking maker	-	-	1	General	-	-	62
Crane driver	-	-	1	Miner	-	-	1	Shopkeepers	-	-	2	Barber	-	-	1
Cartwrights	-	-	2	Moulders	-	-	9	Seamen	-	-	3				

NOTE.—Of the above number, two stated they were members of a friendly society.

APPENDIX No. II. (D.)

Handed in by Mr. James Ferguson, Glasgow (Q. 90479).

The class of cases I refer to are working men and householders who, being ill, apply to the parish for assistance; some may have been a few days off work while others may have been months. All are medically examined on application, but it is only in cases where a certificate as to unfitness for work that outdoor relief is recommended.

Where the assistant inspector considers that hospital treatment is necessary it is the practice to offer the husband admission to one of our hospitals and to grant outdoor relief to his family while he remains a patient; the said offer is generally sanctioned by the relief committee. By this arrangement not only is the head of the house benefited but his family are thus allowed the full benefit of the aliment.

APPENDIX No. III. (A).

Handed in by Messrs. Watson and Crowther. (Q. 90622(2).)

CLASSIFICATION OF TRADES AND OCCUPATIONS OF ALL APPLICANTS ON REGISTER, NOVEMBER 1ST, 1905, TO SEPTEMBER 12TH, 1906.

<i>Building Trades.</i>	
Architect - - - - -	1
Asphalter - - - - -	1
Brick burners - - - - -	8
Brick drawer - - - - -	1
Bricklayers - - - - -	28
Brick setters - - - - -	2
Cabinet maker - - - - -	1
Carpenters - - - - -	6
Joiners - - - - -	21
Labourers (plumber's) - - - - -	1
„ (builder's) - - - - -	14
„ (mason's) - - - - -	28
„ (joiner's) - - - - -	4
„ (painter's) - - - - -	3
„ (plasterer's) - - - - -	12
„ (slater's) - - - - -	1
Masons - - - - -	82
Painters - - - - -	39
Paperhanger - - - - -	1
Paviors - - - - -	7
Pipelayer - - - - -	1
Plasterers - - - - -	28
Plumbers - - - - -	4
Quarrymen - - - - -	17
Sawyers - - - - -	2
Slaters - - - - -	5
Turners (wood) - - - - -	4
Total - - - - -	322

<i>Metal and Engineering Trades.</i>	
Blacksmiths - - - - -	6
Boilermakers - - - - -	3
Boltmakers - - - - -	3
Borer - - - - -	1
Brassmoulder - - - - -	1
Coachsmith - - - - -	1
Combmaker - - - - -	1
Coppersmith - - - - -	1
Drillers - - - - -	2
Electricians - - - - -	4
Farriers - - - - -	2
Fettlers - - - - -	2
Fitters - - - - -	6
Forgemen - - - - -	2
Engineers - - - - -	2
Grinders - - - - -	4
Ironworkers - - - - -	5
Ironmoulders - - - - -	7
Millwright - - - - -	1
Labourers (mechanic's) - - - - -	9
„ (moulder's) - - - - -	1
„ (fitter's) - - - - -	1
Mechanics - - - - -	7
Motor man - - - - -	1
Pinmaker - - - - -	1
Platelayers - - - - -	6
Puddler - - - - -	1
Sawyer - - - - -	1
Strikers (smith's) - - - - -	3
Tinsmith - - - - -	1
Whitesmiths - - - - -	5
Wiremen - - - - -	2
Total - - - - -	93

<i>Textile Trades.</i>	
Beam setters - - - - -	3
Cotton twiners - - - - -	2
Dyer - - - - -	1
Grease extractors - - - - -	2
Labourers (dyer's) - - - - -	34
Millhands - - - - -	65
Overlookers - - - - -	5
Packer - - - - -	1
Percher - - - - -	1

Presser - - - - -	1
Spindle maker - - - - -	1
Spinners - - - - -	3
Warehousemen - - - - -	20
„ (wool) - - - - -	9
Warpdressers - - - - -	2
Warpwister - - - - -	1
Weavers - - - - -	2
Weftman - - - - -	1
Woolcombers - - - - -	180
Woolwashers - - - - -	8
Woolpacker - - - - -	1
Waste puller - - - - -	1
Woolsorters - - - - -	6
Yarn driers - - - - -	3
„ finishers - - - - -	6
Total - - - - -	359

<i>Labourers (General) and Outdoor Workers.</i>	
Labourers (general) - - - - -	1,118
„ (farm) - - - - -	10
Drivers - - - - -	81
Total - - - - -	1,209

<i>Miscellaneous Trades.</i>	
Artist - - - - -	1
Baker - - - - -	1
Boots - - - - -	1
Bootmakers - - - - -	3
Boot repairers - - - - -	1
Bottlers (beer) - - - - -	4
Brushmaker - - - - -	1
Butchers - - - - -	5
Boarding-house keeper - - - - -	1
Casemakers - - - - -	3
Caretaker - - - - -	1
Car driver - - - - -	1
„ conductors - - - - -	3
„ coverer - - - - -	1
Chairmakers - - - - -	4
Clerks - - - - -	5
Coach fitter - - - - -	1
Cordmaker - - - - -	1
Corn miller - - - - -	1
Dyer and cleaner - - - - -	1
Engine driver (loco.) - - - - -	1
Ex-policeman - - - - -	1
Firers - - - - -	29
French polishers - - - - -	4
Gardeners - - - - -	6
Glass cutter - - - - -	1
Grocers - - - - -	3
Grooms - - - - -	3
Hairdresser - - - - -	1
Hawkers - - - - -	7
Ice-cream vendors - - - - -	3
Labourers (printer's) - - - - -	3
Miners - - - - -	17
Porters (out) - - - - -	8
Printer - - - - -	1
Ropemaker - - - - -	1
Sandpaperer - - - - -	1
Schoolmaster - - - - -	1
Steeple-jack - - - - -	1
Shop assistant - - - - -	1
Tailors - - - - -	6
Tailors' pressers - - - - -	3
Twine twister - - - - -	1
Upholsterer - - - - -	1
Waiters - - - - -	2
Wheelwrights - - - - -	3
Window blind maker - - - - -	1
Wood machinist - - - - -	1
Total - - - - -	151

APPENDIX N° III (D)

Handed in by Mess^{rs} Watson & Crowther (Q 90676)

REFERENCE

Number of Men engaged on Test Work at the Bradford Union Hospital and Daisy Hill Test House during 1904, 5, and 6.

Shewn thus ———

Number of Men engaged by the Corporation from the Register of the Joint, Unemployed Committee during 1904 and 5.

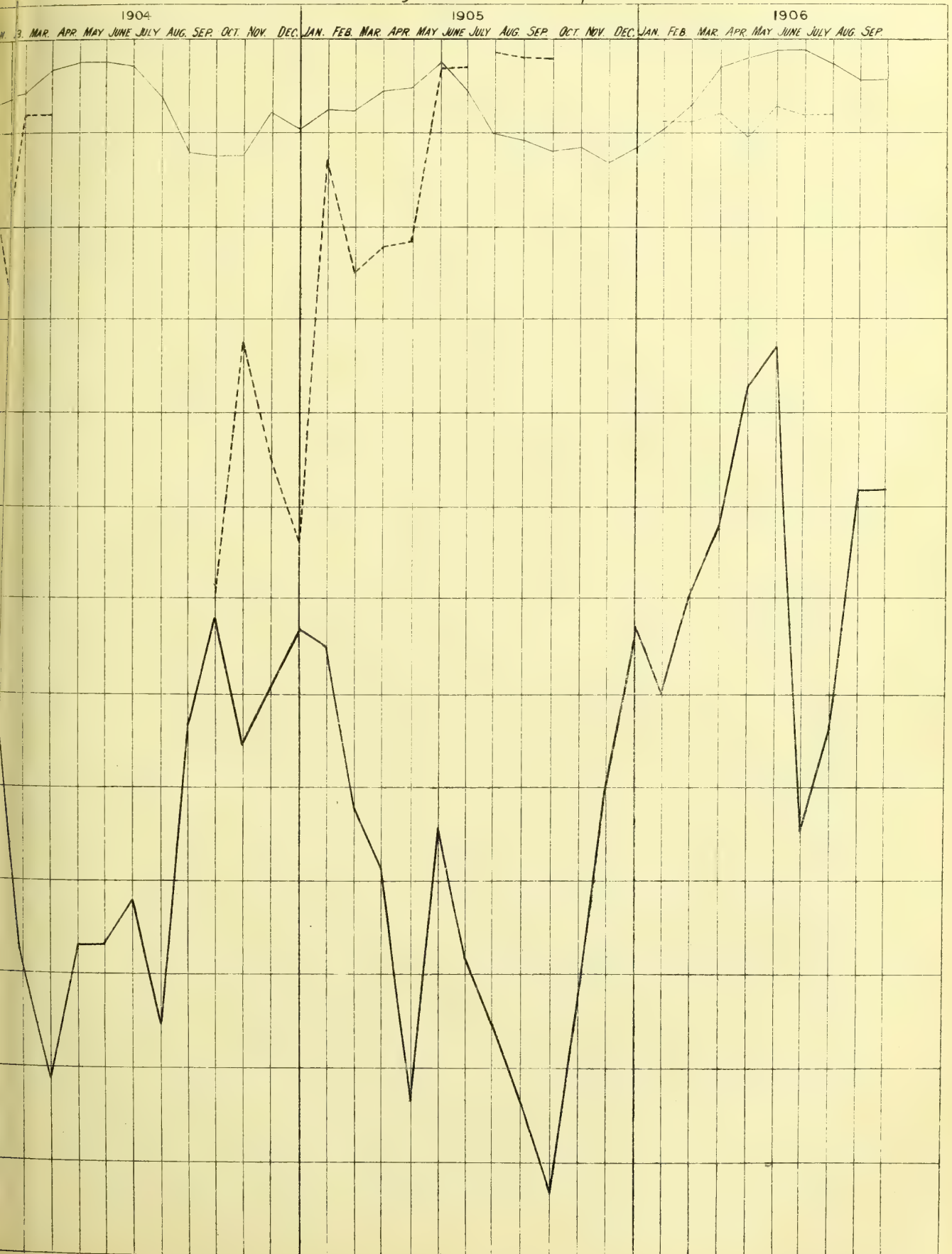
" -----

Number of Men engaged by the Street Drainage and Works Department of the Corporation during 1904, 5 and 6.

" ———

Number of Men engaged by the Distress Committee during 1906.

" -----



APPENDIX No. III. (E.).

Handed in by Messrs. Watson and Crowther. (Q. 9697.)

SUMMARY OF UNEMPLOYED REGISTER.

NOVEMBER 1ST, 1905, TO NOVEMBER 30TH, 1906.		DECEMBER 1ST, 1906, TO SEPTEMBER 21ST, 1907.	
Total registered	- 2,230	Total registered	- 1,321
<i>Not Eligible for Employment.</i>		<i>Not Eligible for Employment.</i>	
Been in receipt of relief (Poor Law)	- 29	Indifferent characters	- 75
Insufficient residence	- 27	Been in receipt of relief (Poor Law)	- 25
Sufficient income	- 26	Sufficient income	- 16
Indifferent character	- 23	Insufficient residence	- 5
Unfit (physically)	- 23	Wrong information	- 5
Refused work	- 6	Unfit (physically)	- 4
Refused information	- 2	Refused work	- 2
Wrong information	- 2	Referred to guardians	- 1
Referred to City Guild of Help	- 1		
Referred to guardians	- 21	Total	- 133
Total	- 160		
Had found work or removed	- 738	Had found work or removed	- 735
		Recurrent cases, 1906-7	- 521

APPENDIX No. III. (F).

Handed in by Messrs. Watson and Crowther. (Q. 90770.)

CITY OF BRADFORD.

WORKS DEPARTMENTS.

RETURN AS TO THE NUMBER OF MEN EMPLOYED WEEKLY FROM JANUARY 1ST, 1904, TO DECEMBER 31ST, 1906.

Date.		Total.	Date.		Total.
1904.			1904.		
Week ending :—			Week ending :—		
January	6th	- - - - 576	July	6th	- - - - 904
"	13th	- - - - 594	"	13th	- - - - 911
"	20th	- - - - 528	"	20th	- - - - 892
"	27th	- - - - 680	"	27th	- - - - 903
February	3rd	- - - - 634	August	3rd	- - - - 868
"	10th	- - - - 646	"	10th	- - - - 1,032
"	17th	- - - - 673	"	17th	- - - - 1,051
"	24th	- - - - 710	"	24th	- - - - 1,045
March	2nd	- - - - 758	"	31st	- - - - 957
"	9th	- - - - 813	September	7th	- - - - 736
"	16th	- - - - 922	"	14th	- - - - 732
"	23rd	- - - - 977	"	21st	- - - - 605
"	30th	- - - - 930	"	28th	- - - - 572
April	6th	- - - - 886	October	5th	- - - - 577
"	13th	- - - - 1,118	"	12th	- - - - 570
"	20th	- - - - 1,095	"	19th	- - - - 575
"	27th	- - - - 1,056	"	26th	- - - - 621
May	4th	- - - - 971	November	2nd	- - - - 683
"	11th	- - - - 919	"	9th	- - - - 655
"	18th	- - - - 894	"	16th	- - - - 759
"	25th	- - - - 856	"	23rd	- - - - 686
June	1st	- - - - 823	"	30th	- - - - 643
"	8th	- - - - 811	December	7th	- - - - 687
"	15th	- - - - 912	"	14th	- - - - 689
"	22nd	- - - - 963	"	21st	- - - - 683
"	29th	- - - - 898	"	28th	- - - - 626

APPENDIX No. III. (F)—*continued.**Handed in by Messrs. Watson and Crowther. (Q. 90770.)*

Date.		Total.	Date.		Total.
1905.			1905.		
Week ending :—			Week ending :—		
January	4th	630	November	22nd	730
"	11th	626	"	29th	713
"	18th	555	December	6th	788
"	25th	605	"	13th	761
February	1st	587	"	20th	770
"	8th	610	"	27th	695
"	15th	649	1906.		
"	22nd	590	January	3rd	613
March	1st	567	"	10th	597
"	8th	598	"	17th	609
"	15th	597	"	24th	596
"	22nd	661	"	31st	624
"	29th	815	February	7th	705
April	5th	828	"	14th	682
"	12th	828	"	21st	604
"	19th	888	"	28th	615
"	26th	685	March	7th	601
May	3rd	722	"	14th	584
"	10th	1,139	"	21st	559
"	17th	1,001	"	28th	551
"	24th	681	April	4th	515
"	31st	799	"	11th	517
June	7th	853	"	18th	412
"	14th	802	"	25th	428
"	21st	750	May	2nd	370
"	28th	724	"	9th	355
July	5th	818	"	16th	361
"	12th	983	"	23rd	322
"	19th	886	"	30th	304
"	26th	901	June	6th	297
August	2nd	895	"	13th	309
"	9th	1,018	"	20th	330
"	16th	878	"	27th	328
"	23rd	984	July	4th	312
"	30th	1,055	"	11th	317
September	6th	961	"	18th	714
"	13th	911	"	25th	849
"	20th	1,110	August	1st	735
"	27th	1,133	"	8th	518
October	4th	1,059	"	15th	434
"	11th	1,179	"	22nd	598
"	18th	1,235	"	29th	615
"	25th	1,209	September	5th	420
November	1st	1,021	"	12th	393
"	8th	734	"	19th	372
"	15th	673	"	26th	481

APPENDIX No. III. (G.)

Handed in by Messrs. Watson and Crowther. (Q. 90798.)

A Report of the Salvation Army as to the persons emigrated was read to the Committee on February 12th, 1907, as follows—

F. B. At Collingwood, Ontario. In steady employment, yet nothing has been paid on his loan account.

T. B. This man is at present in Owen Sound, Ontario. He is rather a smart fellow, but is very shiftless, and as a consequence does not get along well. He has not yet paid anything on his loan account.

J. J. This man was sent with his family to Arn-prior. He was altogether unsatisfactory, and spent all his time in the public-houses. Finally he cleared out and left his wife behind, and she became a public charge, and made it very hard for our work in the town. She was finally deported. Our agent reports that after what he saw of him he would not trust him with five cents.

J. E. S. Sent to Chatham, Ontario. Nothing has been remitted on loan account.

J. S. Went to Montreal on his own responsibility, and we have heard nothing from him since.

F. W. Address, Pembroke, Ontario. Nothing paid on loan.

W. C. This man is in good employment with the Pembroke Lumber Company. He has professed conversion since his coming to the country and is

uniting with the Army in Pembroke. He has paid ten dollars on his loan account.

H. B. Address, Jordan, Ontario. Nothing paid on loan.

J. C. Address, Pembroke, Ontario. Nothing paid on loan.

J. H. Address, Reaboro, Ontario. Nothing paid on loan.

W. L. We sent this man to a job at Shawanegan Falls, Quebec, but after five days' work he left his work, and the company, likewise ourselves, have heard nothing from him since.

J. H. Supposed to be at Hamilton, Ontario.

W. K. This man was sent to Pembroke, Ontario, but we have learnt that he left there and was supposed to have gone to Hamilton, Ontario. We have not received anything from him on his loan account.

T. R. This man is working in the Car Works, at Cobourg, Ontario. He has had rather a hard time of it since coming to the country, suffering from poor health. He writes to say how much he regrets that up to the present he has not been able to remit anything on his loan account.

R. P. This man and family were sent to a farmer at Jordan, Ontario. We wrote them two days afterwards, but the letter was returned with a note from the farmer stating that they had never reached there. We have not been able to locate them since.

APPENDIX No. IV. (A).

Handed in by Messrs. R. V. Broodbank and A. Evans Thorp. (Q. 91594 (ii.)).

ENTERED AT STATIONERS' HALL.

THE "MODERN" RENT CARD.

Showing at a glance exactly what the Tenant pays in Rent and what in Rates.

This Rent Card is used for houses rated from £8 to £24 per annum, but for every £1 difference in the amount at which the house is rated a different coloured card is used, and a separate card is available.

Name of Tenant

Address of Property

Notice in writing of at least a week must be given to terminate tenancy, and is to be sent to :—

or handed to the collector when calling. Such Notice can only be accepted subject to due delivery of all keys, and inspection of premises by Landlord or Agent.

Agent.

The Tenants' attention is particularly directed to the form of this Rent Card, which shows separately the Rent for the premises, and the Rates payable on those premises, for it must not be overlooked that :—

The Landlord acts as collector of the Rates to obviate the Tenant being troubled by the Rate collector.

The Rent and Rates together constitute the charge for the premises.

The Rent is a standing charge and unalterable except by agreement.

Watch your Rates. Watch your Ward Member. Watch the Actions of your Council and Board of Guardians.

COPYRIGHT.

Date.	Received by.	Rent of Premises as agreed.	Borough Rates as levied.	Weekly Total of Rent and Rates.
		£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Brought forward ...				
Rent 13 Weeks at	...	...		
Rates	...	...		
Total	...	...		
Paid	...	...		
Carried forward ...				

The House situate at

is let to Mr. on the terms for Rent and Rates as stated on the inside.

The Rates are imposed quarterly by the Borough Council, and include the demands of the Guardians, both Council and Guardians being duly elected by Burgesses, and it is to the interest of every Tenant to see that the members of the Council and Guardians carefully administer their Trust, for any rise in the Rates will be duly charged, and any fall allowed. Therefore, Tenants should see that business men, capable of careful administration, are duly elected to serve them on the Council and Guardians.

This House being rated at £8 per ann., the Local Rates will be collected with the Rent as follows :—

When Rate made amounts to	but does not exceed	The amount payable Weekly is	When Rate made amounts to	but does not exceed	The amount payable weekly is
per £ rateable value.			per £ rateable value.		
6/3	...	6/9 ... 1/0	11/8	...	12/2 ... 1/10
6/9	...	7/4 ... 1/1	12/2	...	12/9 ... 1/11
7/4	...	7/10 ... 1/2	12/9	...	13/3 ... 2/0
7/10	...	8/5 ... 1/3	13/3	...	13/10 ... 2/1
8/5	...	8/11 ... 1/4	13/10	...	14/4 ... 2/2
8/11	...	9/6 ... 1/5	14/4	...	14/11 ... 2/3
9/6	...	10/0 ... 1/6	14/11	...	15/5 ... 2/4
10/0	...	10/7 ... 1/7	15/5	...	16/0 ... 2/5
10/7	...	11/1 ... 1/8	16/0	...	16/6 ... 2/6
11/1	...	11/8 ... 1/9			

The Rates levied by the Borough Council are :—

s. d. in £

Quarter ending 31st Mar. do. 30th June do. 30th Sept. do. 31st Dec.

All Tenants have it in their power to vote in order that they may be suitably represented, and should do so if they wish their rates kept within bounds.

Then act in your own interest by seeing that the Rates are kept at the lowest possible figure.

You will then secure retrenchment with steady progress in your Borough.

APPENDIX No. IV. (B).

Handed in by Messrs. R. V. Broodbank and A. Evans Thorp. (Q. 91771.)

POPLAR BOROUGH MUNICIPAL ALLIANCE.
Central Offices and Committee Rooms,
25, Bow Road, London, E.
July 6th, 1908.
MR. R. G. DUFF,
Royal Commission on the Poor Laws and Relief of
Distress, Scotland House, Westminster, S.W.
Dear Sir,—I have your favour of 3rd inst., and in reply
feel that I cannot do better than to send an original
letter from the London County Council addressed to
the inmates of the Council Buildings in this Borough.
The case is clear, and the cause is distinctly set forth,
Yours faithfully,
POPLAR BOROUGH MUNICIPAL ALLIANCE,
R. V. BROODBANK,
General Secretary

LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL HOUSING DEPARTMENT.
23, Cockspur Street, S.W.
March 9th, 1907.
COUNCIL BUILDINGS.
Sir (or Madam),—I am directed by the Housing Com-
mittee to inform you that on and after Monday, April
1st, 1907, the rent of the tenement you now occupy
will be increased from 6s. 6d. to 7s. per week.
In connection with this increase, the Committee
desire me to point out to you that since the opening of
the Buildings in 1894, the rates (which together with
taxes and water rate are paid by the Council) have in-
creased from 7s. 7½d. to 12s. in the £, while the rents
have remained as originally fixed.
This notice is sent so that, should you not be prepared
to continue your tenancy at the increased rent, you may
have sufficient time to obtain accommodation elsewhere.
In due course the Superintendent will call upon you
with a new agreement,
Your obedient Servant,
S. G. BURGESS,
Housing Manager.
MR. CHAS. SHOWELL,
2, Council Buildings.

APPENDIX No. V. (A.).

(Handed in by Mr. Dye, on behalf of Firewood Trade Association. (Q. 91805 (29).)

LIST OF WOODCHOPPERS KNOWN TO HAVE BECOME INMATES OF WORKHOUSES, ETC.

Name.	Institution.	Name.	Institution.
G. Castle - - -	Church Army	R. Ballard - - -	Shoreditch Union
J. Kak - - -	"	— Fitzgerald - - -	" "
R. Mills - - -	"	G. Miles - - -	" "
H. Fowler - - -	"	W. Roberts - - -	Southwark "
W. Stevens - - -	"	E. Rigby - - -	" "
E. Tydeman - - -	"	E. Edlestone - - -	" "
A. Smith - - -	"	M. A. Edwards - - -	" "
D. Hare - - -	"	J. Hopwood - - -	Paddington "
E. Kelsey - - -	Fulham Union	H. Macintosh - - -	" "
— Guard - - -	Greenwich "	W. Maddison - - -	" "
G. Curtis - - -	Islington "	W. Robinson - - -	" "
H. Bowen - - -	" "	J. Neighbour - - -	" "
D. Sullivan - - -	" "	H. White - - -	" "
T. Garraty - - -	Bermondsey Union	W. Irving - - -	" "

APPENDIX No. V. (B.).

Handed in by Mr. C. G. Dye, on behalf of the Firewood Trade Association. (Q. 91854.)

19, Glyn Road, Homerton.

August 23rd, 1906.

Mr. C. Dye.

DEAR SIR,—No doubt you will be expecting to hear result of interview with Church Army. It did not exceed my expectations. Mr. Lovel, our chairman at Paddington, with myself, were appointed to attend. We did not see Colin F. Campbell, but had a lengthy conversation with Mr. Lloyd-Jones and another. As was to be expected, they talked matters over with us very pleasantly. They seem to think that the course they are pursuing in giving this work to the unemployed, etc., is quite as honourable as us looking after the interest of our members.

(1) Could we suggest any other employment to take its place?—We were not there to suggest as to what they should do.

(2) Would it meet with our approval if they, from time to time, employed all the out of work firewood cutters we sent to them?—We told them that our society members for whom we were speaking wanted to labour in their respective firms, not in a charitable institution.

What do you want us to do then?—Give up the entire thing and let the trade come back to those who have a legitimate right to it.

Said they "you are asking a big thing."

After much talk concerning the right of every man to live, the freedom of the labour market, there being no barrier to prevent one man competing against

another, etc., I said: "You must admit our grievance is a just one." Agreed.

Then I said: "We are to go back and tell our members that you cannot see your way clear to discontinue this practice, and that we must keep on agitating and seek redress from some other quarter." Then followed a discussion upon the letter I had sent to Colin F. Campbell, on his article in the *Church Times*. They thought I had used hard words, and I was able to substantiate what I had said. I had called it an un-Christlike action, and as a Christian worker I told them I meant all I said. I further said: "That for any organisation, whether Church, Salvation Army, Wesleyan, Methodist, etc., taking for their guidance the principles of Christianity, actuated in their efforts by this same spirit, to have the evils of this system pointed out to them, and then to insist upon carrying it on unrestricted, is most un-Christlike; for no Christian should help one class at the expense of another." I must tell you more when I see you. I must just tell you what Mr. Jones said when I was leaving: "You will never build your trade up by attacking these institutions, unless an Act of Parliament is passed, compelling all firewood bundles being made in factories." We are not without hope. There are other agencies that we must make use of. It might mean hard work, but we must know no failure. This is roughly written, the fact is I am very tired, but was anxious to let you know. With best regards.—Yours respectfully,

J. A. RICHARDSON.

APPENDIX No. V. (C.).

Handed in by Mr. Dye on behalf of Firewood Trade Association. (Q. 91856).

A MEMORIAL TO THE COMMITTEE, SOCIAL DEPARTMENT, CHURCH ARMY, FROM THE FIREWOOD CUTTERS PROTECTION SOCIETY.

SIRS,—We, the representatives of the Firewood Cutters Protection Society, thank you for favouring us with this opportunity of better explaining our grievance, the nature of which you have already been notified.

We, as workers, have a kindred feeling of sympathy towards the ever increasing number of unemployed, but we deeply regret that an organisation of this kind in their endeavour to help alleviate the distress among the unemployed should monopolise an industry which, apart from this encroachment, has each year to combat against some new invention in fire-lighting methods, viz., gas and slow-combustion stoves, and other patent fire lighters, taking the place of the ordinary firewood bundle.

Our contentions are:—

(1) That the Church Army and other kindred institutions, in putting the unemployed to make and sell firewood bundles, are inflicting a gross injustice upon the practical firewood cutter, who, in most cases, has followed this occupation from the days of his childhood.

(2) We say that it is wrong to assert that any one could become a woodchopper, "provided he had a chopper, he could purchase a few empty cases, chop them into firewood, and sell it. This, we contend, would not qualify a man to be called a woodchopper, as we understand the term, and if that impractical man had nothing more than that to depend upon, he would find it a very poor living. Firewood-chopping, pure and simple, is a trade that requires more skill than many who have not sufficiently studied its workings can imagine. Certainly, if it is a case of public money being utilised, the waste in production is seldom, if ever, taken into account. This, to a private employer, is an important feature.

(3) We further say that the statement set forth in the letter of Mr. Colin F. Campbell in the *Church Times* of May 11th, to the effect that he had reason to believe that no distress worth mentioning existed among the genuine firewood cutters, either shows that he had been misinformed, or that he knew very little as to the condition

of those dependent upon the trade for their livelihood. For not only during the month of May, but even in the winter, many of them were on short time, earning only 12s. or 14s. per week.

(4) It answers for itself if the Church Army employs daily between 1,000 and 1,200 men, who, for the most part, know little or nothing of woodchopping. The product of their efforts ultimately finds its way into the homes of the people, and as you cannot create consumers like you make workers, it follows that the goods of the private employer are less saleable in the market. The output has to be lessened. The willing worker is made workless through indiscreet charity doles, which help in many cases a class of people who will do very little to help themselves.

(5) As you are aware this is no new grievance. We did think that when the attendant evils of this system was pointed out to you some years ago, that you would do your best to help us by lessening the output. Instead of that, you have year by year extended your operations, but now the time has come when something must be done, some understanding come to, so that the *bona fide* wood-chopper claiming the right to live by his labour, shall not be ousted and compelled to see those dependent upon him lack the common necessities of life through no fault of his own.

We say that it is most unfair that Christian philanthropy should be so misdirected in its use. We feel certain that you have never interested yourselves in the matter sufficiently enough, that you might know the amount of suffering that your system every year is inflicting upon the genuine worker.

We venture to say that within ten years, the number of employees has decreased 50 per cent.

In closing, I would remind you that we are not asking for charitable aid, we are only asking to have restored unto us the means of earning a livelihood which has been filched from us.

APPENDIX No VI. (A).

Handed in by Mrs. Dunn Gardner, Chelsea (Q. 92113 (12)).

CHELSEA DISTRESS COMMITTEE.

(1) INFORMATION OBTAINED FROM THE RECORD PAPERS OF 50 RECOMMENDED APPLICANTS AS TO LENGTH OF EMPLOYMENT PRIOR TO REGISTRATION.

1905-6.

Application Number.	—	Age.	Occupation.	Usual Wages.	Date of Registration.	Date of termination of last job and length of service.	Length of service at prior jobs.
492	J. A.	56	Mason's labourer	7d. per hour	Dec. 19th, 1905	Aug. 15th, 1905. 3 weeks	Working at R. Durham, 35, Riley Street, summer months; odd jobs.
138	W. A.	25	General labourer	25s. weekly	Nov. 28th, 1905	Aug. 30th, 1905. Odd jobs—days at a time.	
645	G. A.	53	"	7d. per hour	Feb. 14th, 1906	Dec., 1905. 3 months	On and off 5 years with Mr. Epps, 13, Caversham Street.
275	G. A.	53	"	6d. "	Dec. 1st, 1905	Jobbing about (no dates)	
703	W. A.	20	"	16s. weekly	March 21st, 1906	Jan., 1906. 6 months	2 years with Phillips & Sons, 58, Regent Street.
494	W. C. A.	51	Watchman	5s. per day	Dec. 20th, 1905	No date	Odd days for Chelsea Vestry 15 years.
371	A. B.	60	Painter's labourer	29s. 2d. weekly	Dec. 5th, 1905	Aug., 1905.	On and off 5 years with Mr. James, Glaseville Grove.
700	G. B.	29	Labourer	7d. per hour	March 21st, 1906	No date	Odd jobs. Last permanent job 5 years ago.
678	W. B.	48	General labourer	7d. "	March 5th, 1906	Jan. 1906. 4 years on and off	On and off; odd jobs.
203	A. B.	58	Plasterer	18s. weekly	Nov. 29th, 1905	July, 1905. Odd work	Odd work with Mr. Stimpson, Oakley Crescent.
342	W. B.	36	Painter	30s. "	Dec. 4th, 1905	Dec., 1905. 3 weeks	Odd jobs
222	T. B.	55	General labourer	6½d. per hour	Nov. 29th, 1905	May 16th, 1905. 6 weeks	"
653	A. B.	59	"	22s. weekly	Feb. 16th, 1906	Feb., 1906. 3 years	
331	A. B.	27	"	6½d. per hour	Dec. 2nd, 1905	Oct., 1905	General labouring; odd jobs.
188	R. B.	35	"	7d. "	Nov. 28th, 1905	No date	On and off 16 years with Surrey & Sons, Fulham.
472	C. B.	42	"	6½d. "	Dec., 1905	Dec., 1905	Odd jobs with Battersea Council.
107	R. E. B.	48	"	7d. "	Nov. 28th, 1905	3 months ago	Odd jobs.
284	W. E. B.	45	Painter, &c.	8½d. "	Dec. 1st, 1905	May, 1905. 6 weeks	"
104	J. B.	52	General labourer	7½d. "	Nov. 28th, 1905	Sept., 1905. 3 months	Odd work at Mowlem & Co., and at Battersea.

698	W. B.	22	Brass turner	15s. weekly	March 19th, 1906	June, 1905. 7 years	On and off; odd jobs.
193	W. B.	31	Labourer	7d. per hour	Nov. 29th, 1905	Oct., 1905. 7 years	Odd jobs; no dates.
493	W. B.	57	Manservant	24s. weekly	Dec. 12th, 1905	No date	"
197	W. B.	64	Labourer	29s. 2d. weekly	Nov. 29th, 1905	"	"
404	G. B.	33	"	7d. per hour	Dec. 7th, 1905	"	"
58	B. T. B.	50	Painter	9d. "	Nov. 27th, 1905	Sept., 1905	Several odd jobs.
106	F. C.	45	Painter	28s. weekly	Nov. 28th, 1905	Sept. 1905. 4 weeks	Odd jobs with Mr. Jones, builder, and others.
617	G. C.	40	Brass finisher	25s. "	Jan. 29th, 1906	Jan., 1906. 8 months	Various jobs.
213	J. C.	55	Marble finisher	Not given	Nov. 29th, 1905	July, 1905. Odd job	Nothing regular.
141	J. C.	47	General labourer	7d. per hour	Nov. 28th, 1905	Oct., 1905. 8 weeks	Jobbing for last 12 years.
22	H. C.	27	Painter's labourer	"	Dec. 27th, 1905	No date. 3½ years on and off	Odd jobs for Carter and Wise for some years.
67	R. C.	46	Labourer	Not given	Nov. 27th, 1905	No date. 3 years	2½ months at Garden City.
54	W. E. C.	35	Painter's labourer	7½d. per hour	Nov. 27th, 1905	No date. 4 months	4 weeks Chelsea Borough Council.
174	J. D.	22	Labourer	30s. 7d. weekly	Nov. 28th, 1905	Aug., 1905. 3 months	Odd jobs.
292	A. F. D.	36	"	7d. per hour	Dec. 1st, 1905	Oct., 1905. 3 weeks	Several odd jobs.
313	G. D.	40	Painter	8½d. "	Nov. 30th, 1905	No date. 3 weeks	Odd jobs.
470	J. D.	38	"	7d. "	Dec. 14th, 1905	No date. 12 years with Mr. Page, 33, Kinverton Street, Wetton Place.	Odd jobs.
512	E. J. D.	40	"	7d. "	Dec. 29th, 1905	Nov., 1905. 3 years	Various jobs.
535	G. D.	51	Carman	24s. per week	Jan. 2nd, 1906	Oct. 14th, 1905. 30 years on and off for Slaughters.	Other odd jobs for Mr. Walters, Lyle Street.
118	G. D.	55	Painter	8½d. per hour	Nov. 28th, 1905	Jan., 1906. On and off 5 years with Franklin, Church Street.	J. Robertson, 88, High Road, Chiswick.
634	F. D.	58	Carpenter and joiner	10½d. "	Feb. 2nd, 1906	No date. 4 months	Odd jobs.
42	T. E.	50	General labourer	7d. "	Nov. 27th, 1905	July 22nd, 1905. Odd days	Odd jobs.
239	J. E.	27	Carman	5s. per day	Nov. 29th, 1905	Oct. 7th, 1905. Office of works with Willett, builder, Sloane Square.	Odd jobs for years.
343	R. E.	48	Builder's labourer	7d. per hour	Dec. 4th, 1905	Oct. 20th, 1905. 5 months.	Odd jobs.
251	E. H. E.	37	Handyman	30s. weekly	Nov. 29th, 1905	No date. 7 weeks	"
302	W. T. F.	32	Painter	21s. weekly	Dec. 1st, 1905	Oct. 14th. 9 weeks	"
73	A. F.	46	"	8½d. per hour	Nov. 28th, 1905	No date. 11 weeks	"
288	C. F.	49	Engineer's labourer	7d. "	Dec. 1st, 1905	Oct. 21st, 1905. 4 months	"
124	A. H. F.	51	General labourer	30s. per week	Nov. 28th, 1905	No date. 4 months	"
242	J. F.	63	Labourer	6½d. per hour	Nov. 29th, 1905	No date. 7 weeks.	"
263	W. F.	60	"	4s. per day	Nov. 30th, 1905		

Average, 7d. per hour. Average length of time out of work prior to registration, 9·2 weeks per man. 1905-6.

APPENDIX No. VI. (A)—continued.

Handed in by Mrs. Dunn Gardner, Chelsea (Q. 92113 (12)).(2) INFORMATION OBTAINED FROM THE RECORD PAPERS OF 50 RECOMMENDED APPLICANTS AS TO LENGTH OF EMPLOYMENT PRIOR TO REGISTRATION.
1906-7.

Application Number.	—	Age.	Occupation.	Usual Wages.	Date of Registration.	Date of termination of last job and length of service.	Length of service at prior jobs.
9	R. J. H.	21	General labourer	21s. per week	Nov. 5th, 1906	Sept. 15th, 1906. 5½ years regular with Johnson, Wandsworth Bridge	
195	G. W. B.	55	Gardener	6d. per hour	Jan. 9th, 1907	Nov. 1st, 1906. 2 or 3 years on and off with Huggill, Kings Road	
239	G. J. C.	48	Handyman	7d. "	Jan. 23rd, 1907	Jan. 19th, 1907. (5 months work in 12 months)	
65	T. H.	35	General labourer	8d. "	Nov. 22nd, 1906	Sept., 1906. On and off 4 years	
50	R. E.	49	"	7d. "	Nov. 16th, 1906	Aug., 1906. 5 weeks	6 weeks, 10 weeks, 5 weeks (in 12 months).
128	H. J. C.	27	"	6d. "	Dec. 6th, 1906	Oct. 15th, 1906. On and off 3 years	
221	W. C.	38	Painter's labourer	7d. "	Jan. 17th, 1906	Dec. 1st, 1906. 5 years on and off	3 weeks, 1 month (in 12 months).
41	W. W.	39	Blind maker	In business on own	Nov. 13th, 1906	Nov., 1906. }	
33	R. O.	33	Mason	7d. per hour	Nov. 12th, 1906	Oct., 1906. 3 months	5 months, 2 months, odd jobs.
12	C. J. J.	21	Painter's labourer	4½d. "	Nov. 6th, 1906	Aug., 1906. 6 months	
94	D. H.	45	General labourer	7d. "	Nov. 28th, 1906	Oct. 26th, 1906. 6 years on and off	Other odd jobs.
167	J. H. S.	50	Caretaker	6d. "	Dec. 20th, 1906	Dec. 1st, 1906. Years on and off	3 months.
67	E. M.	40	General labourer	6d. "	Nov. 23rd, 1906	Nov. 15th, 1906. Several years on and off	
106	W. Y.	44	"	7d. "	Dec. 1st, 1906	July, 1906. 3 weeks	2 weeks, other odd jobs.
101	G. B.	61	"	7d. "	Nov. 30th, 1906	Aug., 1906. 28 years on and off	
166	A. K.	50	"	7d. "	Dec. 20th, 1906	Oct. 2nd, 1906. 2 years on and off	
269	G. B.	40	"	7d. "	Feb. 4th, 1906	Jan. 16th, 1907. 16 days	16 weeks Hollesley Bay.
154	G. M.	38	Hall porter	7d. "	Dec. 13th, 1906	June, 1906. 2½ years regular	
181	A. A.	30	Handyman	7½d. "	Jan. 3rd, 1907	Dec. 17th, 1906. 3 months	2 weeks.
137	G. F. W.	30	General labourer	7d. "	Dec. 7th, 1906	Nov. 24th, 1906. 6 weeks	Several odd jobs.
27	C. B.	35	Milk carrier	7d. "	Nov. 9th, 1906	Feb., 1906. 5 years regular	
58	A. E.	40	Carpenter's labourer	7d. "	Nov. 20th, 1906	Aug., 1906. 3 years on and off	Regular.
43	W. B.	38	Labourer	6½d. "	Nov. 14th, 1906	Aug., 1906. 10 months	Regular.
21	T. H.	32	"	8d. "	Nov. 7th, 1906	Oct., 1906. 12 months	Regular.
246	H. C.	47	Coachman	20s. weekly	Jan. 25th, 1907	June, 1906. 2 years	Regular.
234	W. S.	42	Labourer	7d. per hour	Jan. 21st, 1907	Dec. 7th, 1906. 3 years on and off	

285	T. M.	60	"	6d. "	Feb. 6th, 1907	Oct., 1906. 3 months in 12	
222	H. H.	52	General smith	8d. "	Jan. 17th, 1907.	Dec. 22nd, 1906. 6 months in 12	
30	C. W.	50	General labourer	7d. per hour	Nov. 12th, 1906	Nov. 9th, 1906. 1 month	3 years on and off.
130	J. W.	38	" "	30s. per week	Dec. 6th, 1906	July, 1906. 3 years	Permanent.
308	C. T.	35	" "	4s. per day	Feb. 13th, 1907	Oct. 7th, 1906. 2½ years	"
13	S. T.	30	Carman	7d. per hour	Nov. 6th, 1906	Oct. 20th, 1906. 9 months	8 months.
6	G. W. T.	21	Porter	6d. "	Nov. 2nd, 1906	Oct., 1906. 9 months	3 months with Waring & Co.
169	P. S.	54	Timekeeper	27s. per week	Dec. 21st, 1906	Nov. 26th, 1906. 2 months	Summer months only at Hyde Park.
291	J. S.	30	Labourer	7d. per hour	Feb. 7th, 1907	Nov. 30th, 1906. 9 months	4 months.
223	G. S.	53	"	6d. "	Jan. 17th, 1907	Oct., 1906. 8 months	
249	R. S.	40	Hall porter	28s. per week	Jan. 28th, 1907	Jan. 19th, 1907. 12 months	
259	W. G. S.	22	Blacksmith's mate	5d. per hour	Jan. 31st, 1907	Jan. 5th, 1907. 2 years	Regular.
126	R. R.	32	Labourer	22s. per week	Dec. 5th, 1906	Nov., 1906. 14 years	As carman regular.
85	G. R.	26	Conductor	30s. "	Nov. 26th, 1906	Oct., 1906. 7 months	3 years regular with Webb, fishmonger.
210	F. R.	46	Watchman	4s. per day	Jan. 12th, 1907	Nov. 14th, 1906. 14 years	Regular.
110	F. R.	45	Handyman	7d. per hour	Dec. 3rd, 1906	Sept., 1906. 3 months	3 months 9 days.
39	W. P.	40	Harness maker	6d. "	Nov. 13th, 1906	Aug., 1906. 3 months	18 months.
224	T. H. P.	50	Labourer	15s. weekly	Jan. 18th, 1907	Nov., 1906. 15 months	
342	R. O'C.	23	"	7½d. per hour	Feb. 22nd, 1907	Jan. 19th, 1907. 7 years	Regular summer months.
319	J. O'B.	27	"	18s. weekly	Feb. 15th, 1907	Oct., 1906. 3 years	Regular.
16	J. R. N.	22	"	7d. per hour	Nov. 6th, 1906	Oct. 5th, 1906. Odd days only	
329	S. M.	34	"	"	Feb. 19th, 1907	Jan. 7th, 1907. 3 weeks	3 months, odd days, 2 months.
270	R. M.	56	"	"	Feb. 4th, 1907	Dec., 1906. 3 weeks	1 month, 6 months.
77	H. L.	42	"	"	Nov. 26th, 1906	Sept., 1906. 10 weeks	15 years on and off summer months.

Average 7d. per hour. Average length of time out of work prior to registration, 8·1 weeks per man. 1906-7.

APPENDIX No. VI. (B).

Handed in by Mrs. Dunn Gardner, Chelsea (Q. 92113 (12)).

(1) PARTICULARS AS TO THE CASES OF 50 MEN WHO, DURING 1905-6, WERE RECOMMENDED BY DISTRESS COMMITTEES IN DIFFERENT PARTS OF LONDON FOR EMPLOYMENT BY THE CENTRAL UNEMPLOYED BODY.

Application Number.	Distress Committee.	Age.	Occupation.	Usual Wages.	Date of Registration.	Date of termination of last job and length of service.	Length of service at previous jobs.
129	Fulham	26	Plasterer	11d. per hour	Nov. 9th, 1905	Sept. 20th, 1905. 3 weeks	9 months.
12	"	28	Painter	7½d. "	Nov. 9th, 1905	Sept., 1905. 3 weeks	Odd jobs.
287	"	36	"	8½d. "	Nov. 9th, 1905	Aug. 23rd, 1905. 9 days	"
552	Chelsea	38	"	8½d. "	Jan. 4th, 1906	Sept., 1905. 6 months	Various.
1,857	St. Pancras	35	Carman	24s. weekly	March 30th, 1906	March, 1906. 1 year	3 years, 4 years.
1,845	Hackney	40	Boot laster	20s. "	Jan. 26th, 1906	Oct., 1905. 2 months	
274	Islington	25	Stableman	26s. "	Jan. 11th, 1906	July, 1904. 8 "	
479	Lambeth	38	Painter	25s. "	Dec. 28th, 1905	Sept., 1905. 8 "	
82	Stepney	35	Builder's labourer	7d. per hour	Nov. 30th, 1905	Oct., 1904. 3 years	
1,210	"	27	Dustman	4s. 2d. per day	Jan. 25th, 1906	Oct., 1904. 4 "	
1,979	St. Pancras	37	Porter	30s. weekly	Oct. 5th, 1905	June 9th, 1905. 4 years	Reduction of staff.
938	"	31	General labourer	None stated	Oct., 1906	None stated	
57	Islington	45	Painter	28s. weekly	Dec. 15th, 1905	Nov., 1905. 3 weeks	
850	Hackney	37	"	6½d. per hour	Nov. 20th, 1905	Oct. 13th, 1905. 1 year on and off	
E. 201	Lambeth	45	Gardener	6d. per hour	Feb. 5th, 1906	Oct., 1905. 2 weeks	
34	Camberwell	30	Bricklayer's labourer	7d. "	Dec. 1st, 1905	Oct. 1st, 1905. 7 months	1 month, 3 months.
226	"	39	General labourer	25s. weekly	Dec. 6th, 1905	Sept. 6th, 1905. 4 "	
1,713	Stepney	51	"	25s. "	Dec., 1905	Oct. 18th, 1905. 3 "	9 weeks.
54	Hackney	34	"	29s. 2d. "	Oct. 30th, 1905	Aug. 30th, 1905. 3 "	
735	Poplar	43	Navy	7d. per hour	Jan. 2nd, 1906	Dec. 11th, 1905. 17 years' casual work	
580A	"	29	Basket maker	16s. weekly	March 1st, 1906	Feb. 3rd, 1906. 8 "	
1,237	Camberwell	32	Carman	5s. per day	Feb. 22nd, 1906	None given	(Coster).
149	"	42	General labourer	5s. "	Dec. 12th, 1905	Some weeks. 3 years on and off	
601	Hampstead	37	Navy	28s. weekly	Jan. 8th, 1906	Dec. 17th, 1905. 1 month	2 years on and off.

	Hampstead	22	Labourer	7d. per hour	Jan. 24th, 1906	Jan. 13th, 1905. 5 weeks	3 days a week.
562	Poplar	49	"	7d. "	Dec. 19th, 1905	Aug. 7th, 1905. 25 years	3 days a week.
337B	Lewisham	24	General labourer	5s. per day	Sept. 27th, 1905	Sept., 1905. 3 months	3 years regular.
957	Stepney	30	Flock maker	24s. per week	Oct. 12th, 1906	July, 1906. 9 years	
1,712	Lambeth	30	Horsekeeper	3s. 6d. per day	Dec. 7th, 1905	Oct. 22nd, 1905. 3 years	
C. 17	Kensington	32	Painter	32s. weekly	Dec. 8th, 1905	Oct. 1st, 1905. 3 weeks	Odd jobs.
770	St. Pancras	36	Labourer	28s. "	Jan. 3rd, 1906	Dec. 12th, 1905. 2 years on and off	
C.B. 6420	Finsbury	39	Handyman	30s. "	Oct. 3rd, 1905	Sept. 1st, 1905. 7 years "	
" 6421	Woolwich	42	Labourer	30s. "	Jan. 31st, 1906	Jan. 27th, 1906. 6 months	
1534	Bermondsey	44	"	16s. "	Dec. 6th, 1905	Nov., 1905. 5 weeks	
509	"	38	"	7d. per hour.	March 13th, 1906	Feb., 1906. 3 months	5 months.
1448	"	26	"	24s. weekly	Dec. 4th, 1905	Jan., 1905. 5 years regular	
224	"	33	Painter	18s. "	Jan. 3rd, 1906	Nov., 1905. 2 years on and off	
503	"	36	Carman	24s. "	Jan. 17th, 1906	March, 1905. 2 years regular	
1061	"	39	Labourer	33s. "	Nov. 1st, 1905	October, 1905. 9 months	
209	Hackney	37	"	2s. 6d. to 3s. 6d. per day	Dec. 1st, 1905	Nov. 28th, 1905. 3 weeks	Odd jobbing sometime.
E. 230	St. Marylebone	23	"	21s. weekly	Nov. 21st, 1905	Aug. 23rd, 1905. 3 years regular	
1039	Woolwich	28	Potman	20s. "	Nov. 28th, 1905	July, 1905. Odd jobs	
A. 174	Lambeth	32	Carman	21s. "	Sept. 13th, 1906	Feb., 1906. 5 weeks	
1961	St. Pancras	25	Porter	18s. "	Sept. 19th, 1906	Sept. 11th, 1906. 2 years	
1965	"	37	Labourer	30s. "	Sept. 5th, 1906	March, 1906. 6 months	
1959	"	33	General labourer	7d. per hour	Oct. 4th, 1906	Aug. 4th, 1906. Some years on and off	
1177	Southwark	43	Navy	7d. "	Oct. 4th, 1906	Aug. 1906. 17 years, summer months	
960	Lewisham	56	Dock labourer	6d. "	Nov. 23rd, 1905	March 8th, 1905. 14 years on and off	
839	Shoreditch	46	Plasterer	11d. "	Nov. 9th, 1905	Sept. 17th, 1905. 8 weeks	Odd jobs.
48	Fulham	30	Painter's labourer	7d. "	Nov. 11th, 1905	Sept., 1905. 2 years on and off	
4	"						

APPENDIX No. VI. (B.)—*continued.**Handed in by Mrs. Dunn Gardner, Chelsea (Q. 92113 (12)).*

(2) PARTICULARS AS TO THE CASES OF 50 MEN WHO, DURING 1906-7, WERE RECOMMENDED BY DISTRESS COMMITTEES IN DIFFERENT PARTS OF LONDON FOR EMPLOYMENT BY THE CENTRAL UNEMPLOYED BODY.

Application Number.	Distress Committee.	Age.	Occupation.	Usual Wages.	Date of Registration.	Date of termination of last job and length of service.	Length of service at previous jobs.
512	Bethnal Green	31	Painter	6½d. per hour	Nov. 29th, 1906	Nov. 24th, 1906. 2 years 3 months	2 years—3 years regular.
201	"	40	Blind maker	26s. per week	Nov. 5th, 1906	Sept., 1906. 5 years	Summer season only.
517	"	39	Boot finisher	No regular work	Nov. 30th, 1906	Odd jobs (no dates)	
292	Hackney	36	Gilder	6½d. per hour	Nov. 14th, 1906	Sept. 29th, 1906. 14 years on and off	
63	"	62	Engine driver	5s. per "	Nov. 6th, 1906	Done no work for 2 years	Street musician.
B 273	Lambeth	29	Miller	30s. weekly	Dec. 8th, 1906	Aug., 1906. 20 months regular	
C 17	"	29	Labourer	23s. "	Nov. 5th, 1906	Aug., 1906. 2 years regular	
D 81	"	30	Carpenter	10½d. per hour	Dec. 5th, 1906	Nov., 1906. 3 years	
920	Lewisham	47	"	10½d. "	Nov. 27th, 1906	April 3rd, 1906. 9 months	5 years odd jobs.
116	Hackney	35	Butcher	32s. weekly	Nov. 9th, 1906	Aug. 11th, 1906. 3 months	8 months.
324	Lewisham	38	Builder's foreman	35s. "	Dec. 31st, 1906	Nov., 1906. 5 years	Regular.
450	Bethnal Green	44	Vellum binder	25s. "	Nov. 16th, 1906	April, 1906. 25 years	On and off.
93	St. Marylebone	39	Painter's labourer	30s. "	Nov. 8th, 1906	Oct., 1906. 4½ days	5 months.
23	"	35	General labourer	22s. 6d. "	Nov. 5th, 1906	Oct. 20th, 1906. 6 months	
14	"	51	"	7d. per hour	Nov. 5th, 1906	Sept., 1906. 2 months	Regular.
109	Shoreditch	39	Porter	24s. "	Nov. 16th, 1906	Aug., 1906. 4 years	
201	"	36	General labourer	12s. 6s. "	Nov. 27th, 1906	June, 1906. Many years	Regular.
223	Hackney	24	Boot maker	32s. "	Nov. 12th, 1906	Oct. 10th, 1906. 12 months	Regular.
18	Hammersmith	45	General labourer	7d. per hour	Nov. 2nd, 1906	May, 1906. 5 months	Regular.
D 37	Lambeth	31	Carman	23s. weekly	Nov. 12th, 1906	Oct., 1906. 6 months	Regular, odd jobs prior.
B 48	Poplar	24	Saw-mill machinist	6d. per hour	Nov. 7th, 1906	Aug., 1906. 1 week	14 weeks.
C 46	"	33	Bricklayer's labourer	7d. per "	Nov. 8th, 1906	Oct. 30th, 1906. 1½ days	11 years regular.
A 39	"	51	Engineer	30s. weekly	Nov. 6th, 1906	Aug. 25th, 1906. 6 months	Odd jobs.
288	Westminster	40	Horsekeeper	26s. "	Nov. 30th, 1906	Nov., 1906. 2 years	Regular.
207	"	26	Plumber's mate	24s. "	Nov. 20th, 1906	Nov., 1906. 3 months	4 years regular ending April, 1905.
60	St. Pancras	36	General labourer	29s. "	Nov. 6th, 1906	Oct. 23rd, 1906. 1 week	13 months ending 23rd Aug., 1905.
80	"	35	Carman	4s. per day	Nov. 7th, 1906	Oct. 31st, 1906. 8 months	On and off.
130	"	39	Labourer	25s. per week	Nov. 10th, 1906	Aug. 1906. 1 month	8 weeks

304	Wandsworth	43	Painter	7d. per hour	Nov. 16th, 1906	Sept., 1906. 18 months	On and off.
392	Westminster	27	Labourer	25s. weekly	Nov. 7th, 1906	Oct., 1906. 3 years	On and off.
152	Wandsworth	39	"	7d. per hour	Nov. 8th, 1906	June, 1906. 4 weeks	
O 1	Finsbury	45	"	3s. per day	Nov. 20th, 1906	Nov. 7th, 1906. 3 months	2 months.
W 2	Finsbury	48	Litho. stone preparer	6d. per hour	Nov. 5th, 1906	Sept., 1906. 1½ weeks	Regular.
1,100	Battersea	27	Greengrocer's assistant	22s. weekly	Dec. 6th, 1906	Sept., 1906. 2 years	2 months, 5 months, 10 months
1,291	"	33	General labourer	7d. per hour	Feb. 13th, 1907	Feb. 2nd, 1907. 2 weeks	On and off.
1,295	"	31	Excavator	7d. "	Feb. 14th, 1907	Jan., 1907. 3 years	On and off.
258	Fulham	55	Navy	6d. "	Nov. 12th, 1906	Aug., 1906. 12 years	On and off.
237	"	28	Market Gardener's labourer	4s. per day	Jan. 21st, 1907	Dec 29th, 1906. 2 years	
1,257	Woolwich	34	Bricklayer	10½d. per hour	March 26th, 1907	Jan. 27th, 1907. 6 years	Regular.
312	City of Westminster	40	Painter's labourer	23s. weekly	Dec. 4th, 1906	Oct., 1906. 13½ years	Regular.
54	"	40	Painter	35s. "	Nov. 7th, 1906	Sept. 27th, 1906. 2 years	Regular.
H 15	Finsbury	39	General labourer	35s. "	Jan. 9th, 1907	Dec. 24th, 1906. 5 days	11 months regular.
F 8	"	28	"	None stated	Jan. 11th, 1907	Not stated	5 weeks, 12 weeks.
H 16	"	40	Carman	5s. 3d. a day	Jan. 9th, 1907	Nov. 7th, 1906. 1 day per week for 9 months.	
A 71	Lambeth	31	Labourer	16s. 6d. weekly	Nov. 8th, 1906	July, 1906. 3 months at Farnbridge	2½ years regular.
A 316	"	33	Cab washer	27s. weekly	Jan. 14th, 1907	Aug., 1906. 5 years	Regular.
19	City of London	46	General labourer	25s. "	Nov. 7th, 1906	Oct. 15th, 1906. 6 months	On and off.
85	Fulham	41	"	7½d. per hour	Nov. 19th, 1906	Oct. 21st, 1906. 3 weeks	3 weeks, 4 months, 3 months.
817	Hampstead	38	Paper hanger	15s. weekly	Jan. 17th, 1907	Jan. 10th, 1907. 2 weeks	8 years on and off.
81	Chelsea	51	Labourer	6d. per hour	Nov. 26th, 1906	Sept. 1st, 1906. 3 months	10 weeks Tooting, 2 months.

APPENDIX No. VI. (C.)

Handed in by Mrs. Dunn Gardner, Chelsea (Q. 92113 (34)).

(1) PARTICULARS AS TO THE CASES OF 50 WOMEN WHO, DURING 1905-6, WERE RECOMMENDED BY DISTRESS COMMITTEES IN DIFFERENT PARTS OF LONDON FOR EMPLOYMENT BY THE CENTRAL UNEMPLOYED BODY.

Application Number.	Distress Committee.	Age.	Occupation.	Usual Wages.	Date of Registration.	Date of termination of last job, and length of service.	Length of service at previous jobs.
68	St. Pancras	45	Domestic	£18, board and lodging	Oct. 17th, 1906	Aug. 1906. Nurse 5 months. Housework	5 years with Mrs. Prescott, Devonshire St., W.
531	Poplar	28	Finisher of clothing	5s. weekly.	Sept. 27th, 1906	No date. 1 year with Birnbaum & Co., Old Ford	
79	St. Pancras	70	Dressmaker	4s. "	Oct. 29th, 1906	July 17th, 1906. 6 months	
219	"	39	Charwoman	10s. "	Nov. 12th, 1906	Aug., 1906. 6 months	
109	"	55	Nurse	10s. 6d., board & lodging	Nov. 7th, 1906	Sept. 30th, 1906. 3 weeks	3 weeks nursing. Other odd work.
278	"	52	Cook	10s. "	Nov. 14th, 1906	Feb., 1906. 5 weeks	No further information.
279	"	52	Charwoman	Not stated	Nov. 14th, 1906	Oct. 1st, 1906. 8 months	
333	"	64	"	2s. daily	Nov. 16th, 1906	Not stated. 2 years on and off washing	
624	"	36	Waitress	2s. 6d. "	Dec. 8th, 1906	Sept. 1st, 1906. 6 months as barmaid	
537	"	63	Needlewoman	8s. weekly	Nov. 30th, 1906	Nov. 7th, 1906. 1 week	1 month.
128	Poplar	38	"	Casual work only	Nov. 21st, 1906	No dates	4 months, 4 months, 14 months.
131	"	51	Charing, etc.	" "	Jan. 13th, 1907	"	
645	"	29	Not stated	3s. weekly	Nov. 30th, 1906	" 5 months. Millinery	
136	"	34	Needlewoman	Not stated	Nov. 14th, 1906	Oct. 20th, 1906. 4 months. Needlework	
137	"	50	Dressmaker	8s. weekly	Jan. 10th, 1907	Dec. 10th, 1906	Odd jobs for some time.
745	St. Pancras	62	Needlewoman	5s. and board	Dec. 31st, 1906	No dates. One year	
798	"	52	Cook	7s., board and lodging	Jan. 8th, 1907	Aug., 1904. 7 months	Only odd days since.
811	"	50	Machinist	1s. 6d. and food per day	Jan. 9th, 1907	Still employed. 3½ years	Off and on charing.
D 96	Lambeth	40	Charwoman	2s. per day	Jan. 1st, 1907	" " 6 "	" " "
B 206	"	38	Machinist	2s. 6d. "	Nov. 23rd, 1906	Employed by L.C.C. to take 5 children from School.	
B 298	"	39	Charwoman	8s. weekly	Dec. 13th, 1906	Dec. 1906. 3 months regular. Still earning 1s. 6d. Saturdays.	Now working 1 day.
192	Camberwell	53	Needlewoman, &c.	2s. and food weekly	Nov. 16th, 1906	Still employed. 20 years on and off	3 months.
227	"	43	Cook	10s. "	Nov. 21st, 1906	Nov. 7th, 1906. 5 months	

	99	100	101	102	26	27	814	119	123	410	246	860	861	924	110	143	25	1,828	M 25	725	935	975	1,009	228	166	340	C 78
Fullam																											
"																											
"																											
Battersea																											
"																											
St. Pancras																											
Fullam																											
"																											
Camberwell																											
Islington																											
St. Pancras																											
"																											
Bermondsey																											
St. Pancras																											
Fullam																											
Southwark																											
Stepney																											
Finsbury																											
St. Pancras																											
"																											
"																											
"																											
Camberwell																											
Fullam																											
Shoreditch																											
Lambeth																											

APPENDIX No. VI. (C)—*continued*.*Handed in by Mrs. Dunn Gardner, Chelsea (Q. 92113 (34)).*

(2) PARTICULARS AS TO CASES OF 50 WOMEN WHO, DURING 1906-7, WERE RECOMMENDED BY DISTRESS COMMITTEES IN DIFFERENT PARTS OF LONDON FOR EMPLOYMENT BY THE CENTRAL UNEMPLOYED BODY.

Application Number.	Distress Committee.	Age.	Occupation.	Usual Wages.	Date of Registration.	Date of termination of last job and length of service.	Length of service at previous job.
712	Hammersmith	42	Dressmaker	7s. per week	Nov. 9th, 1906	Oct. 19th, 1906. 6 months	
845	"	42	"	14s. "	July 2nd, 1907	June, 1907. 4 months	6 months.
2,779	Stepney	53	Shirt maker	12s. "	" 3rd, 1907	June 26th, 1907. 13 weeks	Odd work.
W 147	Southwark	26	Boot upper fitter	Not stated	" 8th, 1907	April, 1907. 4 years	9 months.
1,388	St. Pancras	26	General	Board and lodging	May 31st, 1907	Still employed. 18 months	
1,389	"	35	Cook	11s. 6d. and board	" 7th, 1907	April 1st, 1907. 19 months	
342	Holborn	46	"	17s. weekly	July 4th, 1907	March, 1907. 2 years.	
344	"	46	Charwoman	2s. 6d. and food	" 10th, 1907	Nov., 1906. 8 years	
337	"	52	"	7s. weekly	June 29th, 1907	Still employed. 19 months	
792	Kensington	19	Housemaid	£12 and all found	July 9th, 1907	June, 1906. 1 year	Left to attend illness at home.
341	Holborn	46	Charwoman	2s. 6d. per day	" 3rd, 1907	Still employed. 4 years (1 day per week now)	
797	Kensington	33	Tailoress	15s. weekly	" 19th, 1907	March, 1907. 1 year	
791	"	22	Housemaid, &c.	£12 and all found	" 8th, 1907	1903. 1 year	
793	"	30	Needlewoman	6s. weekly	" 15th, 1907	Dec., 1906. 1 week	Done nothing since marriage.
W 1	Camberwell	45	"	Widow one year	" 5th, 1907	Nothing since husband's death	Odd work.
22	Holborn	65	"	10s. weekly	Nov. 2nd, 1906	Sept., 1906. Few weeks	Casual work.
352	"	44	Laundress	2s. 6d. per day	July 17th, 1907	May, 1907. 3 months	11 months.
348	"	52	Charwoman	1s. weekly	" 16th, 1907	Still working (1 day). 4 years	
23	Camberwell	58	Needlewoman	None	" 19th, 1907	None stated. Selling up home to live	
22	"	38	"	Not stated	" 17th, 1907	June 21st, 1907. 12 months	
15	"	48	"	"	" 15th, 1907	Not stated	
19	"	55	Charing, &c.	"	" 17th, 1907	Dec., 1905. 12 years	
W 159	Southwark	24	Kitchen hand	8s. and food	" 25th, 1907	July 6th, 1907 12 months	
W 158	"	56	Charing, &c.	2s. 6d. per day and food	" 24th, 1907	Feb., 1907. 2 years (2 days per week)	
798	Kensington	39	Dressmaker	14s. weekly	" 25th, 1907	March, 1907. 18 months, on and off	
799	"	44	"	Piecework	" 25th, 1907	July, 1907. 2 years, on and off	
5	Camberwell	49	Needlewoman	Not stated	" 8th, 1907	Still working. 12 months, on and off	
12	"	52	Cook	"	" 12th, 1907	April 6th, 1907. 6 months	
11	"	52	Mantle maker	"	" 12th, 1907	Still working. 6 weeks	Odd jobs.

W. 152	Southwark	51	Charing, &c.	7s. weekly	July 11th, 1907	May, 1907. 22 months
B. 614	Lambeth	33	Cook	Not stated	" 19th, 1907	Done none since marriage. Husband now consumptive.
32	Camberwell	56	Needlewoman	4s. weekly	" 25th, 1907	Working mornings ~ 5 years, washing, etc.
4	"	56	"	7s. 6d. weekly and food	" 8th, 1907	Dec., 1906. 15 years
20	"	50	"	(Not stated)	" 17th, 1907	(Not stated). 12 months
B. 611	Lambeth	43	Charing, &c.	2s. and food weekly	" 16th, 1907	(1 day per week now). 12 months
B. 609	"	56	"	6s. "	" 11th, 1907	June, 1907. 3 years regular
A. 474	"	39	Needlewoman	5s. weekly	" 22nd, 1907	Sept., 1906. 12 months
10	Poplar	55	Charing, &c.	4s. 6d. weekly and food	" 15th, 1907	June, 1907. 2 days weekly last 8 years
4	"	56	Nurse	8s. "	" 9th, 1907	Not stated. 2 years
9	"	50	Shop Assistant	4s. 6d. "	" 12th, 1907	June 12th, 1907. 5 years regular
W. 164	Southwark	59	Charing, &c.	5s. weekly	" 26th, 1907	March, 1907. 2 years
W. 160	"	60	"	4s. "	" 25th, 1907	July, 1905. 6 years
C.B. 41	Hammersmith	40	Nurse	10s. weekly and food	" 24th, 1907	July 1st, 1907. 7 weeks
W. 162	Southwark	45	Cook	12s. weekly	" 26th, 1907	July 11th, 1907. 3 months
33	Camberwell	29	Needlewoman	(Not stated)	" 26th, 1907	(Not stated). 2 years
360	Holborn	39	Charing, &c.	10s. and food	" 27th, 1907	July 27th, 1907. 4 years
361	"	42	Tailorress	Piecework	Aug. 8th, 1907	(Not stated) 12 months
364	"	33	Costumier	(Widow 3 weeks)	" 2nd, 1907	" "
W. 166	Southwark	49	Cleaning, &c.	12s. and food	July 27th, 1907	April 27th, 1907. 14 years
W. 169	"	32	Housekeeper	2s. per day	" 29th, 1907	(Widow now). Not stated

8 weeks, 6 months, 8 months.

3 months, 8 months.

Casual jobs.

2 years last job.

9

APPENDIX No. VI. (D).

Handed in by Mrs. Dunn Gardner, Chelsea (Q. 92139)

FIGURES SHOWING PROPORTION OF ASSISTED AND NON-ASSISTED CASES BY VARIOUS DISTRESS COMMITTEES FOR THE YEAR 1905-6, WHO AGAIN APPLIED FOR ASSISTANCE IN 1906-7.

Borough.		Applicants assisted, 1905-6.	Number of these re- applying, 1906-7.	Being per cent.	Applicants not assisted, 1905-6.	Number of these re- applying, 1906-7.	Being per cent.
Chelsea	- - - - -	74	53	71·6	542	102	18·8
Finsbury	- - - - -	186	79	42·4	600	47	7·9
Fulham	- - - - -	467	298	63·8	1,911	57	3·0
Hackney	- - - - -	210	115	54·7	2,137	536	25·1

APPENDIX No. VII

Handed in by the Rev. J. H. Anderson. (Q. 92404 (7b).)

Agreement between the Central (Unemployed) Body for London, hereinafter called "the Central Body," and the mayor, aldermen and councillors of the Borough of hereinafter called "the Council" made the day of 190 , whereas the Central Body is desirous of providing or contributing towards the provision of temporary work for unemployed workmen in proper cases under the Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905, and the Council is prepared to provide the work hereinafter described for such workmen upon the conditions and subject to the terms hereinafter stated. And whereas the Central Body has satisfied itself that such work has for its object a purpose of actual and substantial utility. It is agreed between the Central Body and the Council that the Council shall on or before the day of commence and continue within a reasonable time (or on or before the day of 19) carry out and complete the work following :—The Scheme for

as described in the schedule hereto. And shall employ (subject to proper superintendence and supervision by the officers or servants of the Council) persons on the list of the distress committee of the Council under the said Act and of the Central Body as being unemployed workmen proper to be assisted or provided with employment under the said Act sent by the Central Body to be so employed by the Council to do, carry out, and complete the said work exclusively of any other workmen or labourers. And that the conditions specified in Article V. of the Regulations (Organisation for Unemployed) 1905, shall form part of the terms and conditions of the employment of the said persons upon the said work. And that the Council shall take all reasonable steps and use all reasonable means to provide and insure that the restrictions, terms, and conditions contained in Condition (1) of the said Article V. are throughout such employment observed, performed and enforced. And that the surveyor for the time being to the Council (hereinafter referred to as the Surveyor) shall certify that such restrictions, terms and conditions have been so observed, performed and enforced. And that the Central Body may as occasion requires exercise the right to withhold the contribution or any part of the contribution in this Agreement agreed to be made by the Central Body to the Council on proof to the satisfaction of the Central Body that any restriction in Condition (1) of the said Article V. has not been observed. And that the Council shall from time to time afford to the said persons employed such facilities as, in the opinion of the Central Body, are reasonable to be afforded for the purpose of putting such persons in a position to obtain regular work, or other means of supporting themselves (including reasonable permission from time to time to be absent for a reasonable specified period from the said employment in order to search for regular work, or other means of supporting themselves). And it is further agreed that the Central Body shall pay to the Council

as and being the agreed difference

between the cost of the work if done under ordinary conditions and in ordinary course, and its cost under this Agreement

(Or an agreed portion of the difference).
(Or between the cost of the work under this Agreement and its value when completed to the Council).

as follows :—

such payments shall be made

State how e.g., by monthly instalments proportionate to the work done in each month upon the certificates of the surveyor to the Council, stating the amount of each such instalment, or by four equal instalments upon the certificates of the surveyor to the Council that one-fourth, one-half, three-fourths, or the whole, as the case may be, of the work has been done, or as may be agreed.

State any special conditions as to wages.

And it is further agreed

And that in case of any dispute or difficulty in respect to or arising out of this Agreement, the same shall be referred to the determination of an arbitrator to be agreed on between the Central Body and the Council, or in default of such agreement to an arbitrator to be appointed by the Local Government Board.

(Seal of the Central Body.)

(Seal or else similar signature of Council.)

N.B.—A copy of Article V. of the Regulations (Organisation for Unemployed), 1905, herein mentioned, and which forms part of this Agreement, will be found hereunder.

APPENDIX No. VII.—*continued*.*Handed in by the Rev. J. H. Anderson. (Q. 92404 (7b).)*

EXTRACT FROM THE STATUTORY RULES AND ORDERS, 1905. No. 1071.

UNEMPLOYED WORKMEN.

The Regulations (Organisation for Unemployed), 1905. Dated October 10th, 1905.

Article V.—The conditions under which a Central Body may provide or contribute towards the provision of work under the Act shall be as follows :—

(i.) Where the Central Body provide or contribute towards the provision of temporary work for any person, the Central Body shall employ or arrange for the employment of the applicant on such terms as will enable them to enforce, and they shall, as occasion requires, enforce the observance of the following restrictions, namely :—

(a) That the work shall have for its object a purpose of actual and substantial utility.

(b) That each person employed on the work shall throughout his employment be subject to effectual supervision.

(c) That each person employed on the work shall perform every task allotted to him with diligence, and shall, throughout his employment, attain a standard of efficiency such as with due regard to his ordinary calling or occupation, and his age and physical ability, may properly be required of him.

(d) That each person employed on the work shall, as far as possible, be afforded continuous occupation thereon day by day, with such absence only as may be needed to facilitate his search for regular work or other means of supporting himself.

(e) That where the Central Body provide or contribute towards the provision of temporary work necessitating, during a period or a succession of periods comprising in each case four consecutive days at the least, continuous absence from home of the person employed, and he has a wife, child, or other dependant, the Central Body shall satisfy themselves that the cost of the lodging and maintenance of the wife, child, or other dependant will be defrayed by deduction from the remuneration of the person employed, and that he has made or will make every such agreement or arrangement as may be needed to give full effect to this restriction.

(f) That where the person employed has no wife, child, or other dependant, or has a wife, child, or other dependant, but is not employed on temporary work necessitating, during a period or a succession of periods comprising in each case four consecutive days at the least, his continuous absence from home, the total remuneration of that person for any given period of continuous work shall be less than that which would under ordinary circumstances be earned by an unskilled labourer for continuous work during the same period in the place at which the work is provided; and

(g) That where the person employed has a wife, child, or other dependant, and the remuneration of that person is subject to deduction for the purpose of defraying the cost of the lodging and maintenance of the wife, child, or other dependant, the total remuneration of the said person for any given period of continuous work shall be less than that which would, under ordinary circumstances, be earned by an unskilled labourer for continuous work during the same period in the place at which the wife, child, or other dependant is lodged and maintained.

(ii.) Where the Central Body contribute towards the provision of temporary work, their contribution shall be made on terms which will enable them to exercise, and they shall, as occasion requires, exercise the right to withhold the contribution or any part of the contribution on proof to their satisfaction that any restriction mentioned in Condition (i.) has not been observed.

(iii.) Where the Central Body provide or contribute towards the provision of temporary work in any particular case, the Central Body shall cause all such facilities as, in their opinion, are reasonable to be afforded for the purpose of putting the person for whom temporary work has been provided in a position to obtain regular work or other means of supporting himself

The Central Body, when satisfied that a person for whom temporary work has been provided has neglected to make proper use of the facilities afforded for the purpose of putting him in a position to obtain regular work or other means of supporting himself, or that the person has, without reasonable excuse, neglected or refused to avail himself of an offer of regular work or of other means of supporting himself, shall put an end to the provision of temporary work for that person.

(iv.) The Central Body may, in the case of a person for whom temporary work has been provided, put an end at any time to the provision of temporary work for that person, and shall in no case continue the provision of temporary work for more than sixteen weeks in any period of twelve months, except with the consent of the Local Government Board.

(v.) The Central Body shall contribute towards the provision of temporary work in those cases only in which the work will be provided by a local authority or public body.

(vi.) In every case in which the Central Body provide or contribute towards the provision of temporary work, the provision of temporary work shall be subject to this Regulation, and the conditions specified in this Regulation shall form part of the terms and conditions of the employment of any person under the Act or these Regulations.

APPENDIX No. VIII. (A).

Handed in by Arthur Newsholme, M.D., F.R.C.P., Medical Officer of Health for Brighton. (Q. 92354 (4)).

BOROUGH OF BRIGHTON.

NOTIFICATION OF PHTHISIS.

Reg. No. _____ Sanatorium No. _____

Name _____ Age _____

Address _____

Date of Notification _____ Doctor _____

Recommended for Sanatorium by _____

Notes by Doctor _____

Date of Admission to _____

Date of Discharge from _____

Date of change of Address _____

New Address _____

Dates of visit _____

APPENDIX No. VIII. (A)—continued.

Handed in by Arthur Newsholme, M.D., F.R.C.P., Medical Officer of Health for Brighton. (Q. 92354 (4)).

Duration and History of illness

Places of residence during illness

Occupation and workplaces during last 5 years

(a) Wages (b) Work regular

No. and Ages in same Family.	No. in 2nd Family.	History of Cough or Consumption among these.

Family History

APPENDIX No. VIII. (A)—*continued.**Handed in by Arthur Newsholme, M.D., F.R.C.P., Medical Officer of Health for Brighton. (Q. 92354 (4) .)*

Precautions :—

(1) Card _____ (2) Handkerchiefs _____

(3) Pocket spittoon _____

(4) Habits as to spitting _____

(5) Other occupants of same bedroom _____

(6) House _____

Habits as to Food and Drink _____

Further remarks _____

Likely sources of infection :—

(1) Same house _____ (4) Neighbour _____

(2) Companion _____ (5) Workmates _____

(3) Public Houses _____ (6) Others _____

APPENDIX No. VIII. (A)—*continued*.*Handed in by Arthur Newsholme, M.D., F.R.C.P., Medical Officer of Health for Brighton. (Q. 92354 (4).)*

Condition of Dwelling-house as to—

No. of available Dwelling Rooms _____

Overcrowding _____

Cleanliness	{	of walls _____
		of ceilings _____
		of floors _____
		of bedding, &c. _____

Dampness _____

Ventilation _____

Lighting, especially of Staircase _____

Size of Yard _____

Any Sanitary Defects _____

(a) Duration of each Case _____

(b) Latest exposure to infection before reputed date of onset _____

(c) Duration of exposure, &c. _____

(d) Previous exposures _____

APPENDIX No. VIII. (B).

Handed in by Arthur Newsholme, M.D., F.R.C.P., Medical Officer of Health for Brighton. (Q. 92685.)

ARRANGEMENTS FOR MEDICAL AID.

A. Non-Official Service.	B. Poor Law Guardians.	C. Sanitary Authority and its Education Committee.	D. Central Authorities.
) Friendly Societies) Slate and Allied Clubs) Private Dispensaries and Provident Clubs.) Family private practice.) Voluntary Hospitals and Dispensaries.) Consultants.	Domestic Dispensary Infirmary Treat-ment. Limited to Paupers Advanced cases of Consumption (pauper only) treated by the Guardians Vaccination Verminous persons, cleansing and disinfecting of. Lunatics — lodging, maintenance, clothing and care of majority of Asylum patients paid by Guardians.	Acute Infectious Diseases Diagnosis and Detection Bacteriological. Consultations and visits of M. O. H. Visits of M. O. H. to discover "contact" cases. Treatment in Isolation Hospitals. Provision of Nurses for home treatment. Provision of Antitoxin. Midwifery cases, Puerperal Fever and Erysipelas Payment of doctors' fees when called in by Midwives. Provision of Nurses for Home Treatment. Hospital Treatment of Puerperal Fever and Erysipelas. Inspection of Midwives. Consumption (phthisis). Bacteriological examination of sputum. Notification of cases. Giving of spit-bottles and handkerchiefs. Cleaning and disinfection of rooms Giving Hospital Letters, etc., to relatives. Providing Sanatorium training and treatment. Instruction and Direction by Municipal visitors. Infant Mortality and other health matters Instructions as to summer Diarrhœa, feeding of babies, etc., by circular and by visits to mothers after notifications of birth. General work of health visitors. Verminous persons—cleansing and disinfection of. School Doctor School Nurse Diagnosis. Intimations and advice to mothers. Treatment in School Clinics. Communicable diseases. Warning and instructional cards to mothers. Home visits. Police—attended by Police Surgeon. Lunatics—Asylums, repairs and maintenance (Landlords' charges), paid for by the Sanitary Authority. Sanitary Authority also pays for maintenance, etc., of patients whose settlement cannot be determined.	Arrange for the medical treatment of— Postal Officials. Sailors and Soldiers (if any). Coastguardsmen. Lunatics — Central Government contribute a capitation amount for maintenance of patients in Asylums.

NOTE.—Under the Heading "C" much of the Medical work and work ancillary to it is not carried out by all Sanitary Authorities.

APPENDIX No. IX.

Handel in by Mr. Sidney Webb, L.C.C. (Q. 93187.)

LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL.

INFORMATION PREPARED AT THE REQUEST OF MR. SIDNEY WEBB IN CONNECTION WITH
THE ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE POOR LAWS AND THE RELIEF OF DISTRESS, JANUARY, 1908.

NOTE.—The terms of the various items of information asked for are given in CAPITALS at
the head of each section.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF ALL THE DIFFERENT BRANCHES OF THE COUNCIL'S WORK
IN THE SPHERE OF INDUSTRIAL AND REFORMATORY SCHOOLS.

The schools are of four kinds, viz :—

- (a) Reformatory schools.
- (b) Ordinary industrial schools.
- (c) Truant schools.
- (d) Day industrial schools.

A.—REFORMATORY SCHOOLS.

The powers of the council with regard to these schools are acquired under Section III. of the Local Government Act of 1888, which transferred to county council the duties previously discharged by quarter sessions in connection with the establishment and maintenance of, and contributions to, reformatory and industrial schools. Youthful offenders under sixteen years of age who have been convicted of an offence punishable by penal servitude or imprisonment, may be "committed" to reformatory schools for a period of not less than three or more than five years, but they must not be detained after they reach the age of nineteen years. Unless they have been previously convicted, they must, on committal, be over twelve years of age and after detention for eighteen months they may be licensed out to employment.

The council has not found it necessary to establish reformatory schools of its own, but it has entered into agreements with the managers of twenty-eight schools, eighteen for boys and ten for girls. By these agreements the council undertakes to make a weekly contribution varying from 1s. 6d. to 4s. towards the maintenance of children sent from the County of London. In the cases of eight of these schools an out-fit grant of £2 is paid by the council on the satisfactory disposal of an inmate. The council's interest in reformatory schools has hitherto been confined to the contribution of the sum mentioned above. It is, however, proposed that the present arrangement shall be terminated and that a new Agreement shall be adopted under which the council will select the school to which each offender shall be committed and will be able to ensure that the education, training and general management are satisfactory, and that the disposals are suitable in every respect.

B.—ORDINARY INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS
(RESIDENTIAL).

The Elementary Education Act of 1870 gave to school boards power to contribute money to industrial schools for various purposes or to establish industrial schools of their own, and these powers were, by the Act of 1903, transferred to the council. No child over the age of fourteen years can be sent to an industrial school for any offence. Children may be sent for begging, wandering, and not having any home or settled place of abode or proper guardianship or visible means of subsistence, being found destitute, frequenting the company of reputed thieves, living in brothels, stealing or being beyond parental control. Under the Elementary Education Act of 1876, children may be sent who are "found habitually wandering, or not under proper control, or in the company of rogues, vagabonds, disorderly persons or reputed criminals." They may also be sent for non-attendance at a day school, but, in London, such children are usually

sent either to a truant school or to a day industrial school. The committals terminate in all cases when the children attain the age of sixteen. Power is given to the managers to grant to a child, after detention for eighteen months, a licence to live out of the school, and they are authorised, subject to the child's consent, to apprentice him to, or dispose of him in, any trade, calling or service; or (with the approval of the Home Secretary) by emigration, and such disposals are as valid as if the managers were his parents. All children except those sent under the Elementary Education Act, 1876, remain under the supervision of the managers of the school until they attain the age of eighteen years, and power is given to the managers to revoke a licence at any time before that age is reached, and, for his own protection, to recall a child to the school for a period of not exceeding three months.

C.—TRUANT SCHOOLS.

Truant schools are not specially recognised in any enactment, but are in reality industrial schools which have been certified by the Home Secretary solely for the reception of boys "committed" under the Elementary Education Act of 1876 for non-attendance at elementary schools. The usual practice is to commit them up to the age at which they would in the ordinary course become exempt from school attendance, viz., fourteen years, but they may at any time after the expiration of one month be licensed out on condition that they attend regularly at a day school. A boy on his first admission to a truant school is usually detained for a period of about three months, and is then licensed out. If he attends regularly at a day school no further action is taken, but, in the event of his attendance becoming irregular, his licence is revoked and he is returned to the truant school for a lengthened period of detention, usually about six months, when he is again licensed out. In the event of a boy who is over thirteen years of age being admitted or re-admitted to a truant school he is detained until he reaches the age of fourteen, in order that he may benefit as much as possible from the education and training given in the truant school before becoming exempt from attendance at school. No truant school accommodation has been provided for girls, as enquiries which were made in 1894 proved that the number of girl truants was so small that no special provision of the kind was needed. The few cases of girl truants that have to be dealt with are usually "committed" to ordinary industrial schools.

D.—DAY INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS.

These schools were authorised by the Elementary Education Act of 1876, which describes them as being schools in which industrial training, elementary education and one or more meals a day, but not lodging, are pro-

(1) Description of reformatories.

(2) Description of industrial schools.

(3) Description of truant schools.

(4) Description of industrial schools.

APPENDIX No. IX.—continued.

Handed in by Mr. Sidney Webb, L.C.C. (Q. 93187.)

vided for the children. They are administered under an Order in Council of March 20th, 1877 and children residing within 2½ miles of the school may be admitted under an Order of Detention for any of the offences (with the exception of wandering) for which they might be sent to an ordinary industrial school or for non-attendance at an ordinary day school. If the child is under eleven years of age the period of detention may be for not more than three years, or, if the child is over that age, until he attains the age of fourteen years. Children may, in addition, be admitted under an attendance order for a period of not exceeding one year, or, as "voluntary" cases, by agreement between the managers of the school and the parent.

In all the schools mentioned above under A., B., C., (5) Children or D., the children are occupied for one half of the day in the schoolroom and the other half at training in handicraft or in some industrial occupation. Children who are very young or backward attend school full time, usually until they have passed the second standard.

NUMBER OF BOYS AND GIRLS SO DEALT WITH, THEIR DIFFERENT KINDS OR SORTS, THEIR AGES.

Numbers dealt with.—The numbers of children and young persons "committed" to residential schools throughout the country during the year 1906 were as follows:— (6) Children sent to residential schools in 1906.

	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Reformatory schools - - - - -	1,297	171	1,468
Industrial schools - - - - -	2,877	890	3,767
Truant schools - - - - -	1,530	—	1,530
Totals - - - - -	5,704	1,061	6,765

As compared with the previous year there is an increase of 487 on the total number "committed."

1,967; a decrease of 23 on the number admitted in the year 1905.

The admissions to day industrial schools during the same year numbered: boys, 1,223; girls, 744; total,

The number of young persons and children dealt with by the London County Council during the year ended March 31st, 1907, is shown below:— (8) Children sent from London.

	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Reformatory schools - - - - -	134	16	150
Industrial schools - - - - -	612	202	814
Truant schools - - - - -	250	—	250
Day industrial schools - - - - -	141	27	168
Totals - - - - -	1,137	245	1,382

This number shows an increase of about 100 on the total number dealt with during the previous year.

The total numbers of children dealt with by the London education authority from 1871 to March 31st, 1907, are given below:—

Industrial schools - - - - -	23,997
Truant schools - - - - -	12,051
Day industrial schools - - - - -	1,672
Total - - - - -	37,720

Inasmuch as prior to 1889 the Justices for the several counties, parts of whose area fell within the Metropolis, were the prison authorities for the present County of London it is only possible to supply the numbers of the young persons "committed" to reformatories from London since that date, viz.: boys, 2,305; girls, 321; total, 2,626.

CLASSES OF CHILDREN.

Reformatory Schools.—The young persons committed to these schools all come under one description, viz., those under sixteen years of age "who have been convicted of an offence punishable by penal servitude or imprisonment." (See Paragraph 1.)

Industrial Schools.—The children committed to these schools may be classified as follows:—

- (a) Children of dissolute parents who exercise no control over them, with the result that they are found "wandering, etc." (See Paragraph 2.), or begging, etc.
- (b) Children of vagrants who, when not tramping the country, make their homes in common lodging-houses or in single "furnished" rooms.
- (c) Children found in brothels or living with prostitutes.
- (d) Children of respectable parents who, in consequence of being out at work all day are unable to exercise efficient supervision over them.
- (e) Children of respectable parents of weak character who are unable to control them.

Truant Schools.—Children who dislike school and who absent themselves from the ordinary elementary schools, (12) Classes of children in truant schools.
Day Industrial Schools.—Speaking generally, they are for troublesome children whose homes, however poor, are fairly decent, and for children who are falling into bad or irregular habits, through the want of proper supervision. They are not suitable for the vicious or "wandering" child or for the persistent truant. (13) Day industrial schools—classes of children.
Statistics for the country generally are not available, but the following table gives an analysis of the number sent to residential schools from London during the year ended March 31st, 1907:— (14) Ages of children sent to residential schools from London.

APPENDIX No. IX.—continued.

Handed in by Mr. Sidney Webb, L.C.C. (Q. 93187.)

Ages.	Industrial schools.			Truant Schools.	Day industrial school.			Grand Totals.
	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	
Under 3 years - - -	1	3	4	—	—	—	—	4
Over 3 and under 4 - -	6	6	12	—	—	—	—	12
„ 4 „ 5 - -	10	11	21	—	—	—	—	21
„ 5 „ 6 - -	9	9	18	—	—	—	—	18
„ 6 „ 7 - -	15	19	34	1	2	—	2	37
„ 7 „ 8 - -	30	10	40	4	3	—	3	47
„ 8 „ 9 - -	47	20	67	8	8	—	8	83
„ 9 „ 10 - -	59	21	80	35	20	—	20	135
„ 10 „ 11 - -	92	25	117	46	21	2	23	186
„ 11 „ 12 - -	95	21	116	41	24	5	29	186
„ 12 „ 13 - -	134	31	165	51	28	10	38	254
„ 13 „ 14 - -	114	26	140	64	35	10	45	249
Totals - -	612	202	814	250	141	27	168	1232

It may be mentioned that the children of tender years whom it is necessary to remove from the contaminating influences of criminal, vicious, or immoral surroundings.

COUNCIL'S OWN SCHOOLS, BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF EACH, GIVING ITS PARTICULAR FUNCTION:
(a) RESIDENTIAL SCHOOLS; AND (b) DAY INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS.

A list of the schools maintained by the Council is given below:—

Name of School.	Address.	Accommodation.
INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS.		
Feltham (boys) - - - - -	Feltham, Middlesex	600
Mayford (boys) - - - - -	near Woking, Surrey	180
Gordon House Girls' Home - - - -	Richmond Road, Isleworth	70
Home for Little Boys - - - - -	King's Avenue, Clapham Park, S.W.	30
TRUANT SCHOOLS.		
Upton House (boys) - - - - -	Urswick Road, Homerton, N.E.	150
Highbury (boys) - - - - -	Highbury Grove, N.	200
DAY INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS.		
Drury Lane (mixed) - - - - -	Goldsmith Street, Drury Lane, W.C.	200
Brunswick Road (mixed) - - - -	East India Dock Road, Poplar, E.	150
Ponton Road (mixed) - - - - -	Ponton Road, Nine Elms Lane, S.W.	150

The following is a description of each school:—
Feltham.—This school was originally established under a special Act for the reception of boys committed from the County of Middlesex. It was afterwards certified for the reception of children committed under the Industrial Schools Act of 1866. It is chiefly used for the reception of elder boys, who are committed for personal delinquencies or for offences of a comparatively serious nature. The industrial training includes farm work, shoemaking, tailoring, band instruction, carpentry, brick-laying, seamanship, cookery, baking, etc.

Mayford.—This school is now used for the reception of boys who are committed at an early age for the offences of their parents or for venial personal faults. Boys coming within the former class are first sent to the Home for Little Boys at Clapham Park, and are removed to Mayford as places are required for smaller children, whilst boys of the second description are sent direct. The junior section is entirely under the care of women,

and complete arrangements exist for the special welfare of the little boys at all times. They are gradually advanced as they progress educationally and develop physically, until they are able to take their places among the senior boys and to commence their industrial training. The trades taught are shoemaking, tailoring, carpentry, cooking, baking, and farm work. The musical instruction is a speciality; it includes string as well as wind instruments, and the majority of the boys who leave this school enter Army bands.

Gordon House Girls' Home.—This school is reserved for the reception of girls whom it is necessary to remove at a very early age from immoral homes (brothels) or from criminal or vagrant parents. As in the cases of boys at Mayford, the education and industrial work are carefully graded. Girls are specially and thoroughly trained in all matters which will fit them for domestic service and, on leaving, excellent situations at good wages are easily obtained for them.

(15) List of Council's industrial schools.

(16) Feltham.

(17) Mayford.

(18) Gordon House.

APPENDIX No. IX.—*continued.**Handed in by Mr. Sidney Webb, L.C.C. (Q. 93187.)*

Home for Little Boys.—This Home is for very young boys, whose removal from immoral homes (brothels) or vicious surroundings at an early age is imperative. The maximum age for admission is six years, but the children on admission are below that age. The Home is usually quite full, and, when it is necessary to admit a new child the oldest boy in the Home is transferred to the Mayford Industrial School, where, as already stated, the special care and attention which he has previously received are continued. The regulations provide that no boy may be retained after eight years of age, but they are usually transferred much earlier. Those boys who are old enough attend a neighbouring elementary school, and those who are too young, remain within the Home or grounds under the supervision of a nurse.

Truant Schools.—These schools are for the reception of boys who will not attend the ordinary elementary school. (See Paragraph 3). The industrial training comprises shoemaking, tailoring, carpentry, baking and laundry work. The influence exercised by the schools themselves, by the increase of the amount of the fine for non-attendance at elementary schools, and by the more stringent application of the law, has had the effect of reducing truancy to such an extent that the two schools provide ample accommodation for London cases, and the Council are also able to admit cases from outside authorities.

Day Industrial Schools.—These schools have been already described (see Paragraph 4). The occupations carried on are shoemaking, carpentry, laundry work, printing and band instruction. Owing to various circumstances, the schools have never been utilised to their full capacity, but steps are now being taken which will, it is hoped, to some extent, remedy this defect by securing the admission of a greater number of suitable "voluntary" cases.

RELATIONS BETWEEN LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL AND BOARDS OF GUARDIANS; DO THEY DEAL EVER WITH THE SAME FAMILIES (ARE ANY OF LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL FAMILIES IN RECEIPT OF ANY KIND OF POOR LAW RELIEF; IS THERE ANY INQUIRY ON THIS POINT; WOULD IT DISQUALIFY A CHILD FOR LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL); IS THERE ANY CO-OPERATION?

There is no record as to whether any of the families from which children are sent to industrial schools are in receipt of Poor Law relief—no inquiry is made by the Council upon this point and the fact of such relief being granted would not disqualify a child for admission to an industrial school.

There is at present no co-operation between the Council as education authority and boards of guardians, but concerted action between those bodies would undoubtedly result in a much more efficient and economical system of working. The chairman of the special schools sub-committee of the council (Major Skinner) will, in the course of certain evidence, which he will give to the Commission, submit a statement with regard to cases of children who, having been dealt with in some form or other, by the Poor Law authorities, afterwards come before the special schools committee on being charged at a police court with an offence under the Industrial Schools Act. The list, of which a copy is attached, shows that, during a period of twelve months, 113 cases were so charged, and that in ninety-four cases it was necessary for the safety and welfare of the children to commit them to industrial schools. It must be borne in mind that this is only a partial record of the cases of such children needing care, education, and training, as there must be many who are lost sight of after being removed by their parents from the care of the guardians. Major Skinner will also submit proposals for ensuring that where children of parents of the vagrant, dissolute, or criminal habits are admitted to workhouses, casual wards, free shelters, or common lodging-houses, it shall be the duty of the police, or of the education authority,

to take steps to charge them under the Industrial Schools Acts, but that in such cases the charge for maintenance shall not be local but national. There is, however, another phase of the matter in which a change might beneficially be made.

The Departmental Committee on Poor Law Schools which reported in 1896 was of opinion that the education, training, and disposal of children by the guardians was in many respects unsatisfactory. (Education, Paragraph 151 of Report; Industrial Training, Paragraph 166; and Paragraph 195,) and recommended the establishment of a central authority for the management of these schools which, in their opinion, would result in economy and would greatly increase their efficiency.

Local education authorities are now entrusted with the work of administering the Industrial Schools Acts. In the great majority of the latter schools there has for a long time been a gradual and continued improvement, and the education is now equal to that in elementary schools. The industrial training is given by men who are selected, not only for their skill in their particular trade, but also for their ability to teach, and it is so thorough, both practically and theoretically, that the children, on leaving, can be disposed of to good situations, chosen not only on account of the initial wage the child will receive but also with regard to his advancement.

The classes of children dealt with in Poor Law and industrial schools are practically identical, and the same remark applies to the schools which, in both cases, are, in effect, "industrial schools." The fact of children being sent to one kind or to the other is largely accidental. It is true that, in the case of an industrial school, the child has to be committed by a magistrate; but this fact alone is immaterial as, in the list above referred to, it is shown that the great majority of the children were sent to industrial schools for offences directly due to their surroundings, and that, if the law permitted, they might have been dealt with in Poor Law schools. The proposal of the Departmental Committee could, therefore, be easily and advantageously carried out by combining the two classes of schools under the management of the local education authorities. The existing accommodation would allow of children being classified and distributed in a way which is now impossible, and it would enable places to be equably utilised, and thus prevent overcrowding on the one hand and vacant places on the other. Moreover, it would be possible to set apart one or more schools for cases requiring special treatment. Such a combination is also desirable upon financial grounds. The Report of the Departmental Committee states that the average annual cost per child in residential Poor Law schools varies from £40 8s. 4d. to £16 12s. 1d. This fact would point to the need for the adoption of a uniform policy in the management of these schools, which should have the effect of either reducing a maximum which is too high or of increasing a minimum which is too low.

There are a few other matters of a more administrative character, which it is desirable to mention.

Detention.—Children sent to industrial schools are committed for a definite period, viz., up to the age of sixteen, with power of recall by the managers up to the age of eighteen.* Inmates of Poor Law schools, other than orphans, can, at any time, be withdrawn by their parents. The retention of these children, in the great majority of cases, would undoubtedly be more beneficial for the child, and also, ultimately, more economical to the State. The Poor Law Act of 1899 provides for the adoption of children by the guardians, who may by resolution, under certain specified conditions, vest in themselves all the rights and powers of parents until a child reaches the age of eighteen years. It would be necessary to extend the provisions of this Act to children of tramps or vagrants, and it might be desirable to go further and make them apply to all Poor Law children, so that, before any such child could be removed from the school, consent must be given under the clause enabling the Resolution to be rescinded, or permitting a child to be either permanently or temporarily under the control of the parents or of any other relative. This power should be trans-

* It is proposed to extend this age to twenty-one.

(24) Proposal to combine industrial and Poor Law schools.

APPENDIX No. IX.—*continued.**Handed in by Mr. Sidney Webb, L.C.C. (Q. 93187.)*

ferred to the local education authority as managers of the schools, in order to ensure that each case was dealt with purely from the point of view of the child's welfare. The following extract from the Report of the Departmental Committee (p. 88) is submitted in support of this suggestion :—

"Children of Dissolute Parents.—The workhouse or infirmary not unfrequently shelters the vicious and worthless parent, whose children receive their education in the school until they are of an age to earn money, when the parent discharges himself taking the children with him. The guardians, thereupon, lose all control over such children, although they have borne the entire cost of their maintenance and education, and are aware of the bad character of the parent, and the hazardous future awaiting the child."

Provision should also be made by which parents who possess means should be compelled to contribute towards the maintenance of their children, in the same way that parents now contribute towards the maintenance of children committed to industrial schools.

Licence.—The provisions of the Industrial Schools Acts as to licensing and revocation of licence should be extended, so as to apply to *all* children under detention in the schools under the foregoing proposals, as this would be necessary in order to enable managers of schools to secure permanent good results after the children have left the school.

The Report of the Vagrancy Commission recently issued calls attention to the fact that many children who are now allowed to remain under the care of vagrant parents might be satisfactorily dealt with by being sent to industrial schools. In a Bill which was afterwards introduced into Parliament it was, however, proposed that such children should be sent to Poor Law schools, but that the cost of their maintenance should be charged to the council of the county in which the school was situated. The placing of the schools under one central authority would give effect to both of these recommendations.

(24a) Controlling Government authority.

The inspection and general administration of industrial schools is entirely carried out by the Home Office. The inspection of the education in Poor Law schools has recently been undertaken by the Board of Education but the schools generally are under the supervision of the Local Government Board.

In the event of the foregoing proposals being adopted, the local education authority would be the sole authority responsible for dealing with all children within their district. It would be necessary for the whole of the work connected with the proposed joint schools to be carried out by one Government Department, and it is suggested that the most appropriate Department would be the Board of Education.

The result would be of twofold advantage, as there would then be one local authority and one Imperial authority, dealing entirely with children of all kinds.

It must be assumed that the additional cost to the education authority, which would be involved in the transference of the children, would be met by the allocation to them of the rate now collected for this work by the Poor Law authority.

DAY INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS.

Day industrial schools; how many; their history; their present prospects; how successful?

What are the hours, the curriculum, feeding, etc.?

What payment is exacted, how fixed, by whom collected, how much actually obtained, how many prosecutions, etc.

Proposals to extend sphere of these schools.

Are they now used by Poor Law guardians; are there any Poor Law children?

Is any inquiry made whether families are getting Poor Law relief; would it disqualify?

Do you know of any boards of guardians anywhere using these schools, as a method of providing for outdoor relief of children where the mothers have to be away all day at work, or as an alternative to trusting them with adequate money relief. Would the London County Council be willing to receive such children if the boards of guardians sent them, and at what fee?

There are twenty-one day industrial schools in the (25) United Kingdom; sixteen in England (London, three), (26) history
ber day industrial scho.
cess c.

These schools were originally day feeding schools under voluntary management and were first officially recognised in the Elementary Education Act, 1876. As a result of this Act day industrial schools first began to be (27) established by English school boards in 1878 and wherever they have been maintained the general results have been decidedly good, necessarily varying with the locality and also with the policy and attitude of the local authority by whom they are administered. The children make rapid progress with their school work and industrial training, especially having regard to the unfavourable condition of mental and physical backwardness in which they are usually admitted.

Owing probably to an insufficient acquaintance with the subject, the value of the work done in day industrial schools is not generally appreciated. It is frequently contended that inasmuch as the children return each evening to their undesirable associations in the streets and to the often more objectionable surroundings in their homes, the effect of the school is not entirely neutralised is greatly diminished. For such opinions there is, *prima facie*, plausible justification. Actual experience has proved that the conclusion is not sustained. If no discrimination were exercised in the selection of cases committed to these schools, doubtless many of them would be failures. It has been stated, (see Paragraph 13.), however, that children are not sent from vicious or immoral homes, and with regard to other homes many of them wretched and comfortless through thriftless and careless habits, it has, in numerous instances, been found that the training of the child and its acquisition of habits of cleanliness, order, and regularity, have had a beneficial influence upon the home. The children, in fact, have reformed the home and improved the habits of the parents. With regard to the evil influences of the streets, it must be admitted that, whilst, on the one hand, in some cases it would be of the greatest moral advantage to remove from them all children, it must, on the other hand, be recognised that they are no worse for the day industrial child than for the elementary school child.

In London the terms of the Order in Council have been rigidly observed, and no child has been received as a "voluntary case" whose parents had not previously entered into an agreement, enforceable at law, to pay the statutory contribution of not less than 1s per week for the maintenance of such child. In Glasgow and Liverpool it has been the practice to admit children in instances of extreme poverty without any payment from the parent or guardian, and the schools have thus become, in these instances, not only schools for the reception of delinquent children committed thereto by the magistrates, but also feeding schools for necessitous children.

For various reasons, principally because of unsuitable position, the London day industrial schools have not hitherto been utilised to their full extent for committed cases, but steps have recently been taken for the admission of "voluntary" cases on the payment by the parent of the cost of the food, which it is hoped will result in many of the vacancies being occupied.

The industrial training given in the London schools (28) D is generally recognised as being exceptionally good. posals.
No difficulty is experienced in finding suitable employment either for boys or girls, as applications from tradesmen, manufacturers, and others are frequently more numerous than can be granted. The total number of children discharged from the three day industrial schools during the year ended March 31st, 1907, on the expiration of their periods of detention, was 141. From the

APPENDIX No. IX.—continued.

Handed in by Mr. Sidney Webb, L.C.C. (Q. 93187.)

table given in paragraph 38 it will be seen that thirteen were disposed of to the Army one to the Mercantile Marine, twenty-five to trades, eight to domestic service, one to farm service, nine to factories, three to dock service, and the remainder were placed in various occupations which, with one or two exceptions, were of a permanent character.

Although the legal powers of the managers cease when

the children attain the age of fourteen years, the Council has recognised the necessity for keeping in close touch with them after they leave, and the superintendents not only procure situations for them, but also visit their homes and report on their subsequent career.

The following table furnishes information regarding the children who have left the schools during the last three years :—

School.	Total No. discharged.	Present Circumstances.								Particulars of those in employment.								Total.
		In regular employment.	Casual employment.	Attending Ordinary Elementary Sch'ls.	Sent to Residential Industrial Schools.	Emigrated.	Unknown.	Died.	Lapsed into Crime.	Discharged to Guardians.	Army.	Navy.	Trades.	Various employments.	Domestic Service.	Sea service.	Farming.	
Drury-lane ...	184	127	14	19	12	...	9	2	...	1	15	3	76	38	9	...	...	141
Brunswick-road ...	202	136	18	17	17	2	3	3	2	4	28	...	36	70	14	4	2	154
Pontoon-road ...	117	82	6	9	15	1	3	...	1	...	7	...	27	51	3	...	...	88
Total ...	503	345	38	45	44	3	15	5	3	5	50	3	139	159	26	4	2	383
Percentage...	...	76.1		9	8.7	.6	3	1	.6	1	13.05	.78	36.3	41.5	6.78	1	.5	...

The ordinary school hours are from 8 a.m. to 6 p.m., but the children may be admitted at 6 a.m., and are then under the supervision of the resident officer until the general assembly at 8 a.m.

The curriculum differs in extent only from that of the ordinary residential industrial school, and consists of school-work and industrial training in equal proportions, together with the usual recreation.

The feeding comprises three meals a day, and is in conformity with a dietary table drawn up under expert medical advice and approved by the Home Office inspector. The average cost per head in London is 1s. 8d. per week.

The parental contributions in committed cases may be a sum not exceeding 2s. a week, and for voluntary cases the minimum payment per week is fixed at 1s. The parental contributions are fixed by the magistrate at the time of making the order in "committed" cases, and are collected and retained by the local authority.

A sum of £3,201 was obtained from the parents of 3,284 children in attendance at the day industrial schools throughout the country during the year 1906, giving an average of about £1 a head. The amount collected from the parents of London County Council children during the year ended March 31st, 1907 was £410 16s. 1d., or a sum of £1 18s. 7d. per head on the average number maintained.

The number of prosecutions instituted by the council for the recovery of arrears of contribution during the same period was 132.

Steps which have already been taken to extend the sphere of these schools in London are set out in Paragraph 27.

The London day industrial schools have never been used by the Poor Law guardians.

No inquiry is made in the case of children admitted to the London schools as to whether the parents are in receipt of Poor Law relief, and if it were known that such was the case the fact would not disqualify the children from admission.

Section 16 (3) of the Elementary Education Act, 1876 provides that, in the case of children "committed" by a magistrate, if the parent is unable to pay the contribution ordered, the guardians may give him sufficient relief to enable him to pay the same, or so much of it as they consider him unable to pay.

It is not known whether boards of guardians are anywhere using these schools as a means of providing outdoor relief. The adoption of the proposals (Paragraph 23) as to all industrial and Poor Law children being dealt with by the local education authority would make it possible to utilise these schools for the reception of children whose parents (or in the case of a widow or widower, the surviving parent) have to be away from home all day and where some assistance is necessary in consequence of poverty to prevent the parent from entering the work-house or from becoming the recipient of outdoor relief. The admission of the children in such cases to a day industrial school would be more satisfactory and more economical than the granting of ordinary outdoor relief, inasmuch as the child would receive three good meals a day together with education and training such as would enable it to maintain itself on leaving. The cost of food would only be about 1s. 8d. per week, of which 6d. would be received from the Treasury, leaving the net cost at 1s. 2d. It is believed that this would be found to be a most suitable and valuable method of assisting struggling parents of good character.

OPINION AS TO RESULTS UPON THE CHILDREN, ESPECIALLY AS REGARDS THEIR SELF-SUPPORT IN AFTER LIFE; AND TO WHAT THE SUCCESS IN THIS RESPECT IS ATTRIBUTED.

The practical result of the training and care received (38) Dis- by the children is demonstrated in the following table, posals dur- showing the disposals during the year ended March 31st, ing last 1907 :— year.

[The table, which also forms part of the "Replies by the London County Council to questions as to Industrial and Reformatory Schools, &c.," will be found printed in App. No. LXXIII.]

Evidence of the fact that the good results are of a (39) Re- permanent nature is furnished by the following table, sults ten which gives information extending over a period of ten years after- years respecting all children sent by the Council who disposal. have left the schools :—

[The table, which also forms part of the "Replies by the London County Council to questions as to Industrial and Reformatory Schools, &c.," will be found printed in App. No. LXXIII.]

APPENDIX No. IX.—continued.

Handed in by Mr. Sidney Webb, L.C.C. (Q. 93187.)

At the end of three years, after a child has left the school, the further supervision of the managers is entirely voluntary. It is evident, therefore, that the managers and the superintendents of schools take a great personal interest in the careers of their old scholars and make every effort, either by correspondence or by personal visits, to keep in touch with them.

It will be noticed that the number of "unknown" cases increases year by year. It must not be assumed,

however, that these young persons are unsatisfactory. On the other hand many of them are, doubtless, doing well. The percentage of girls who are unknown is greater than that of boys and this is to a great extent due to the fact that they marry and do not desire that their former detention in an industrial school shall be known.

The following instances in which former inmates of industrial schools have done exceptionally well are of more than ordinary interest :—

Name of School.	Boy or Girl.	Particulars.
<i>Boys' Schools—</i>		
Ardwick Green - - - -	A	During past forty years has been engaged in mission work, has built a school and lodging home for girls, is a member of board of guardians, and a Justice of the Peace.
" - - - -	B	Secretary of Coffee Tavern Company.
" - - - -	C	Salesman in a large wholesale warehouse at —
" - - - -	D	Band sergeant in the Army.
" - - - -	E	Scholarship student, Royal College of Music
" - - - -	F	Art metal repoussé worker (foreman).
" - - - -	G	Cabinet maker : vice-president of local branch of first-class cabinet makers.
Blandford . - - - -	H	Superintendent of police, India.
" - - - -	I	Secretary of Y.M.C.A. (Army).
" - - - -	J	Bandmaster at industrial school.
Boys' Home - - - -	K	Army paymaster-sergeant.
" - - - -	L	Owner of a large hotel, Adelaide.
" - - - -	M	Barrack warden, Portsmouth.
" - - - -	N	Band sergeant, Royal Marines ; had charge of band on H.M.S. " Ophir " on the Prince of Wales' visit round the world.
" - - - -	O	Instructor in gymnastics, — College.
" - - - -	P	Head master, typewriting and shorthand department, — College.
" - - - -	Q	Manager of boot department, — Stores.
" - - - -	R	Soloist, Royal Horse Guards' Band.
" - - - -	S	Chief clerk, Bank, Paris.
" - - - -	T	Postmaster, Isle of Wight.
" - - - -	U	Sergeant, South African Constabulary.
" - - - -	V	Owns farm in Manitoba.
" - - - -	W	Sergeant, City police.
East London - - - -	X	Served twelve years in Army band ; afterward messenger, London County Council Education Offices ; now school attendance officer, London County Council.
" - - - -	Y	Owns farm in Canada.
" - - - -	YY	Principal of High School, near New York, and recently appointed Superintendent of a sub-division of a county under the Board of Education, United States of America.
Field-lane - - - -	Z	Relieving officer, — Union.
" - - - -	AA	Large boot and shoe manufacturer, in a prosperous way of business. Trade learnt at school.
Macclesfield - - - -	AB	Prosperous man of business in trade learnt whilst at the school.
" - - - -	AC	Is a B.Sc., F.I.C., and F.C.S. ; manager of Government cordite works, India.
" - - - -	AD	Foreman brushmaker.
" - - - -	AE	In charge of Passenger Traffic Office, Brooklyn.
" - - - -	AF	Owns farm in Canada value £1,000.
" Mount Edgumbe " - - - -	AG	Proprietor of two large hosiery and outfitting shops in South-west London.
" " - - - -	AH	Gunner, Channel Fleet.
" " - - - -	AI	Torpedo gunner (warrant rank).
" " - - - -	AJ	Bandmaster on a training ship.
" " - - - -	AK	Apprenticed to Merchant Service ; now holds captain's certificate.
<i>Girls' Schools—</i>		
Elm House - - - -	A	Assistant matron, Girls' Industrial School.
St. Mary's - - - -	B	Nursery governess, Mexico (now married).
" - - - -	C	Nursery governess, France.
" - - - -	D	Teacher London County Council school.
" - - - -	E	Teacher in High School (Colonial appointment).

(40) Reasons for successful disposals and careers.

The success in regard to disposals and after careers may be attributed to the fact that the industrial school child is under care and training uninterruptedly from the time of his entry into the school until his final disposal and that he cannot, in the meantime, be removed

by his parents. The education and training is progressively and methodically carried on throughout his school course. The general training is systematic. The individual child is studied as to his fitness for any particular calling or occupation ; his life in the school, the

APPENDIX No. IX.—continued.

Handed in by Mr. Sidney Webb, L.C.C. (Q. 93187.)

discipline, instruction, recreation and feeding are all arranged with the sole object of making him reliant and self-supporting.

When a child reaches the age of fourteen years and nine months, a full report with regard to his educational attainments, industrial occupations, conduct, mental capacity and physical condition must be furnished to the council, together with a suggestion by the managers as to the most suitable age and manner of disposal. With this information before them the council is able to come to a decision in each case, which the managers undertake to carry out. If it is subsequently found that effect cannot be given to this decision, the case is re-submitted with an explanation and an alternative method of disposal is decided upon. From the time a child leaves the school until he reaches the age of eighteen years he is kept under observation by the managers who submit a periodical report to the council in every case.

The reasons for the success of industrial school children in after-life may be summarised as follows:—

- (1) Continuous treatment of the child in the school and the non-interference of parents.

(2) The formation of character by the general system of training and education and the preparation of the child for final disposal.

(3) The care exercised in the disposal as to the choice of suitable occupations.

(4) The supervision by the superintendent or matron and managers; the watchful eye and the helping hand during a compulsory period of three or four years after leaving the school and voluntary supervision for an indefinite time afterwards.

(5) The fact that information as to each case must be furnished to the Council from the time a child is eligible for disposal until he attains the age of eighteen years.

CERTIFIED SCHOOLS USED BY THE COUNCIL; HOW MANY; DESCRIBE AGREEMENTS AND EXPERIENCE AS TO THEM; HOW INSPECTED.

The following is a list of the reformatory and industrial schools with which the council has agreements:—

(a) Reformatories.

Name and situation.	Total number of London boys or girls in school on September 30th, 1907.	Total accommodation.
<i>Protestant boys (348).</i>		
1. "Akbar" Reformatory Ship, Rock Ferry, near Birkenhead - - -	32	210
2. Bedfordshire Reformatory, Carlton, Bedford - - -	35	80
3. "Cornwall," Thames Reformatory School Ship, off Purfleet - -	64	260
4. <i>Devon and Exeter, Whipton, Exeter</i> - - -	—	55
5. Herts Reformatory, Chapmore End, Ware - - -	45	80
6. Kingswood Reformatory, near Bristol - - -	15	140
7. <i>Leeds Reformatory, Adel, near Leeds</i> - - -	—	150
8. Liverpool Farm School, Newton-le-Willows - - -	4	150
9. Fylde Farm (late Manchester and Salford Reformatory), Poulton-le-Fylde, Preston.	—	90
10. Monmouthshire Reformatory, near Pontypool - - -	2	35
11. <i>Northampton Reformatory, Tiffeld, Towcester</i> - - -	—	50
12. Philanthropic Society's Farm School, Redhill - - -	151	300
13. Stoke Farm Reformatory, Bromsgrove - - -	—	80
14. Wiltshire, Warminster - - -	—	100
<i>Jewish boys (20).</i>		
15. North-Eastern Reformatory, Netherton, Morpeth, Northumberland -	20	210
<i>Roman Catholic boys (55).</i>		
16. Birkdale Farm School, Ainesdale, near Southport - - -	—	200
17. National Nautical School, Farnworth, near Wednes - - -	6	120
18. St. John's (late St. Edward's) Reformatory, Walthamstow - -	49	180
<i>Protestant girls (28).</i>		
1. Dalry House Reformatory, Loanhead, Edinburgh - - -	—	45
2. Devon and Exeter Reformatory and Refuge, Exeter - - -	—	60
3. House of Refuge, East Chapelton, near Glasgow - - -	—	60
4. Liverpool Reformatory, Mount Vernon-green, Liverpool - -	16	80
5. Red Lodge Reformatory, Bristol - - -	—	45
6. Reformatory School, Blackhorse Lane, Ipswich - - -	11	45
7. <i>Sunderland Reformatory</i> - - -	1	52
8. <i>Toxteth Park Reformatory, Liverpool</i> - - -	—	60
<i>Roman Catholic girls (5).</i>		
9. Arno's Court Reformatory, near Bristol, Gloucester - - -	5	90
10. Lancashire Reformatory, May Place, Old Swan, Liverpool - -	—	75

(a) With regard to the schools printed in italics, the contracts to take further cases have expired.

APPENDIX No. IX.—*continued**Handed in by Mr. Sidney Webb, L.C.C. (Q. 93187.)**Industrial Schools.*

[Name of School.	Address.	Total Accommodation.	Number of London County Council cases under detention on March 31st, 1907.
<i>Schools for Boys other than Roman Catholic.</i>			
Albert - - - - -	Corporation Road, Birkenhead - -	120	1
Ardwick Green - - - - -	Ardwick Green, near Manchester -	200	84
Barnes Home - - - - -	Heaton Mersey, near Manchester -	275	119
Bath - - - - -	Twerton, Bath - - - - -	180	69
Blandford [Dorset County Council] -	Milborne St. Andrew's, near Blandford.	60	27
Boys' Home - - - - -	Regent's Park Road, N.W. - -	140	124
Buxton - - - - -	Buxton Lamas, near Norwich - -	90	9
Church Farm Boys' Home - - -	East Barnet - - - - -	90	47
Clifton - - - - -	Hotwells Road, Clifton Wood, Bristol -	200	85
"Clio" Training Ship - - - - -	Off Bangor, North Wales - - -	260	8
Desford [County Borough of Leicester].	Desford, near Leicester - - -	200	59
East London - - - - -	Brookbank Road, Lewisham, S.E. -	150	151
Field Lane - - - - -	Hillfield Road, West Hampstead, N.W.	130	111
Hayes (Jewish cases only) - - -	Hayes, Middlesex - - - - -	60	42
Hereford - - - - -	Bath Street, Hereford - - - -	125	79
Leeds (Shadwell) [County Borough of Leeds].	Moortown, Leeds - - - - -	180	4
Macclesfield - - - - -	Brook Street, Macclesfield - -	150	44
Middlesbrough [County Borough of Middlesbrough].	Linthorpe, Middlesbrough - - -	60	2
Milton Children's Home (Protestant Nonconformists only).	Farnborough, Hants - - - - -	150	11
"Mount Edgecumbe" Training Ship -	Off Saltash, Cornwall - - - -	250	134
National Nautical School (formerly "Formidable" Training Ship).	Portishead, near Bristol - - -	350	43
Purbrook Boys' Farm Home - - -	Purbrook, Cosham, Hants - - -	95	11
Shustoke [Birmingham City Council] -	Coleshill, near Birmingham - - -	160	4
Standon Bridge Boys' Farm Home -	Standon Bridge, near Eccleshall, Stafford.	90	1
Stockport (Protestant Nonconformists only).	Offerton, Stockport - - - - -	150	24
Toxteth Park - - - - -	77, Grafton Street, Toxteth Park, Liverpool.	200	8
Walsham-le-Willows - - - - -	Near Bury St. Edmund's, Suffolk -	40	18
Werrington [Staffordshire County Council].	Werrington, near Stoke - - - -	160	26
York - - - - -	Marygate, Bootham, York - - -	120	19
<i>Roman Catholic Boys.</i>			
Bishop Brown Memorial - - - -	Stockport - - - - -	100	68
Cannington - - - - -	Cannington, near Bridgwater - -	100	60
St. Nicholas - - - - -	Manor House, Little Ilford, Essex -	250	112
St. Vincent's - - - - -	Dartford, Kent - - - - -	200	185
St. Vincent's Branch School for Little Boys	Northwood Road, Whitstable - -	50	47
Total (Boys) - - -		5,285	1,836
<i>Schools for Girls other than Roman Catholic.</i>			
Bath - - - - -	17, Walcot Parade, Bath - - -	80	41
Cold Ash - - - - -	Hill House, Cold Ash, near Newbury -	30	2
Coventry Girls' Home - - - - -	Leicester Street, Coventry - - -	50	23
Elm House (late School of Discipline)	Parson's Green, Fulham, S.W. - -	40	24
"Greenwood" - - - - -	Halstead, Essex - - - - -	70	46
Jewish (Girls) - - - - -	69, Stamford Hill, N. - - - -	30	7
"King Edward" - - - - -	Andrews Road, Cambridge Heath N.E.	120	64
Leeds, Beckett Home - - - - -	Meanwood, Leeds - - - - -	30	14
Lichfield [Staffordshire County Council].	Lichfield - - - - -	55	29
Liverpool - - - - -	39, Northumberland Terrace, Liverpool.	100	3
Maurice Girls' Home - - - - -	7, Mattock Lane, Ealing, W. - -	30	15
Plymouth - - - - -	16, Portland Villas, Plymouth - -	55	35
Pole - - - - -	West Street, Poole, Dorset - - -	100	62
Portsmouth and South Hants - - -	Waterlooville, Cosham, Hants - -	36	28
Princess Mary Village Homes - - -	Addlestone, near Weybridge - - -	180	85

APPENDIX No. IX.—*continued.**Divided in by Mr. Sidney Webb, L.C.C. (Q. 93187.)*

Name of School.	Address.	Total Accommodation.	Number of London County Council cases under detention on March 31st, 1907.
Sale - - - - -	Sale, near Manchester - - - - -	100	33
<i>Shipton - under - Wychwood (previously at Hemel Hempstead).</i>	<i>Oxfordshire - - - - -</i>	36	5
Stanhope House - - - - -	14, Somerset Street, Kingsdown, Bristol.	60	39
Stockport - - - - -	Dialstone Lane, Stockport - - - - -	65	10
Thorparch [County Borough of Leeds]	Thorparch, near Leeds - - - - -	100	15
York - - - - -	Lowther Street, York - - - - -	50	19
<i>Roman Catholic Girls.</i>			
Nazareth House - - - - -	Isleworth, Middlesex - - - - -	120	49
St. Elizabeth's - - - - -	Salisbury - - - - -	110	9
<i>St. Joseph's - - - - -</i>	<i>Howard Hill, Sheffield - - - - -</i>	120	2
St. Mary's - - - - -	Wellesley Road, West Croydon - - - - -	150	128
Total (Girls) -		1,917	787
Total (Boys and Girls) -		7,202	2,323

The Council has ceased to send children to those schools printed in italics.

The agreements with the reformatory schools were entered into by the council, as prison authority, before it became the local education authority. (For conditions of agreement see Paragraph 1.)

The present agreement with the managers of industrial schools was adopted in 1905. It provides for the admission of cases sent by the council on payment of sums varying according to the degree of efficiency attained by the school. The Treasury contribution is supplemented so as to make a total weekly sum of 10s. for boys schools of the highest and 8s. for those of the lowest grade. The amount in the cases of girls' schools is 1s. lower in each case. The schools are assessed annually upon reports furnished by the council's officers, who examine the children as to their education and progress and also inquire into the industrial training, food, clothing, health,

domestic arrangements, sanitary condition, etc. The council appoint a representative upon the committee of management of each school who submits an annual report, and who is also expected when necessary to inform them at other times of any matter which comes under his notice. The question of disposals is dealt with in Paragraphs 38 to 42; but it may be mentioned that in each case approved by them the council make an outfit grant of £3 and also a weekly licensing allowance for thirty-nine weeks (amounting to 52s. in all) to enable the managers efficiently to supervise the children during the critical period following their leaving the school.

The council's agreement has proved a most valuable instrument in raising the industrial schools to a high standard of efficiency.

ARE THERE POOR LAW CHILDREN IN THESE PARTICULAR SCHOOLS; HOW MANY; WHICH UNIONS DO THEY COME FROM; DO THEY DIFFER FROM THE LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL CHILDREN IN ANY WAY; IS THERE ANY OBJECTION TO MIXING POOR LAW AND LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL CHILDREN.

At some of these industrial schools there are children who have been sent by Poor Law guardians, but the council has no official information as to the number of schools receiving such children or as to the number of children who are inmates of the schools.

Speaking generally they do not differ from the children sent by education authorities. This question and also that relating to the children of both classes being dealt with in the same schools is explained fully in Paragraph 23.

CONTRIBUTIONS FROM: (a) PARENTS OR OTHER RELATIONS; (b) OTHER PERSONS; HOW MUCH ORDERED TO BE PAID AND HOW DETERMINED; BY WHOM COLLECTED; IN WHAT PROPORTION ACTUALLY RECEIVED; GIVE INSTANCES OF PROSECUTIONS; HOW MANY PROSECUTIONS?

Parental contributions towards the maintenance of children committed to reformatory or industrial schools are fixed by magistrates either at the time the child is sent away or at a later date. The maximum is fixed by the Reformatory or Industrial Schools Act respectively at 5s. a week, but it is very rare that an order for the full amount is made. The amounts are collected by the agents of the inspector of reformatory and industrial

schools and go to the relief of the Treasury contribution. From the report of the inspector of industrial schools for 1906, it appears that the sum collected amounts to £1 13s. 11d. per head in reformatory and £1 5s. 2d. per head in industrial school cases, but it is not known what proportion this bears to the amount ordered. The prosecutions are instituted by officers of the Government who alone can furnish this information.

APPENDIX No. X.
Handed in by Professor Sadler, Manchester. (Q. 93386 (36)).
 I.—TABLE SHOWING THE CONDITIONS OF ATTENDANCE AT CONTINUATION SCHOOLS IN DIFFERENT PARTS OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

State.	Compulsory or Voluntary.	Stipulations regarding Boys and Girls.	Age limit for Compulsory Attendance.	Minimum No. of weeks per year and of hours per week.	Remarks.
Prussia	Compulsory by local bye-law since 1874	Compulsory for boys and girls if stipulated by local bye-law	17 to 18 years as stipulated by local bye-law	40 weeks, 4-6 lessons per wk.	Attendance compulsory by local bye-law except in the provinces of Posen and West Prussia, where compulsory attendance is established by State law.
Bavaria	Compulsory by State law since 1803	Compulsory for boys and girls	Boys up to 17th year; girls up to 16th year	Boys 40 weeks of 8 hours per wk.; girls 3 hours, 2 hours per wk.	No lessons allowed after 7 p.m.
Saxony	Compulsory by State law since April 24, 1873	For boys only	Up to 17th year	1909 Law prescribes minimum 280 hrs.	Some towns have the privilege of a 2 years' compulsory attendance with a minimum of 6 hours per week for 40 weeks
Württemberg	Compulsory by State law of May 22, 1895	Compulsory for boys and girls	Boys up to 18 years; girls up to 16 years		The General Continuation Schools compulsory for boys and girls up to 16th year. Minimum number of lessons = 80 per annum. The Industrial Continuation Schools compulsory for boys till 18 years. Minimum number of hours now 180; from 1909 = 280 hours per annum. Afternoon lessons, no evening lessons.
Baden	Sunday Schools compulsory by State law since 1756; Industrial Continuation Schools since February 18, 1874	Compulsory for boys and girls	Boys up to 16 years; girls up to 15 years	42 weeks, 2 hours per wk.	Commercial Continuation Schools compulsory since 1902 at Karlsruhe. Usual number of lessons for boys and girls 3 per week. No evening lessons. Girls' compulsory Continuation Schools 1 year's attendance.
Hesse	Compulsory by State law of June 16, 1874	Compulsory for boys only	Up to 17th year (3 years)	40 weeks, 6 hours per wk.	No lessons on Sunday, Monday and Saturday. Establishment of Continuation Schools for girls left to the communities. No lessons after 7 p.m.
Saxe-Weimar	Compulsory by State law of June 24, 1874	Compulsory for boys only	Up to 16 years for General C. Schools	40 weeks, 4 hours per wk.	General Continuation Schools compulsory for 2 years; Industrial Continuation Schools compulsory for 3 years. The former compulsory by State law, the latter by local bye-law.
Saxe-Meiningen	Compulsory by State law of March 22, 1895	Compulsory for boys and girls	Up to 16th year	40 weeks, 2 hours per wk.	Rural communities winter schools only.
Saxe-Altenburg	Compulsory by local bye-law since February 12, 1889	Compulsory for boys only	Up to 16th year	2 years of 40 weeks with 6 hours per wk.	The local bye-laws date generally from 1900 and 1902.
Saxe-Coburg-Gotha	Compulsory by local bye-law since October 27, 1874	Compulsory for boys only	Up to 17th year	40 weeks of 2-6 hours per week	Since July 24, 1897, girls can be compelled to attend Continuation Schools.
Anhalt	Compulsory by local bye-law since 1874	Compulsory for boys only	Up to 16 and 17 years	4-6 hours per week, 42 wks.	There are winter schools with compulsory attendance 8 hours per week.
Brunswick	Compulsory by local bye-law, for commercial employees since 1878, for young men in industries since 1904	Compulsory for boys only	Up to 18 years	42 weeks, 6 hours per week	Most of the Industrial Schools compulsory since 1822.
Oldenburg	Compulsory by local bye-law since 1874	Compulsory for boys only	Up to 18 years	4 to 8 hours per week, 40 wks.	Most of the schools compulsory since 1897.
Mecklenburg-Schwerin	Compulsory by State law of April 18, 1905	Compulsory for boys only	Up to 18 years	No stipulation	Lessons must take place not later than 9 p.m.
Mecklenburg-Strelitz	Compulsory by local bye-law since 1873	Compulsory for boys only	Up to 17 years	42 weeks, 4-8 hours per week	Compulsory Schools mostly established since 1894.
Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt	Compulsory by local bye-law since 1875	Compulsory for boys only	Up to 16 years	42 weeks, 2-6 hours per week	The State law compels every community to have compulsory Continuation Schools.
Schwarzburg-Sondershausen	Compulsory by State law since 1874	Compulsory for boys only	Up to 18 years	42 weeks, 4 hours per week	For girls there are only sewing lessons Continuation Schools compulsory only during winter months.
Waldeck	Compulsory by State law since July 9, 1855	Compulsory for boys and girls	Boys up to 16 years; girls up to 16 years	24 weeks of 4 hrs. for boys, 2 hrs. for girls	In 1900 the State law compelled the communities to establish compulsory Continuation Schools.
Reuss, Junior Branch	Compulsory by local bye-law since 1874; by State law since 1900	Compulsory for boys only	Up to 16 years	42 weeks of 2 hours per week	Attendance at Continuation Schools is voluntary for boys, but employers are compelled by the law of June 30, 1900, to grant their employees the necessary time up to their 18th year.
Reuss, Elder Branch	Voluntary	—	—	—	
Schaumburg-Lippe	Voluntary	—	—	—	
Lippe	Compulsory by local bye-law since 1874	Compulsory for boys only	Up to 17 years	42 weeks, Winter 10 hours; Summer 2 hrs.	
Hamburg	Voluntary	—	—	—	
Lübeck	Voluntary	—	—	—	
Bremen	Compulsory since April 1st, 1908	Compulsory for boys only	Up to 18 years	40 weeks of 4-6 hours per week	The Guilds compel the apprentices to attend the Continuation Schools. Compulsory through guilds.
Alsace-Lorraine					Compulsory attendance compulsory in 1895, Mulhausen in 1883, Metz in 1890.

APPENDIX No. XI. (A).

Handed in by Messrs. W. F. Hamilton, K.C., and Walter Lloyd Jones. (Q. 93611) (2).

Number of Homeless and Destitute Men dealt with in Church Army Labour Homes, from January 1st, 1903, to September 30th, 1907; their previous record and their record with this Society.

ADMISSION ORDERS ISSUED.

Homes.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906. 9 months.	1906-7. 12 months.
London - - - - -	1,862	2,154	1,927	1,642	2,012
Provinces - - - - -	3,229	3,726	4,295	4,020	4,666
* Total - - - - -	5,091	5,880	6,222	5,662	6,678
Orders not presented - - -	241	169	180	144	156
Men admitted - - - - -	4,850	5,711	6,042	5,518	6,522

For results see below.

PREVIOUS RECORD OF THE APPLICANTS.

	1903.		1904.		1905.		1906.		1906-7.	
	Ldn.	Prov.	Ldn.	Prov.	Ldn.	Prov.	Ldn.	Prov.	Ldn.	Prov.
Had never been in Prison or Workhouse	984	1,322	1,035	1,023	819	1,634	713	1,536	901	1,397
Had been in Workhouse or Casual Ward - - -	501	1,276	632	1,845	568	1,723	486	1,648	585	2,207
Had been in Prison -	377	631	487	858	540	938	443	836	526	1,062
	1,862	3,229	2,154	3,726	1,927	4,295	1,642	4,020	2,012	4,666
* Total - - -	5,091		5,880		6,222		5,662		6,678	

RECORD OF MEN WITH THE CHURCH ARMY.

	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1906-7.	TOTAL.
Total men admitted - - - -	4,850	5,711	6,042	5,518	6,522	28,643
Men who failed to pass the three days' work test - - - - -	594	960	787	637	658	3,636
* Men entered on Books as Inmates - -	4,256	4,751	5,255	4,881	5,864	25,007
<i>Deduct—</i>						
Men remaining in the Homes at end of year and	731	779	948	836	722	4,016
Men transferred to other Institutions - -	123	184	188	144	181	820
Net total passed out of Home after average stay of about 8 weeks -	3,402	3,788	4,119	3,901	4,961	20,171

* For Occupations of Inmates see Appendix B.

APPENDIX No. XI. (A)—continued.

Handed in by Messrs. W. F. Hamilton, K.C., and Walter Lloyd Jones. (Q. 93611) (2).

RECORD OF THE MEN PASSED OUT OF THE HOMES AFTER AVERAGE STAY OF 8 WEEKS.

	1903	1904	1905	1906	1906-7	TOTAL.
GOOD CASES :—						
Obtained situations - - - - -	1,259	1,381	1,426	1,236	1,639	6,941
Restored to friends - - - - -	132	161	196	152	205	846
Emigrated - - - - -	51	80	121	479	112	843
Joined Army or Navy - - - - -	49	80	72	78	56	326
	1,482	1,702	1,815	1,945	2,012	8,956
DOUBTFUL CASES :—						
Left to seek work - - - - -	1,471	1,505	1,660	1,420	2,024	8,080
Left time expirea - - - - -	32	28	45	42	82	229
	1,503	1,533	1,705	1,462	2,106	8,309
BAD CASES :—						
Dismissed - - - - -	375	479	551	462	782	2,649
Absconded - - - - -	33	62	33	28	50	206
Arrested - - - - -	9	12	15	4	11	51
	417	553	599	494	843	2,906
Total - - -	3,402	3,788	4,119	3,901	4,961	20,171

ANALYSIS OF LABOUR HOME CASES FOR THE PERIOD OF FOUR YEARS AND NINE MONTHS.

29,533 Orders were issued for admission to homes.
890 of these (3 per cent.) were not presented.

28,643 men were admitted to the Homes.
3,636 (14 per cent.) of these failed to pass the work test, and left within three days.
4,836 (17 per cent.) were passed to other Institutions, or were remaining in Homes at the end of the period.

20,171 passed out of the Homes, after an average stay of about eight weeks each.

GOOD CASES.

8,956 (44 per cent.) of the latter obtained situations, or were otherwise restored.

DOUBTFUL.

8,309 (41 per cent.) left to seek work after eight weeks' stay. Conduct and industry satisfactory during the period. A number of the men in this class are very excellent cases, who obtain work, and do not wish the Society to know where they are.

BAD CASES.

2,906 (15 per cent.) were dismissed, or left unsatisfactorily.

20,171 TOTAL.

Homeless and destitute men admitted into Receiving Homes or provided with food and lodgings in return for work done at Labour Tents, etc. :—

TOTAL ADMISSIONS.

	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906. (nine months.)	1907. (twelve months.)	Total.
London - - -	41,066	115,754	312,281	114,488	69,099	652,688
Provinces - - -	3,083	16,171	17,858	11,540	6,281	54,933
Total - - -	44,149	131,925	330,139	126,028	75,380	707,621

APPENDIX No. XI. (A)—continued.

Handed in by Messrs. W. F. Hamilton, K.C., and Walter Lloyd Jones. (Q. 93611) (2).

MARRIED MEN PROVIDED WITH DAY WORK AT LABOUR RELIEF DEPOTS AND NUMBER OF DAYS' WORK GIVEN.

	1903.		1904.		1905.		1906.		1907.	
	Men.	Days.	Men.	Days.	Men.	Days.	Men.	Days.	Men.	Days.
London - - -	1,973	15,060	5,379	29,438	19,147	74,252	21,619	89,113	13,680	61,391
Provinces - - -	825	7,233	1,537	14,661	4,723	35,907	4,609	37,637	5,234	51,603
Total - - -	2,798	22,293	6,916	44,099	23,870	110,159	26,228	126,750	18,914	112,994

APPENDIX No. XI. (B).

Handed in by Messrs. W. F. Hamilton, K.C., and Walter Lloyd Jones. (Q. 93611 (6)).

CHURCH ARMY.

OCCUPATIONS OF INMATES OF LABOUR HOMES.

Description as per Census Schedule.	1903.		1904.		1905.		1906.		1907.	
	Ldn.	Prov.	Ldn.	Prov.	Ldn.	Prov.	Ldn.	Prov.	Ldn.	Prov.
General or Local Government - - - -	20	3	5	9	14	6	6	9	11	2
Professional occupations and their subordinate services.	36	50	35	64	36	50	31	45	16	20
Domestic offices or services - - - - -	132	215	180	271	160	294	151	305	190	374
Commercial occupations - - - - -	144	186	207	151	181	190	162	188	236	244
Conveyance of men, goods and messages - -	230	243	225	253	195	302	172	320	195	451
Agriculture - - - - -	2	8	7	15	8	21	5	44	61	34
Fishing - - - - -	-	-	2	1	-	1	-	2	-	-
In and about mines, quarries, etc. - - - -	1	33	2	40	4	44	3	31	6	47
Metals, machines, implements and conveyances -	70	258	59	293	44	274	46	268	31	327
Precious metals, jewels, watches, instruments and games.	3	2	6	18	4	15	7	26	11	9
Building and works of construction - - - -	102	293	115	312	95	394	84	347	55	195
Wood, furniture, fittings and decorations - -	24	40	41	73	30	84	16	93	38	274
Brick, cement, pottery and glass - - - - -	-	5	-	9	3	10	3	12	4	68
Chemicals, oil, grease, soap, resin, etc. - - -	2	5	9	14	6	18	4	22	14	23
Skins, leather, hair and feathers - - - - -	7	20	2	20	11	24	6	23	1	17
Paper, prints, books and stationery - - - -	24	53	34	41	26	55	16	33	25	61
Textile fabrics - - - - -	5	18	4	41	3	45	-	32	6	35
Dress - - - - -	45	117	44	126	48	121	36	132	83	219
Food, tobacco, drink and lodging - - - - -	88	132	65	117	79	160	81	168	96	289
Gas, water and electricity supply and sanitary service	1	-	3	2	2	10	3	14	25	25
Other general and undefined workers (nearly all "labourers.")	398	1,241	460	1,376	455	1,733	345	1,590	410	1,636
Total - - - - -	1,334	2,922	1,505	3,246	1,404	3,851	1,177	3,704	1,514	4,350

APPENDIX No. XI. (C).

Handed in by Messrs. W. F. Hamilton, K.C., and Walter Lloyd Jones. (Q. 93611) (29).

AGREEMENT.

I hereby undertake to obey cheerfully all the rules and regulations of the Church Army Labour Home, and I enter it with the determination to make an honest endeavour to live a truly Christian life. I hereby pledge myself to be a total abstainer, on no account to enter a public-house, and to attend morning and evening prayers. I agree to be satisfied with the pay allotted to me. In the event of my leaving the home without an approved situation, or without the captain's permission, or being dismissed for breaking my total abstinence pledge, or for idleness, disobedience, insubordination, or any other breach of the rules and regulations, I agree to forfeit

any monies placed to my credit, which monies shall go towards the emigration of deserving persons. I undertake to do my best, after the first month, to obtain work for myself independently of all help from the Church Army; * during the third month to be satisfied with half-pay, and during the fourth month with no pay at all in excess of board and lodging *

(Signed)

* This part of the Agreement has not been enforced for many years, and will be omitted when a new form of Agreement is prepared.

APPENDIX No. XI. (D).

Handed in by Messrs. W. F. Hamilton, K.C., and Walter Lloyd Jones. (Q. 93611) (32).

REGULATIONS OF THE CHURCH ARMY LABOUR HOME.

1. Every man on entering the home must have a bath and have his clothes thoroughly cleansed. He must take a hot bath weekly, and do his best to be neat during the time he remains in the home. Any man finding himself unclean should report himself immediately to the captain, when every facility will be afforded for strict cleanliness. He must also become a total abstainer and must not enter a public-house on any pretext whatever.

2. At 6 a.m. on weekdays and 7 a.m. on Sundays everyone is expected to rise, and all beds must be examined, turned over, and put in order, and washing and dressing ended in time for prayers at 8 a.m. Breakfast is at 8.30 a.m.; dinner at 1 p.m.; tea at 6 p.m.; prayers at 9.20 p.m. (by which time every man must be in the house) and supper at 9.30. Strict silence must be observed in the dormitories after 10, and lights will be put out at that hour, when everyone must be in bed. Every man must be at meals immediately the bell rings, and no man must begin the meal before grace is said, nor leave the table until after the thanksgiving.

3. Work is done from 6.15 a.m. to 7.45 a.m., 9 a.m. till 1 p.m., and 2 p.m. to 6 p.m. On Saturdays from 6.15 p.m. to 7.45 a.m., and from 9 a.m. to 1 p.m. Brothers will assist the orderly and cook on Sunday mornings to do what work is necessary.

4. Everyone must attend service in the parish church on Sunday mornings. Attendance at the mission hall is compulsory on the evenings of Sundays, and at least one week night either at the Mission Hall service or the week night church service. If the inmate be either Roman Catholic, or Nonconformist, he may attend his own service on Sunday mornings if the priest, minister or some person in authority signs a letter certifying each separate attendance.

5. Brothers can smoke after 6 p.m., but at no time is smoking allowed, either in the workshop or dormitories. No frivolous talk or bad language is allowed. Brothers falling sick must on no account stay in the labour home; the captain will make arrangements for sending them to the hospital.

6. Every man is expected to earn 6s. a week for his board, washing and lodging. All monies (with the exception of 1s. a week given him for pocket money)

earned over this amount will be placed to his credit in the reserve fund.

7. Any man leaving the home without an approved situation, or without the captain's permission, or being dismissed for breaking his total abstinence pledge, or for idleness, disobedience, insubordination, or any other breach of the rules and regulations will forfeit all benefits, including any monies placed to his credit.

8. No brother having left the home shall be eligible for readmission to any Church Army home for at least twelve months.

9. Any brother having previously been in a Church army labour home, and concealing the fact, will, on detection, be instantly dismissed, and be subject to the penalties in Rule 7. Unless by special arrangement no man can remain in the home for more than four months. During the first month he is not expected to go out for the purpose of seeking a situation, but during the second and subsequent months he may, in certain cases, obtain leave for the purpose; such leave, however, must be at the captain's discretion, and ought not to exceed two hours on any one day.

10. No brother can remain in the home after the first week unless he earns his board, washing and lodging.

11. No brother—as an employee of the society—is allowed to receive payment for the Church Army on account of work done by himself.

12. Every brother must distinctly understand that no purchases can be made by him on Sundays.

13. Any infringement whatever of these rules and regulations will render the brother offending liable to instant dismissal.

14. The captain appointed is in absolute command, and his regulations, together with the orders of the matron and foreman, must be carried out. All are expected to be respectful to those in authority.

15. No complaints will be considered unless made in writing, and addressed to the hon. secretary of the Social Department at headquarters.

For the Central Committee,

Hon. Social Secretary.

APPENDIX No. XI. (E).

Handled in by Messrs. W. F. Hamilton, K.C., and Walter Lloyd Jones. (Q. 93611) (61).

OCCUPATIONS OF MEN EMIGRATED DURING SEASON 1907.

Agent - - -	1	Drivers - - -	2	Joiners - - -	5	Salesmen - - -	1
Bakers - - -	9	Electrical Engineers	4	Labourers - - -	344	Sawyers - - -	2
Barber - - -	1	Engineers - - -	4	Lathe Worker - -	1	Seamen - - -	4
Barman - - -	1	Engineer's Fitters	3	Laundryman - - -	1	Signalmen - -	1
Basket Maker -	1	Engine Cleaners -	2	Lightermen - - -	2	Stove Finishers	4
Bath Attendant	1	Envelope Cutter -	1			Soldiers - - -	5
Blacksmiths -	5	Errand Boys - - -	6	Machinists - - -	4	Stokers - - -	7
Bricklayers - -	23			Machine Minder -	1	Stablemen - -	2
Brushmaker - -	1	Farmers - - -	3	Messenger - - -	1	Stonemason - -	1
Butchers - - -	4	Firemen - - -	2	Miller - - -	1	Stud Grooms -	14
Butler - - -	1	Fishmongers - - -	3	Milkman - - -	1	Shop Boys - -	2
		Fitters - - -	2	Motorist - - -	1		
Cabinet Makers	8	Footman - - -	2	Moulder - - -	1	Tailors - - -	3
Cabmen - - -	2	French Polisher -	1			Teacher - - -	1
Carpenters - -	33	Fuse Maker - - -	1	Navy - - -	1	Tilemaker - -	1
Carmen - - -	18					Tinsmiths - -	2
Cellarmen - -	2	Gardeners - - -	19	Outfitter - - -	1	Travellers - -	3
Chemists - - -	2	Gas Fitter - - -	1			Upholsterers -	2
Civil Servant -	1	Greengrocers - -	9	Packers - - -	7		
Clerks - - -	23	Grocers - - -	5	Packing Case Maker	1	Valet - - -	1
Coachmen - - -	11	Grocer's Assistants	2	Painters - - -	24	Vanguards - -	2
Cooks - - -	3			Paperhangers - -	2		
Confectioners -	2	Hairdresser - - -	1	Picture Framers -	1	Waiters - - -	2
Curtain Framer	1	Handy Men - - -	10	Piano Tuner - - -	1	Watchmakers -	2
Cycle Fitter - -	1	Hawker - - -	1	Plasterers - - -	5	Warehousemen -	5
		Harness Maker - -	1	Platelayer - - -	1	Waterman - - -	1
Decorators - -	7	Horsekeepers - -	2	Plumbers - - -	15	Wireman - - -	1
Drapers - - -	2			Porters - - -	17	Wood Chopper -	1
Draper's Assistant	1	Ironmongers - - -	2	Potman - - -	1		
Domestics (male)	3	Ironworkers - - -	2	Printers - - -	2		

Particulars of Cases Helped.

Eleven married women were assisted to join husbands who were already in Canada, having emigrated at their own expense.

Of the total number emigrated, forty-one paid their own fares and 1,419 were assisted financially.

Places of settlement :—

Montreal, Quebec, and Ottawa	-	-	55
Toronto, and Western Ontario	-	-	1,065
Winnipeg and Points West to B. C.	-	-	340

Eleven conducted parties consisting off :—

Single men from London	-	-	283
Single men from Provinces	-	-	264
Families from London	-	-	96
Families from Provinces	-	-	129

Average age of single men, twenty-six years.

Average age of married men, thirty-five years.

Twenty-five cases only were assisted between the ages of forty and forty-nine. Eleven of these were single men and fourteen married.

A man and wife aged sixty-three and fifty-seven were sent to their children in Toronto.

Four hundred and twenty-three cases brought before the Selection Committee were declined for the following reasons :—

8 too young, 17 too old, 4 excessive drinkers, 3 deafness, 44 in employment, 2 foreign nationality, 345 unsatisfactory references.

In addition to the above, large numbers made personal application and were refused as unsuitable even for recommendation to the Selection Committee.

APPENDIX No. XI. (F).

*Handled in by Messrs. W. F. Hamilton, K.C., and Walter Lloyd Jones. (Q. 93611). (62).**Farm Colonies.*

The Hempstead Farm Colony.—This property was given to the Church Army in 1905, and consists of 450 acres of arable, 84 acres of pasture, and 175 acres of wood. The farms consists almost entirely of clay soil and it had been considerably neglected. It needed badly draining and about 40 acres have been drained by our colonists. The hedges and ditches were in a very bad state indeed and these have been completely trimmed and cleaned and put in a good state by the labour of the colonists under the direction of the farm bailiff.

The estate contains a large residence known as Hempstead Hall and this has been used to house the colonists sent down for training.

Cows, pigs, and poultry are kept, and 29 acres of land adjoining have been set aside for hand cultivation by the colonists.

Selected cases are sent to the colony with a view to receiving a rough training in farming before they are emigrated to Canada.

In 1906, 263 men were sent down to the farm, of whom 18 stayed less than three days; 163 of the remainder were emigrated, 10 were found employment, 5 were returned to their friends, 5 were transferred to other institutions, 19 were dismissed, and 20 left of their own accord. The majority of these had worked well whilst on the colony, but did not care for the country life and preferred to seek other work. Twenty-three remained in the colony at September 30th, 1906

In 1907, 157 men were received at the farm; 18 of whom stayed less than three days; 1 was transferred to another institution, 89 were emigrated, 7 obtained other employment, 3 were sent to friends, 14 were dismissed, 15 left to seek other work, and 10 remained in the Home on September 30th, 1907.

The men at the colony are under the charge of a Church Army officer, and the garden work is superintended by a skilled gardener. The ordinary farm work is superintended by a farm bailiff and 14 agricultural labourers who utilise the labour of the colonists as far as possible in the ordinary work of the farm, at the same time instructing the men in the work.

APPENDIX No. XI. (F)—continued.

Handed in by Messrs. W. F. Hamilton, K.C., and Walter Lloyd Jones. (Q. 93611) (62).

HEMPSTEAD FARM COLONY.

Statement of Accounts (being the first year of working) from October 1st, 1905 to September 30th, 1906.

Cr.

Dr.

FARM ACCOUNT.

	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
To value of Stock on entering into occupation ...	375	0	0	...	...	...	296	19	3
" Purchase of Live Stock ...	313	5	8	...	...	...	...	...	...
" Fodder, etc. ...	226	5	5	...	...	...	1,379	0	0
" Stable Expenses ...	61	7	6	...	...	...	...	...	...
" Manure, Seeds, etc. ...	195	9	6	...	...	...	...	...	...
" Repairs and Renewals of Plant ...	82	0	2	...	...	...	73	0	0
" Rates, Taxes, Tithe, etc. (proportion) ...	186	16	6	...	...	...	...	...	...
" Wages, Officers, Farm Staff and Inmates	1,137	9	4	...	...	...	...	...	...
							1,748	19	3

MAINTENANCE HOUSE ACCOUNT.

To Food ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...</
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GENERAL ACCOUNT.

To Printing, Stationery, Postages, Law Costs, etc.	57	6	8	By Rents, etc.	...	...	...	...	...	104	13	7
" Fares and Expenses of Men sent down for Training	94	6	2	" Grant from Emigration Department towards Cost of Training Men for Emigration...	...	...	...	...	...	375	14	0
" Cost of Erecting two Cottages	328	9	6	" Donation for purchase of Beerhouse adjoining the Estate	...	...	...	...	...	165	0	0
" Cost of Recreation Room, Chapel and Greenhouses erected by Inmates	253	16	11	" Donation for purpose of acquiring Stock, Plant and Furniture of outgoing Tenant	...	...	...	...	...	600	0	0
" Purchase of Publichouse "The Wash"	172	11	8									
" Furniture and Fittings (taken over or since purchased)	242	7	2									
" Farm Implements and Plant (taken over from out-going tenant or since purchased)	232	1	4									
	1,380	19	5	" Balance	...	...	...	...	...			
							</					

APPENDIX No. XI. (F.)—continued.

Handed in by Messrs. W. F. Hamilton and Walter Lloyd Jones. (Q. 93611) (62).

HEMPSTEAD FARM COLONY.

Statement of Accounts from October 1st, 1906 to September 30th, 1907.

Dr.

Statement of Accounts from October 1st, 1906 to September 30th, 1907

Cr.

FARM ACCOUNT.									
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
To Live Stock at October 1st, 1906	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
" Stock of Hay, Corn, Roots, etc., at October, 1906	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
" Purchase of Live Stock	...	...	...	1,379	0	0	...	...	...
" Fodder, etc.	...	...	...	252	5	4	...	...	...
" Stable Expenses	...	...	...	208	10	1	...	...	...
" Manure, Seeds, etc.	...	...	...	55	16	9	...	...	...
" Repairs and Renewals of Implements and Plant	...	...	...	204	17	0	...	...	...
" Rates, Taxes, Tithe, etc.	...	...	...	70	5	7	...	...	...
" Repairs to Buildings	...	...	...	203	1	7	...	...	...
" Wages, Officers, Farm Staff and Inmates	...	...	...	70	11	6	...	...	...
	...	...	...	1,132	11	5	...	...	...
				3,576	19	3	...	...	...
							2,923	3	8
MAINTENANCE ACCOUNT.									
To Food	...	...	...	325	13	10	...	...	...
" Clothing	...	...	...	117	8	5	...	...	...
" Lighting and Heating	...	...	...	38	6	8	...	...	...
" Rates, Taxes, etc.	...	...	...	40	12	4	...	...	...
" Repairs to Buildings	...	...	...	7	2	0	...	...	...
" Household Renewals	...	...	...	8	13	9	...	...	...
" Laundry and Cleaning Materials	...	...	...	13	12	7	...	...	...
" Wages of House Staff	...	...	...	110	0	0	...	...	...
				661	9	7	...	...	...
							548	3	0
GENERAL ACCOUNT.									
To Printing and Stationery	...	...	...	11	16	5	...	...	...
" Postages, Telegrams, Fares, etc.	...	...	...	34	12	3	...	...	...
" New Furniture	...	...	...	4	5	4	...	...	...
" New Plant	...	...	...	20	10	0	...	...	...
" New Granary (built by Inmates)	...	...	...	30	0	0	...	...	...
				101	4	0	...	...	...
				£4,339	12	10	...	...	...
							£4,339	12	10

APPENDIX No. XI. (G).

Handed in by Messrs. W. F. Hamilton, K.C., and Walter Lloyd Jones. (Q. 93311) (63).

CHURCH ARMY.

SUGGESTIONS RELATING TO LAND COLONIES.

1. *Compulsory State Land Colonies.*

That compulsory labour colonies be established by the State for the detention and employment of vagrant, work-shy, or unemployed men of bad character.

The colonies to be divided into two classes :—

Class 1. Where confirmed vagrants and idlers of bad character shall be compelled to work for food and lodging only. The diet to be varied according to the industry of the worker; sleeping accommodation to be beds in open dormitories; comforts to be few.

Class 2.—For men of indifferent character transferred from workhouses and for first offenders, also for men who have proved themselves by industry in Class 1 to be worthy of promotion. In addition to an improved scale of diet, there should be more comforts and better means of recreation. Each man to have a separate cubicle. Each man to be credited with the amount of his earnings, based on a system of marks, and charged for his maintenance, the balance being placed to his credit without interest until he is transferred, or it may be paid to any person dependent upon him, the authorities to have full power to veto in what way his savings shall be spent.

2. *Temporary Voluntary State Colonies.*

Some of the existing workhouses in rural districts be set aside by the State, where a further test may be provided, for men who have passed through Section B in compulsory State colonies, and for men of good character who have proved their willingness to work whilst inmates of workhouses. Here the men should be credited with their earnings, and be charged for their maintenance, both on a higher scale than in Section B. The comforts to be increased and small pocket money to be allowed. After probation, a man shall be passed on to a Church Army voluntary home or colony, from whence he would pass to outside employment, or to tested and assisted emigration by the society.

3. *Church Army Voluntary Labour Homes or Colonies.*

(a) That steps be taken to certify existing labour homes and to establish other labour homes and farm colonies, where necessary.

(b) Both town homes and farm colonies should be classified as far as possible on the following lines :—

- (i) For respectable single men unable to find work.
- (ii) For first offenders, or judgment deferred cases, and for men from the State colonies.
- (iii) For married men (with families left at home) in exceptional periods of distress.

(c) An additional farm colony to be provided in Canada for proved workers qualified to become freehold farmers on land adjoining the model farm with aid and experience from the head of the colony.

(d) These institutions to be supported by :—

- (i) State grants for maintenance of men sent from the State colonies.
- (ii) State and municipal grants for persons from workhouses and casual wards.
- (iii) Proceeds of labour.
- (iv) Voluntary contributions.

All inmates to be deemed to be employees of the colonies and homes, and to be treated accordingly.

(e) Inmates of these homes to be credited with their wages in full, and be debited with a sum for maintenance, the balance to belong to the workers. The balance of weekly earnings, less charge for board, etc., to be drawn upon to the extent of 1s. per week for pocket money, or part, or the whole of the weekly balance might be remitted to dependents of the inmate. Except as aforesaid, the

balance should remain in reserve until the inmate left the institution to enter employment. If an inmate was discharged for idleness, disorderliness, or misconduct, he should forfeit any balance due to him, the same being placed to the credit of a fund for the purpose of emigrating selected cases. Any men proving idle or disorderly, or leaving the institution except to enter employment elsewhere, to be liable to be transferred to a State colony.

(f) In large towns, inmates of common lodging-houses, or other single men dependent on casual employment, might be compelled either to obtain a special work licence, or to register as a day employee of some labour home. This would prevent undue competition among this class of men for casual employment, and would still enable employers to obtain extra labour at market rates when required.

Day employees of labour homes should be credited with the amount of their earnings for whatever work they may be engaged upon, but such earnings to be liable to a deduction not exceeding 2½ per cent. towards the cost of management of the particular branch of the work.

4. *Re-organisation of Poor Law Institutions.*

(a) That there be a re-arranging and grouping of workhouses and other Poor Law institutions.

If Poor Law districts were grouped in county or even larger areas, arrangement might be made to set aside certain houses in each area, solely for the reception of the aged and infirm, and other houses be thus made available for use as compulsory or State colonies. This would save the cost of erecting new buildings for purposes of the colonies.

Sufficient land could be acquired, compulsorily if need be, to provide labour for inmates.

(b) Able-bodied inmates at present in the workhouse could be transferred to one or other of the voluntary State colonies as their character warranted.

(c) Small institutions might be set aside for the reception of women with families, unable to maintain themselves, whose husbands were inmates either of a compulsory or voluntary labour colony. Such families might be found some employment to help to earn the cost of their maintenance.

(d) Under such a re-arrangement of workhouses a considerable saving should be possible in the cost of administration, and of the maintenance of the aged and infirm, and the mentally and physically incapable. Classification and separation of the respectable from the vicious would be vital. The compulsory labour colony would entail a greater expenditure for the management and supervision, but the produce of the labour of the men and women under the changed circumstances would probably go a long way towards covering the increased cost.

5. *Classification.*

Class A.—Old folks of spotless character. Every comfort. To be paid a small bonus for any work they may be able to do. Model: Alderødshjem (Old Folks' House at Copenhagen).

Class B.—Infirmity cases.

Class C.—Mental cases.

Class D.—Thriftless by their own fault.

If able-bodied, to be transferred to labour colonies. Accommodation and diet not so good as for Class A. Model: Almendelig Hospital, Copenhagen.

6. *Management and Control.*

Labour colonies and other Poor Law institutions to be administered by a Board of Commissioners under the Local Government Board.

The cost of administration and maintenance to be defrayed by a special Poor Law tax to be collected by the Inland Revenue authorities.

APPENDIX No. XI. (H).

Handed in by Messrs. W. F. Hamilton, K.C., and Walter Lloyd Jones. (Q. 93629.)

SUMMARY OF WORKHOUSE AND CASUAL
WARD CASES FOR 1907.

HOW APPLICANTS WERE DEALT WITH.

	London.	Prov'nc's.	Total.
Refused as unsuitable or declined help - - - -	132	—	132
Registered Names for Employment - - - -	18	—	18
Given Temporary Work - - - -	54	—	54
Sent to Situations - - - -	1	—	1
Sent to Receiving Homes - - - -	96	—	96
Sent to Farm - - - -	—	19	19
* Sent to Labour Homes - - - -	548	2,208	2,756
Total Number of Applicants	849	2,227	3,076

* PARTICULARS OF CASES SENT TO LABOUR HOMES.

	London.	Prov'nc's.	Total.
Failed to Pass Work Test - - - -	87	121	208
Transferred to other Institutions - - - -	22	54	76
Remained in Homes - - - -	52	264	316
*+ Passed out of Homes - - - -	387	1,769	2,156
Total - - - - -	548	2,208	2,756

*+ RECORD OF MEN PASSED OUT OF HOMES AFTER
AVERAGE STAY OF EIGHT WEEKS.

	London.	Prov'nc's.	Total.
GOOD.			
Obtained Situations - - - -	107	541	648
Restored to Friends - - - -	5	74	79
Emigrated - - - -	6	31	37
Joined Army or Navy - - - -	5	19	24
Total - - - - -	123	665	788
DOUBTFUL.			
Left to seek Work - - - -	146	816	962
Left, Time Expired - - - -	11	23	34
Total - - - - -	157	839	996
BAD.			
Dismissed - - - -	102	242	344
Absconded - - - -	5	21	26
Arrested - - - -	—	2	2
Total - - - - -	107	265	372
Total of Men passed out of Homes	387	1,769	2,156

SUMMARY OF EX-SOLDIER CASES FOR
1907. *+

HOW APPLICANTS WERE DEALT WITH.

	London.	Prov'nc's.	Total.
Refused as Unsuitable or Declined Help - - - -	28	—	28
Registered Names for Employment - - - -	127	—	127
Given Temporary Work - - - -	323	—	323
Sent to Situations - - - -	12	—	12
Sent to Receiving Homes - - - -	—	—	—
Sent to Farm - - - -	—	53	53
* Sent to Labour Homes - - - -	302	1,032	1,334
Total Number of Applicants	792	1,085	1,877

* PARTICULARS OF CASES ADMITTED TO LABOUR HOMES.

	London.	Prov'nc's.	Total.
Failed to Pass Work Test - - - -	57	63	120
Transferred to other Institutions - - - -	8	27	35
Remained in Homes - - - -	20	87	107
*+ Passed out of Homes - - - -	217	855	1,072
Total - - - - -	302	1,032	1,334

*+ RECORD OF MEN PASSED OUT OF LABOUR HOMES
AFTER AVERAGE STAY OF EIGHT WEEKS.

	London.	Prov'nc's.	Total.
GOOD.			
Obtained Situations - - - -	67	247	314
Restored to Friends - - - -	8	40	48
Emigrated - - - -	5	24	29
Joined Army or Navy - - - -	6	16	22
Total - - - - -	86	327	413
DOUBTFUL.			
Left to seek Work - - - -	81	390	471
Left, Time Expired - - - -	—	5	5
Total - - - - -	81	395	476
BAD.			
Dismissed - - - -	48	123	171
Absconded - - - -	2	9	11
Arrested - - - -	—	1	1
Total - - - - -	50	133	183
Total of Men Passed out of Homes	217	855	1,072

*+ Including Married Men having their own Homes.

APPENDIX No. XI. (H)—*continued*.

Handed in by Messrs. W. F. Hamilton, K.C., and Walter Lloyd Jones. (Q. 93629.)

SUMMARY OF PRISON CASES FOR 1907. †

HOW APPLICANTS WERE DEALT WITH.

	London.	Prov'nc's.	Total.
Refused as unsuitable or declined help - - - - -	77	—	77
Given Temporary Work or other wise temporarily assisted - -	269	219	488
Sent to Situations - - - - -	4	—	4
Sent to Farm - - - - -	—	32	32
* Sent to Labour Homes - - -	486	1,062	1,548
Total Number of Applicants	836	1,313	2,149

* PARTICULARS OF CASES ADMITTED TO LABOUR HOMES.

	London.	Prov'nc's.	Total.
Failed to pass Work Test - - -	111	90	201
Transferred to other Institutions - - -	15	25	40
Remained in Homes - - - - -	52	89	141
† Passed out of Homes - - - -	308	858	1,166
Total - - - - -	486	1,062	1,548

† RECORD OF MEN PASSED OUT OF LABOUR HOMES AFTER AVERAGE STAY OF EIGHT WEEKS.

	London.	Prov'nc's.	Total.
GOOD.			
Obtained Situations - - -	108	228	336
Restored to Friends - - -	7	48	55
Emigrated - - - - -	8	31	39
Joined Army or Navy - - -	4	8	12
Total - - - - -	127	315	442
DOUBTFUL.			
Left to seek Work - - -	117	401	518
Left, Time Expired - - -	2	6	8
Total - - - - -	119	407	526
BAD.			
Dismissed - - - - -	57	123	180
Absconded - - - - -	3	12	15
Arrested - - - - -	2	1	3
Total - - - - -	62	136	198
Total of Men passed out of Homes	308	858	1,166

*† Including Married Men having their own Homes.

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London, 26th February, 1908.

APPENDIX No. XI. (I).—continued.

Handed in by Messrs. W. F. Hamilton, K.C., and Walter Lloyd Jones. (Q. 93664).

THE CHURCH ARMY.

SUMMARY OF INCOME AND EXPENDITURE ACCOUNTS FOR THE YEAR ENDED 30th SEPTEMBER, 1907.

INCOME.

EXPENDITURE.

Donations, Collections and Legacies not earmarked by Donors.	Donations, etc., earmarked by Donors for Special Work.		Interest, Dividends and Rents.	Other Receipts and Transfers.		Total.		Management Expenses.	Working Expenses.		Extraordinary Expenses and Transfers.		Total.	
£ s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.
EVANGELISTIC WORK—														
General Account ...	15,209	16 10	635	5 0	1,878	18 1	17,723	19 11	6,704	14 10	1,283	11 5	8,233	5 0
Men's Training Home ...			127	1 0			161	8 1			244	18 9	3,283	18 0
Sisters' Training Home ...			152	11 1			204	11 4			212	10 6	1,453	17 0
Colportage Mission Vans ...			3,502	16 4			5,432	6 7	435	11 7	6,653	9 2	7,089	0 9
City Samaritan Office ...			1,034	17 8			2,279	7 7			614	9 7	2,279	7 7
Pioneer and Tent Missions ...			1,316	17 3			1,502	13 5	282	0 11	1,252	17 1	1,759	18 0
Prison and Workhouse Missions ...			1,193	1 2			1,193	1 2	224	11 7	882	15 0	1,107	6 7
Outdoor Rescue Work ...			12	6 0			12	6 0			321	4 9	321	4 9
Rescue Workers' Home ...			149	0 8			149	0 8			287	12 11	287	12 11
Probation Department ...			369	6 1			369	6 1			158	9 1	158	9 1
"Princess" Club ...			180	0 9			180	0 9			133	11 10	263	4 6
Barmaids' Rest ...			344	5 5			344	5 5			426	4 9	604	12 8
Headquarters Mission Church	15,209	16 10	9,017	8 5	1,878	18 1	29,552	7 0	7,646	18 11	17,589	18 6	26,841	16 10
			306	8 2			377	18 4			409	1 1	433	1 1
Total...	15,209	16 10	9,323	16 7	1,878	18 1	29,930	5 4	7,646	18 11	17,998	19 7	27,274	17 11
MEN'S SOCIAL WORK—														
General Account ... and Discharged Prisoners' Aid ...	10,973	16 0	5,487	14 5	524	17 8	16,986	8 1	6,538	9 0	619	0 0	7,322	15 6
Prisoners' Families' Aid ...			933	2 9			3,382	3 11					3,012	0 5
Christmas Dinners ...			271	5 1			271	5 1					456	15 7
Labour Homes ...			3,024	9 11			70,928	9 0					77,615	11 10
Receiving Homes ...			215	5 0			5,148	5 4			1,384	11 9	5,513	13 3
Lodging Homes ...			15	0 0			6,066	8 2					5,510	0 3
Coffee Taverns ...							3,864	17 9			40	0 0	4,001	18 11
Samaritan Clothing Depot ...							1,082	4 4			30	15 0	693	10 1
	10,973	16 0	9,946	17 2	524	17 8	107,730	1 8	6,538	9 0	95,967	3 7	104,126	5 10

Emigration	850	3	0	12,670	14	9	2,777	13	7	13,520	17	9
Special Distress and Winter Relief Work	503	6	9	14,893	14	10	18,174	15	2	18,174	15	2
Land Colonies	63	15	9	5,884	18	2	5,948	13	11	5,948	13	11
League of Friends of Poor	246	19	9	526	14	11	826	3	5	826	3	5
Coronation—Ex-Soldiers	...	...	...	8	0	6	175	7	6	183	8	0
Leeds Home Building Fund	...	...	...	...	...	...	2,320	5	0	2,320	5	0
Total...	8,202	14	3	129,951	6	9	6,946	8	1	145,100	9	1
WOMEN'S SOCIAL WORK—	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
General Account	1,421	2	8	135	4	2	210	3	8	1,766	10	6
Women's Relief Depot	...	...	...	1,041	4	7	1,041	4	7	1,041	4	7
Temperance Work	125	9	6	1,469	18	5	1,595	7	11	1,595	7	11
Homes and other institutions	...	...	...	13,523	7	0	13,523	7	0	13,523	7	0
Fresh Air Homes	1,546	12	2	16,169	14	2	210	3	8	17,926	10	0
...	241	0	7	1,196	1	4	107	11	3	1,544	13	2
Total...	1,787	12	9	17,365	15	6	317	14	11	19,471	3	2
New Central Headquarters	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Extension Building Fund	...	...	...	23,785	3	11	4,903	12	9	4,903	12	9
Trading Departments	...	...	...	...	...	...	493	15	1	24,278	19	0
Balance, being surplus of Income over Expenditure for year	...	...	...	...	...	...	6,732	2	9	6,732	2	9
Grand Total	17,637	5	11	189,101	5	9	21,022	13	0	227,761	4	8

We have examined the above Statement and certify the same to be correct.

W. H. PAYNE & Co., Incorporated Accountants,
28, Martin's Lane, Cannon Street, E.C.

London, 26th February, 1908,

APPENDIX No. XII.

Handed in by Messrs. J. Clarke and F. Barnes, Laindon. (Q. 95324 (9)).

DIETARY TABLES.

DIETARIES AND ACCOUNTS ORDER, 1900.

SCHEDULE "B."—FORM "A."

Parish of Poplar Borough.

At a meeting of the Board of Guardians of the Parish of Poplar Borough, held on the 12th day of June, 1907,

it was resolved, in accordance with the requirements of the Workhouse Regulation (Dietaries and Accounts) Order, 1900, that the following Dietary Tables for the Paupers of the respective Classes hereunder described, in the Branch Workhouse of this Parish, Dunton, near Laindon, Essex, be adopted for the Quarters ending Midsummer, Michaelmas, Christmas and Lady-Day:—

Classes.	Day.	Breakfast.	Lunch.	Dinner.	Tea.
1 and 1a	SUNDAY - -	13. Tea 1 pint Bread 8 ozs. Butter ½ oz.		1. Boiled Beef (cold) 4½ ozs. Bread 4 ozs. Potatoes or other Vegetables 12 ozs.	17. Cocoa 1 pint Bread 8 ozs. Butter ½ oz.
1 and 1a	MONDAY - -	7. Bread 2 ozs. Porridge 1½ pints Sugar 1 oz., or Treacle 1½ ozs.	1. Bread 4 ozs. Cheese 1½ ozs.	2. Roast Beef 4½ ozs. Bread 4 ozs. Potatoes or other Vegetables 12 ozs.	10. Milk 1 pint Bread 8 ozs.
1 and 1a	TUESDAY -	6. Milk 1 pint Porridge 1½ pints	1. Bread 4 ozs. Cheese 1½ ozs.	3. Boiled Mutton 4½ ozs. Bread 4 ozs. Potatoes or other Vegetables 12 ozs.	3. Broth 1 pint Bread 8 ozs. Cheese 2 ozs.
1 and 1a	WEDNESDAY -	7. Bread 2 ozs. Porridge 1½ pints Sugar 1 oz., or Treacle 1½ ozs.	1. Bread 4 ozs. Cheese 1½ ozs.	16. Boiled Bacon 3 ozs. Haricot Beans 12 ozs.	2. Gruel 1½ pints Bread 6 ozs.
1 and 1a	THURSDAY -	6. Milk 1 pint Porridge 1½ pints	1. Bread 4 ozs. Cheese 1½ ozs.	2. Roast Beef 4½ ozs. Bread 4 ozs. Potatoes or other Vegetables 12 ozs.	11. Rice Milk 1 pint Bread 8 ozs.
1 and 1a	FRIDAY - -	7. Bread 2 ozs. Porridge 1½ pints Sugar 1 oz., or Treacle 1½ ozs.	1. Bread 4 ozs. Cheese 1½ ozs.	7. Boiled Mutton 3½ ozs. Potatoes or other Vegetables 6 ozs. Suet pudding or dumpling 4 ozs. Bread 4 ozs.	3. Broth 1 pint Bread 8 ozs. Cheese 2 ozs.
1 and 1a	SATURDAY -	6. Milk 1 pint Porridge 1½ pints	1. Bread 4 ozs. Cheese 1½ ozs.	4. Boiled Pork 4½ ozs. Bread 4 ozs. Potatoes or other Vegetables 12 ozs.	10. Milk 1 pint Bread 8 ozs.

NOTE.—The Guardians hereby direct that for all the adult classes one-half of the allowance of bread prescribed by the list of rations shall be served in the first instance to each inmate, but each inmate shall be entitled to demand the full allowance of bread, and the total allowance of bread prescribed by the Dietary Table shall in all cases be sent into the dining hall for each class of inmates, and no portion of such total allowance shall be removed from the dining hall until after the conclusion of the meal for which it was issued, when it shall forthwith be returned into store, weighed, and duly accounted for. Salt shall be provided for all meals and for all classes. Mustard and pepper to be given as

may be requisite at dinner to adults. A sufficient supply of water and a separate mug for each inmate shall be provided at dinner for all classes. The prescribed weights of the cooked food are in all cases those of the cooked product and, except as regards fish, are to be free from bone.

I hereby certify that the requirements of the Workhouse Regulation (Dietaries and Accounts) Order, 1900, have been duly complied with.

ALFRED W. YEO, *Presiding Chairman.*

G. HERBERT LOUGH, *Clerk.*

12th June, 1907.

APPENDIX No. XIII. (A).

Handed in by Mr. J. Buteux Skeggs, Poplar (Q. 95746 (3).)

METROPOLITAN BOROUGH OF POPLAR.

LOSSES ON COLLECTION OF RATES IN THE METROPOLITAN BOROUGH.

Borough of—	1906-7.				Borough of—	1906-7.			
	Irrecov- erable.	Owners.	Total Loss.	Recover- able.		Irrecov- erable.	Owners.	Total Loss.	Recover- able.
Battersea - - -	3·45	4·36	7·81	·45	Kensington - - -	7 00	·16	7·16	·27
Bermondsey - - -	—	No Return.	—	—	Lambeth - - -	5·41	·84	6·25	·57
Bethnal Green - - -	2·76	6·99	9·75	·18	Lewisham - - -	9·33	—	9·33	·43
Camberwell - - -	4·86	1·68	6·54	·40	Paddington - - -	5·32	·10	5·42	·42
Chelsea - - -	5·59	·65	6·24	·49	Poplar - - -	2·93	7·43	10·36	·10
Deptford - - -	2·65	4·31	6·96	·18	St. Marylebone - - -	5·45	·32	5·77	·68
Finsbury - - -	5·20	1·03	6·23	·82	St. Pancras - - -	4·18	·45	4·63	·61
Fulham - - -	4·36	2·38	6·84	·52	Shoreditch - - -	—	No Return.	—	—
Greenwich - - -	3·39	3·06	6·45	·40	Southwark - - -	4·11	1·85	5·96	·07
Hackney - - -	4·58	2·48	7·06	·67	Stepney - - -	4·70	2·25	6·95	·21
Hammersmith - - -	4·99	3·08	8·07	1·19	Stoke Newington - - -	5·91	·70	6·61	·45
Hampstead - - -	6·78	·69	7·47	·31	Wandsworth - - -	5·58	4·55	10·13	·80
Holborn - - -	6·25	·62	6·87	·69	Westminster - - -	4·18	·20	4·38	·33
Islington - - -	4·81	·04	4·85	·11	Woolwich - - -	2·85	1·42	4·27	·15

APPENDIX No. XIII. (B).

Handed in by Mr. J. Buteux Skeggs, Poplar (Q. 95746 (11-18).)

METROPOLITAN BOROUGH OF POPLAR.

VALUATION AND RATING COMMITTEE.

POOR RATE ASSESSMENT AND COLLECTION ACT, 1869.

Section 3 of the Act provides for the owners of houses not exceeding £20 rateable value (in London) to become liable for the rate by voluntary agreement with the rating authority, and to pay the rates whether the property is occupied or not, in consideration of an abatement not exceeding 25 per cent.

Section 4 of the Act empowers the rating authority to make an order requiring the owners of houses not exceeding £20 rateable value to be rated instead of the occupiers, allowing an abatement of 15 per cent. The owner can thereupon enter into an agreement with the rating authority to pay the rates in respect of the property whether it is occupied or not, in consideration of a further abatement not exceeding 15 per cent.

The difference between the two sections so far as the collection of rates is concerned is:—

Under Section 3 the rate must be collected from the occupier, unless the owner and the rating authority enter into a voluntary agreement whereby the owner undertakes to pay the rates in respect of the hereditament, the rateable value of which must not exceed £20, in consideration of an abatement which cannot exceed 25 per cent.

Under Section 4 the rating authority may order the owner of any dwelling house, the rateable value of which does not exceed £20, to be rated instead of the occupier, and the owner is thereupon bound under Sub-section 1 to pay the rates, less a fixed abatement of 15 per cent., but only in respect of the period the house is occupied.

Provision is made under Sub-section 2 of Section 4, whereby the owner, so rated instead of the occupier under the order of the rating authority, may undertake to pay the rates in respect of all his hereditaments which come within the section, whether occupied or not, receiving in consideration a further abatement of not exceeding 15 per cent.

The rating authority therefore has power under Section 3 to fix the assessment not exceeding £20, at which compounding may be allowed, and the abatement not exceeding 25 per cent., while under Section 4, if the order is made, all dwelling houses up to £20 rateable value are affected, and the abatement of 15 per cent. is compulsory, while the additional allowance in consideration of the covenant to pay whether occupied or not may be at any percentage not exceeding 15.

Upon the passing of the Act in 1869 the Vestry of each of the parishes of Poplar, Bromley, and Bow adopted Section 4, and rated the owners of all dwelling houses up to a rateable value of £20 instead of the tenants, and allowed the maximum allowance of 15 per cent. under Sub-section 1 and of 15 per cent. under Sub-section 2, and this practice continued in force until 1901, when the Council as the successors of the Vestries, on the 6th June, 1901, passed the following resolution:—

“That the Council give six months’ notice to terminate the agreements with the owners of rateable hereditaments to which Section 4 of the Poor Rate Assessment and Collection Act applies.”

And on 26th September, 1901, the following resolution:—

“That on the expiration of the six months’ notice already agreed to be given by the Council to the owners who have entered into agreements under the Act, such owners on entering into new agreements pursuant to Sub-section 2 of Section 4 of the Act, be allowed in addition to the 15 per cent. under Sub-section 1 of Section 4 of the Act, a further abatement of 10 per cent., making the total abatement or allowance to such owners 25 per cent.”

The total rateable value of the hereditaments at £20 and under which are now rated to owners under Section 4 of the Act is £254,017, and represents about 20,000 houses and tenements.

TABLE showing practice adopted by the Metropolitan Boroughs under the Act.
Boroughs where Section 4 is adopted.

Name of Borough.	Maximum Rateable Value of Properties in respect of which abatement is allowed.	Abatement allowed to Owners.	
		Without Agreement.	With Agreement to pay whether Property is occupied or not.
Battersea - - -	£ 20	Per cent. 15	Per cent. 20
Chelsea - - -	20	15	16 to 20
Deptford - - -	20	15	17½
Hackney - - -	20	15	17½
Hammersmith - -	20	15	20
Hampstead - - -	20	15	25
Holborn - - -	20	15	17½ to 25
Poplar - - -	20	15	25
Stoke Newington -	20	15	17½
Wandsworth - - -	20	15	25
Westminster - - -	20	15	16

BOROUGHS ADOPTING SECTION 3.

Name of Borough.	Maximum Rateable Value of Properties in respect of which abatement is allowed.	Abatement allowed, Owners agreeing to pay Rates whether property is occupied or not.
Bermondsey - -	£ 13	Per Cent. 10 to 20
Bethnal Green -	20	20
Camberwell - -	20	10 to 25
Finsbury - - -	20	15 to 25
Fulham - - -	20	10 to 25
Greenwich - - -	20	20
Islington - - -	20	10
Kensington - - -	20	5 to 20
Lambeth - - -	15	15
Paddington - - -	20	10
St. Marylebone -	20	15
St. Pancras - -	20	15
Shoreditch - - -	20	15 to 17½
Southwark - - -	15	15
Stepney - - -	15	20
Woolwich - - -	12	15

APPENDIX No. XIII. (C.)

Handed in by Mr. J. Buteux Skeggs, Poplar. (Q. 95787).

METROPOLITAN BOROUGH OF POPLAR.

STATEMENT, SHOWING VARIATIONS IN THE RENTS AND RATES FOR THE YEARS 1885, 1890, 1895, 1900 & 1905.

Property.	1885.		1890.		1895.		1900.		1905.	
	Weekly Rental.	R.V.	Weekly Rental.	R.V.	Weekly Rental.	R.V.	Weekly Rental.	R.V.	Weekly Rental.	R.V.
<i>Poplar.</i>										
Hind Street.	s. d.		s. d.		s. d.		s. d.		s. d.	
104	11 6	17	11 6	16	11 6	16	12 0	17	12 6	17
100	11 6	17	11 6	16	11 6	16	11 6	17	13 0	17
90	—	16	12 0	17	12 0	17	12 0	16	12 0	15
82	10 6	16	10 6	15	10 6	15	11 0	15	11 6	15
80	11 0	17	10 6	15	10 6	15	11 0	15	11 6	15
7 Mo	£2 8s.	18	£2 8s.	16	12 0	17	12 0	16	12 6	16
9	12 0	18	12 0	17	12 0	17	12 0	16	13 0	17
21	—	16	£2 5s.	16	£2 5s.	16	£2 5s.	15	£2 5s.	15
23 Mo	£2 5s.	15	£2 16s.	17	12 0	17	13 0	18	13 0	17
Total Rate in the £ for the year.		5s. 9d.		6s. 5d.		7s. 8d.		9s. 5d.		10s. 1d.
<i>Bromley.</i>										
Brabazon Street.										
23	9 0	13	8 0	11	8 0	11	8 0	11	—	12
25	—	13	8 0	11	8 0	11	8 0	11	9 0	12
33	9 6	13	8 6	12	8 6	12	8 6	12	9 6	12
37	9 6	13	—	12	9 0	12	9 0	12	—	13
39	8 0	11	7 6	11	7 6	11	7 6	11	10 0	13
10	—	—	9 0	12	9 0	12	9 0	12	10 0	13
12	—	—	9 0	12	9 0	12	9 0	12	10 0	13
28	—	—	9 0	12	9 0	12	9 0	12	10 0	13
30	—	—	8 6	12	8 6	12	9 0	12	10 0	13
32	—	—	8 6	12	8 6	12	9 0	12	10 0	13
34	—	—	8 6	12	8 6	12	9 0	12	9 0	12
Total Rate in the £ for the year.		6s. 8d.		7s. 3d.		8s. 2d.		9s. 0d.		10s. 2d.
<i>Bow.</i>										
Monier Road.										
21	7 6	12	7 6	10	7 6	10	8 6	12	9 6	13
23	8 6	12	7 6	10	7 6	10	8 6	12	10 0	13
35	8 6	12	7 6	10	7 6	10	8 6	12	9 6	13
39	8 6	12	7 6	10	7 6	10	8 6	12	10 0	13
48	8 6	12	7 6	11	7 6	11	7 6	11	9 0	12
52	8 0	11	8 0	11	8 0	11	8 0	11	9 0	12
62	8 6	11	8 0	11	8 0	11	8 0	11	8 6	11
66	8 6	11	8 0	11	8 0	11	8 0	11	8 6	11
Total Rate in the £ for the year.		6s. 7d.		6s. 11d.		8s. 2d.		9s. 5d.		10s. 1d.

APPENDIX No. XIV.

Handed in by Mr. Henry Hamilton Watts. (Q. 96028.)

LONDON AND INDIA DOCKS COMPANY.

Memorandum of Engagement of.....
as Permanent Labourer dated this.....day of
.....190.....

Dismissal.—A permanent labourer is subject to summary dismissal for disobedience to orders or other misconduct.

[I accept this engagement on the above conditions, and subject to the general regulations of the Company for the time being.]

Signed.....

Signed by the Secretary of the Dock Company.

A similar form with the exception of the part in brackets is retained by the Labourer.

Engagement.—Terminable on either side at seven days' notice from any pay-day.

Wages.—24s. per week of six days of eight working hours, between 6 a.m. and 6 p.m.; overtime pay at current rates.

Leave.—Three days annually in addition to general holidays.

Pension.—Without deduction from wages, according to scale (see over), to any permanent labourer if incapacitated for work by circumstances beyond his own control after at least 15 years' service. The right to pension after 15 years' service is only forfeited by the labourer's resignation or by the termination of his engagement on account of disobedience to orders or other misconduct. Service under this agreement to count for pension as from the.....1.....

SCALE OF PENSIONS.

				per week	
				s.	d.
At any age, after completion of 15 years' service				6	0
" 55 years of age	"	25	"	-	7 0
" 56 "	"	26	"	-	7 6
" 57 "	"	27	"	-	8 0
" 58 "	"	28	"	-	8 6
" 59 "	"	29	"	-	9 0
" 60 "	"	30	"	-	9 6
" 61 "	"	30	"	-	10 0
" 62 "	"	30	"	-	10 6
" 63 "	"	30	"	-	11 0
" 64 "	"	30	"	-	11 6
" 65 "	"	30	"	-	12 0

APPENDIX No. XV.

Handed in by Mr. R. A. Bray. (Q. 96456)

I was asked whether I could furnish figures showing the number of children in London in the two kinds of Industrial Schools, and whether I could explain the reason why the Day Industrial Schools are not full.

The following are the figures for London from 1900 onward:—

	Truant Schools (Residential).	Day Industrial.
1900	- 645	- 155
1901	- 601	- 145
1902	- 580	- 164
1903	- 424	- 268
1904	- 377	- 136
1905	- 289	- 128
1906	- 230	- 143
1907	- 250	- 146

The accommodation in the three London Day Industrial Schools is 500.

The reason in the falling off of numbers in both cases may be attributed in a large degree to the Act of 1900, which raised the fine for irregular attendance from 5s. to 20s. This Act proved very beneficial in improving the attendance; parents who did not mind a fine of 5s. were frightened by the prospect of a 20s. fine. There was, therefore, in their cases no need to resort to the 1866 Acts.

It must be borne in mind that not all cases of truancy can be dealt with in Day Industrial Schools. Where home conditions are very unsatisfactory they are of little or no use, and the children must be taken away. Day Industrial Schools are best suited for the negligent rather than for the criminal parent. The former are those most likely to be deterred by the prospects of a heavy fine. The first Day Industrial School was not opened until 1896.

R. A. BRAY.

APPENDIX No. XVI. (A).

Handed in by Mr. R. H. Tawney, Glasgow. (Q. 96826).

SCALE OF PAYMENTS PER MONTH TO PERSONS IN RECEIPT OF PUBLIC RELIEF IN STRASBURG.

Marks						Marks					
Single men	-	-	-	-	-	37	50	Married people with 5-6 children	-	-	75
Single women	-	-	-	-	-	37	50	Widows or widowers with 1-2 children	-	-	46
Married people without children	-	-	-	-	-	50		" " " 3-4	"	-	54
" " with 1-2	"	-	-	-	-	58		" " " 5-6	"	-	65
" " with 3-4	"	-	-	-	-	65					

APPENDIX No. XVI. (B).

Handed in by Mr. R. H. Tawney, Glasgow. (Q. 96895).

		Number of Cases.	Dependents.	Amount of Relief.
				Marks.
Illness - - -	Head of family - -	29	111	3,784'86
	Members - - -	8	32	1,069'54
Accident - - -	Head of family - -	33	127	4,236'43
	Members - - -	-	-	-
Physical or Mental Disability	Head of family - -	336	501	39,798'35
	Members - - -	29	128	3,192'66
Age - - - - -	- - - - -	1,040	198	123,359'29
Death - - -	Head of family - -	260	613	39,500'47
	Wife - - - - -	3	14	291'02
	Members - - -	3	21	298'31
Unemployment - - - - -	- - - - -	4	15	189'16
Insufficient Earnings - - - - -	- - - - -	41	123	3,425'79
Large Number of Children - - - - -	- - - - -	139	1,025	18,065'33
Imprisonment of Husband or Wife - - -	- - - - -	34	108	4,305'42
Drunkenness or Immorality	Head of family - -	39	159	4,318'46
	Wife - - - - -	4	18	255'82
Desertion - - -	Criminal - - - -	40	74	4,496'61
	With intention to return	1	3	135'
Other Causes - - - - -	- - - - -	2	5	284'81
		2,045	3,278	251,007'33

APPENDIX No. XVII.

Handed in by Mr. E. J. Urwick. (Q. 96989.)

COUNTRY WORK SCHEME.

It was found by some of the Country Holiday Fund workers that occasionally boys, on leaving school at fourteen, wished for country work, and a country correspondent in Devon—Miss B. Hingeston-Randolph, Ringmore Rectory, Kingsbridge, South Devon—discovered that it was possible to place them on small farms in that county and North Cornwall. The farmers are prosperous,

they always work themselves, and they often prefer their boys to “live in”; further, the supply of country boys is not equal to the demand. London boys receive board, lodging, clothes, and 6d. a week pocket money for the first six months; after that regular wages are paid. (See attached “terms” signed by farmers in each case.)

Results of the scheme, so far, have been as follows:—

	Placed.		Still in country.		Returned.		Remarks.
	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.	
In 1905 -	1*	-	1	-	-	-	*This boy had two places, wages rising to 2/6 per week. He remained two years, then, through the influence of most unsatisfactory and bad relations, returned to London. He found his home life unbearable and after a few months returned to the country, and now has a place as “Parson’s man” at £12 per annum. He is not yet 17.
In 1906 -	12	2	7	1	5	1	
In 1907 -	29	3	21	2	8	1	
Total -	42	5	29	3	13	2	

APPENDIX No. XVII.—*continued.**Handed in by Mr. E. J. Urwick. (Q. 96389.)*

The "returned" are accounted for as follows:—

2 boys were from a mentally defective school (sent as an experiment), and could not manage the work.

1 boy had bad sight and is now in a blind school.

1 boy was consumptive, sent after open-air treatment; was unable to work and went back to hospital.

3 boys and 2 girls had to be returned on account of bad conduct.

3 boys did not like the work.

1 boy stayed $1\frac{7}{12}$ years and did well, but returned to London through the influence of an unsatisfactory father.

2 boys were unsuitably placed.

Miss B. Hingeston-Randolph has formed a small country committee and acts as hon. secretary. She finds "visitors" for the boys and visits them herself; where advisable, she moves them to different situations and generally settles any difficulty. Most are on farms, but one is apprenticed to a blacksmith, and a few, who proved unsuitable for farm work, are "house and garden boys" or pages.

Boys have been sent by Skilled Employment Committees, Industrial and Poor Law Schools, Charity Organisation Society Committees, Children's Country Holiday Fund workers, and clergy. Their ages have varied from fourteen to seventeen; the younger ones do best; they are more amenable to discipline and more willing to learn. Elder boys also, naturally, object to getting no wages, and yet they are worth very little to the farmer to begin with.

Mischievous, rather troublesome boys do well; delicate, under-fed boys improve wonderfully. Really bad boys and those having physical disease or serious physical defect are not suitable.

The Devon openings are still plentiful, and it seems likely that others can be found where it is the custom for farm lads to "live in," provided some lady or gentleman can be found willing to give the personal care and supervision necessary. One or two districts have already been thought of, where such country hon. secretaries are available.

The cost of sending each boy is from £2 to £3 for fare and outfit (*see list*). As the money is a great difficulty in many suitable cases, it is proposed to raise a small fund for assisting them and also for country expenses (postage, travelling, boarding boys between situations, etc.). Therefore a preliminary committee has been formed in London, which, by kind permission of the Children's Country Holiday Fund, meets at their offices, 18, Buckingham Street, Strand, W.C., where information can be obtained. The hon. secretary at present is Miss Iles, East Clevedon Vicarage, Somerset, to whom applications must be sent. (It is not proposed to develop the scheme as regards girls.)

N.B.—It is too early yet to say what will become of the boys. Some seem likely to remain as agricultural labourers; others think of emigration.

Several boys have asked that their brothers may be placed. Several have been home by cheap trips for holidays and returned to the country.

From January 1st, 1908, to March 23rd, 1908, seven boys have been placed, making the total now in the country thirty-six boys and three girls.

A. M. ILES,

Hon. Secretary.

East Clevedon Vicarage, Somerset.

March 23rd, 1908.

FORM III.—COUNTRY WORK.

Terms.

1. That the farmer provide the boy with lodging, washing, clothes and board for the first six months, and pay him from 6d. a week pocket money.

2. That at the end of six months the farmer pay a regular weekly wage; if under 2s. 6d. the clothes must still be provided in part, repairs and small purchases coming out of wages. If over 2s. 6d., the boy to buy his own clothes under supervision.

3. That the boy shall not have free use of his money, but be induced to save and have a banking account.

4. That the boy be sent to some place of worship at least once a Sunday.

5. A clear month's notice, if necessary, to be given by the farmer, and information of this to be sent immediately to Miss B. Hingeston-Randolph. Failing this, the notice to be void.

If the farmer sends the boy back to London without giving the notice and information as above, he will be responsible for the fare and other expenses.

6. That the boy be provided with the comforts of a home and be treated with care and consideration as one of the family.

Signed.

Address.

Date.

Witnessed by.

FORM IV.—COUNTRY WORK.

*Outfit.**For Sunday:—*

- 1 Good suit.
- 1 White shirt front.
- 1 Tie.
- 1 Cap.
- 1 Pair of boots.

For Work:—

- 1 Cap (old)
- 1 Pair corduroy trousers.
- 1 Corduroy waistcoat.
- 1 Coat (any thick, strong coat).
- 1 Pair leather gaiters.
- 1 Pair strong hob-nailed boots.
- 1 Strong suit in good repair (may be old) to change to.
- 3 Strong shirts.
- 3 Pair of socks.

It is also desirable to have an overcoat.

APPENDIX No. XVIII. (A).

Handed in by Mr. Archibald Campbell, Edinburgh. (Q. 97161.)

THE DISTRESS COMMITTEE FOR THE CITY OF EDINBURGH.

The ages of applicants for employment-relief who have registered or re-registered during the period from the date of opening the Register, January 2nd, 1906, to May 15th, 1907.

	Under 20 years.	20 years and under 30 years.	30 years and under 40 years.	40 years and under 60 years.	60 years and over.
Registered between January 2nd, 1906, and May 15th, 1906 - - - - -	94	764	712	993	177
Per cent. - - - - -	3'43	27'88	25'99	36'24	6'46
Registered or re-registered during year ending May 15th, 1907 :—					
New cases - - - - -	35	385	338	450	92
Renewals - - - - -	40	292	279	454	99
Total - - - - -	75	677	617	904	191
Per cent. - - - - -	3'04	27'48	25'04	36'69	7'75

APPENDIX No. XVIII. (B.).

Handed in by Mr. Archibald Campbell, Edinburgh. (Q. 97173.)

THE DISTRESS COMMITTEE FOR THE CITY OF EDINBURGH.

SITUATIONS FOUND FOR WORKPEOPLE ON THE REGISTER OF THE MUNICIPAL LABOUR EXCHANGE FROM DATE OF OPENING, APRIL 23RD, 1907, TO MARCH 9TH, 1908.

Occupations.	No.	Occupations.	No.
Men :—		Lads :—	
Bill distributors - - - - -	15	Messenger - - - - -	1
Boardmen - - - - -	8	Packer - - - - -	1
Boots - - - - -	1	Porter - - - - -	1
Box-makers - - - - -	3	Van driver - - - - -	1
Bricklayer - - - - -	1	Total - - - - -	4
Cabinet-makers - - - - -	2		
Caretaker - - - - -	1	Women :—	
Cattleman - - - - -	1	Charwomen - - - - -	19
Clerks - - - - -	8	Housekeeper - - - - -	1
Doorkeeper - - - - -	1	Total - - - - -	20
Engine-keepers - - - - -	3		
Farm servants - - - - -	159	Girls :—	
Gardeners - - - - -	7	Nurse - - - - -	1
Joiners - - - - -	8	Total - - - - -	1
Labourers - - - - -	107		
Masons - - - - -	4		
Machinists - - - - -	2		
Navvies - - - - -	19		
Painters - - - - -	4		
Packers - - - - -	2		
Pigman - - - - -	1		
Pocketbook-maker - - - - -	1		
Portmanteau-maker - - - - -	1		
Porters - - - - -	7		
Signwriter - - - - -	1		
Slater - - - - -	1		
Stone polisher (litho) - - - - -	1		
Tinsmiths - - - - -	2		
Upholsterers - - - - -	2		
Van drivers - - - - -	2		
Waiter - - - - -	1		
Warehousemen - - - - -	2		
Window-cleaners - - - - -	3		
Total - - - - -	381		

Summary.

Men - - - - -	381
*Lads - - - - -	4
Women - - - - -	20
*Girls - - - - -	1
Total - - - - -	406

* Lads and girls are defined as young persons under 18 years of age.

APPENDIX No. XVIII. (C.).

Handed in by Mr. Archibald Campbell. (Q. 97222.)

THE DISTRESS COMMITTEE FOR THE CITY OF EDINBURGH.

CONDITIONS OF LABOUR AT MURIELSTON ESTATE.

Group I.—Of Men resident on the Estate.

(a) That the maximum working hours be nine hours per day, with six hours on Saturdays, equal to fifty-one hours per week.

(b) That the minimum wage be 2½d. per hour for time worked, with board and lodgings.

(c) That the wages of married men may be paid direct to their wives as may be arranged.

(d) That married men be paid, in addition to 2½d. per hour for time worked, 1s. per week for each child under ten years of age, and 6d. per week per child, between ten and fourteen years of age; but that this special allowance in no case exceed 4s. per week.

(e) That married men be allowed to go home once per week, and an allowance of 1s. 6d. be given in lieu of their board, counting from after dinner on Saturday to breakfast time on Monday.

(f) That the wages of unmarried men may be retained in the hands of the clerk until the men leave the service, unless advances made for necessary clothing, and that at the sight of the manager.

(g) That 6d. per week to account be given as pocket money to each workman who desires it.

Group II.—Of Men travelling daily to and from the Estate.

(a) The maximum working hours are nine hours per day, with six hours on Saturday, equal to fifty-one hours per week.

(b) The minimum wage is 3d. per hour for time worked, with 4d. per day in lieu of dinner.

(c) Married men are paid, in addition to 3d. per hour for time worked, 1s. per week for each child under ten years of age, and 6d. per week for each child between ten and fourteen years of age; but this special allowance in no case exceeds 4s. per week per family.

(d) The wages of married men may be paid direct to their wives, as may be arranged.

Note.—The train fare, which amounts to 4s. per week, is paid by the Committee without any deduction from wages payable in Group II.

APPENDIX No. XVIII. (D).

Handed in by Mr. Archibald Campbell, Edinburgh. (Q. 97263.)

THE DISTRESS COMMITTEE FOR THE CITY OF EDINBURGH.

APPLICANTS FOR WORK AT THEIR OWN TRADES ON THE REGISTER OF MUNICIPAL LABOUR EXCHANGE AT FEBRUARY 29TH, 1908, AND WHO HAVE ALSO REGISTERED FOR EMPLOYMENT RELIEF.

Occupations.	Skilled.	Unskilled.	Occupations.	Skilled.	Unskilled.
I. Building Trades.			VII. Printing and Bookbinding Trades.		
Bricklayers - - -	3	5	Printers (letterpress) - -	3	-
Glaziers - - -	3	-	do. (litho.) - - -	2	-
Joiners - - -	7	3	Litho. writers - - -	1	-
Lathsplitters - - -	1	-		6	-
Masons - - -	14	10			
Painters - - -	28	11	VIII. Clothing Trades.		
Slaters - - -	2	-	Tailors - - - -	5	-
Asphalters - - -	1	2		5	-
Builders' Labourers - -	-	28			
Plasterers - - -	4	4	IX. Factory Operatives.		
	63	63	Bakers - - - -	1	-
II. Engineering and Metal Trades.			Millers (flour) - - -	1	-
Blacksmiths - - -	3	1	Rubber workers - - -	-	10
Brassfinishers - - -	3	1	Saddlers - - - -	2	-
Hammermen - - -	-	1	Stokers - - - -	6	-
Handymen - - -	-	1	Vulcanite workers - - -	-	16
Ironmoulders - - -	1	-		10	26
Telephone-Linesmen - -	-	1			
Tinsmiths - - -	2	-	X. Miscellaneous.		
Metermakers - - -	1	-	Butchers - - - -	1	-
Engineers - - -	3	3	Gardeners - - - -	4	4
Foundry Labourers - -	-	5	Grocers - - - -	2	-
	13	13	Miners - - - -	1	-
III. Carmen, Horsemen, etc.			Navvies - - - -	-	9
Carters - - - -	-	2	Watchmen - - - -	-	3
Stablemen - - - -	-	4	General Labourers - - -	-	35
Vandriers - - - -	-	3		8	51
	-	9			
IV. Warehousemen, etc.			SUMMARY.	Skilled.	Unskilled.
Cellarmen - - - -	-	1	Group I. - - - -	63	63
Storekeepers - - - -	-	1	" II. - - - -	13	13
Warehousemen - - - -	-	3	" III. - - - -	-	9
	-	5	" IV. - - - -	-	5
V. Porters and Messengers.			" V. - - - -	-	20
Messengers - - - -	-	2	" VI. - - - -	6	-
Packers - - - -	-	1	" VII. - - - -	6	-
Porters (coal) - - - -	-	2	" VIII. - - - -	5	-
do. (hotel) - - - -	-	1	" IX. - - - -	10	26
do. (light) - - - -	-	14	" X. - - - -	8	51
	-	20		111	187
VI. Woodworking and Furniture Trades.					
Coach-builders - - -	1	-			
Coopers - - - -	1	-			
French-polishers - - -	1	-			
Picture Frame-makers -	1	-			
Sawyers - - - -	1	-			
Venetian Blind-makers -	1	-			
	6	-			

APPENDIX No. XIX.

Handed in by Mrs. Ogilvie Gordon. (Q 97301 (37).)

DRAFT OF "EDUCATION COMMITTEE" MANAGEMENT OF AN EDUCATIONAL INFORMATION AND EMPLOYMENT BUREAU.

THE BUREAU COMMITTEE.

Joint Committee to be formed—

- (1) of members of their own body, appointed by the Education Committee;
- (2) Representatives from other local public Boards, the Chamber of Commerce, Trades Council, associations of social workers, etc., as felt to be desirable in the interests of the Bureau. The larger Committee might be called at stated times, say quarterly or half-yearly, while a small office Committee might conduct necessary business in the intervals.

The formation of a fairly representative Executive Committee will help to prevent any overlapping of the work, and will enable the Committee to turn for support and co-operation to different local agencies. One result of the Bureau should be to give shape and definiteness to much of the work undertaken by local voluntary associations.

MAIN OBJECTS OF THE BUREAU COMMITTEE.

- (1) To lead all boys and girls who are physically fit towards some employment likely to bring them a livelihood, and to prove congenial to them.
- (2) To foster a fuller co-operation between the schools and the workshops.

OFFICE.

To be placed in the premises of the Education Committee, and recognised as a department of the local educational authority, carrying on a public function as an immediate aid to effective working of the day schools, and evening continuation and technical classes.

Employers, on payment of a suitable fee, would be at liberty to apply to the office for the names of out-going scholars able and willing to undertake the class of work offered. This fee might be paid on single applications, or, if preferred, in the form of an annual subscription.

STAFF.

For a small area, probably only some very slight addition to the office staff would be necessary. The following suggestions, as for a staff in a Bureau to serve a town of say 200,000 to 400,000 inhabitants, will suffice to indicate the nature of the duties for which provision has to be made. For the larger cities, branches might have to be located in or near the schools of different industrial districts. Where there is already an official Director of Education, or of the continuation and technical classes, the Bureau work would come under his department, some additional assistance being given.

I.—DIRECTOR OF BUREAU.

Salary; would recommend that it be much the same as that of a headmaster in one of the public elementary schools in the same locality.

The Director of Bureau is to be supplied by the head teachers of schools with a filled-in printed form

referring to each out-going scholar, stating the particular standard of education attained by the pupil before leaving school, and the habits of punctuality and attendance.

DUTIES.

- (1) To interview and advise the boys and girls, and their parents or guardians if possible, both with regard to further educational courses for the boys and girls, and the most suitable occupations; the regulation interviews to be given during the last three months of the boys' or girls' compulsory attendance at school; subsequent interviews at set office hours.
- (2) To prepare any leaflets, pamphlets, or tabulated and simply arranged matter giving information to the scholars about maintenance grants and other facilities for continuation work.
- (3) To keep in touch with the general requirements of employers in the city and district, and revise from time to time the statistics about employment as used for reference material by the Bureau.
- (4) To give assistance in the preparation of the syllabus for the evening schools, more especially in planning the courses of instruction in technical and commercial subjects; and to render all possible service towards the effective working of the continuation and technical classes.
- (5) To endeavour to formulate definite systems in the various trades whereby employers render it more possible for their employees to attend evening classes, allowing, say, two evenings a week of two hours each for such attendance, in so far as they undertake not to demand "overtime" work from apprentices on class evenings, or possibly arranging for afternoon classes.
- (6) To send reports to employers when desired as to the progress and attendance of the employees at classes.
- (7) To keep a record of a lad or girl during the period of apprenticeship, or up to the age of, say, 19 years.
- (8) To refer individual youths or girls to the care of voluntary helpers or Committees, and to report persistent cases of idleness and non-employment to municipal, social, or other organisations.
- (9) To draw up an annual confidential report for the Committee.

II.—CORRESPONDENCE CLERK AND TREASURER FOR EMPLOYMENT DEPARTMENT.

Salary, say between £80 and £140, according to the amount of work involved and the experience desired.

OTHER EXPENSES.

Travelling and car expenses of Director; note-paper; typewriting materials; printing expenses—e.g., forms for head teachers, pamphlets, circulars, etc.

No office rent is here calculated, as it is assumed that in almost all cases room could be arranged within the Education Committee premises.

APPENDIX No. XX. (A.).

Handed in by the Rev. P. S. G. Propert, M.A., Fulham. (Q. 98549.)

TO THE RT. HON. LORD GEORGE HAMILTON, CHAIRMAN, AND THE OTHER MEMBERS OF THE ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE POOR LAWS AND RELIEF OF DISTRESS.

STATEMENT *RE* THE POOR LAW IN ENGLAND AND WALES SUBMITTED BY THE SPECIAL POOR LAW COMMITTEE OF THE BRITISH CONSTITUTION ASSOCIATION.

1. We are of opinion that the present Poor Law system requires reform, not in its principles, but in its administration. Its unsatisfactory position is due to a departure from the sound economic principles upon which it is based. The desire for administrative improvement having recently manifested itself, this tendency could be utilised for bringing about the desired results without recourse to revolutionary legislation.

2. The reception of applications for relief must always be local, and we submit that the authority which, in the first instance, receives such applications and determines what form Poor Law relief shall take, is necessarily the most important body in the whole range of Poor Law administration. The proper administration of the Poor Law requires much special knowledge, close attention to details, and a great expenditure of time on the part of its administrators. We are, therefore, of opinion that the Poor Law authorities should, as at present, be *ad hoc*.

3. We are of opinion that the local authority should be elected by those who contribute the funds to be administered, and that the democratic principle of election should be preserved, but in conjunction with effective safeguards enforced by a non-elected central authority. Any disadvantages accruing from a popular electoral system might be minimised

(a) By the authoritative publication of a clear statement of the law, in other words a simple and intelligible abstract or *précis* of the Acts, rules and regulations in force.

(b) By more frequent inspections on behalf of the central authority by inspectors trained in the details of administration and having a knowledge both of the law and the economic principles which underlie it.

(c) By the decisions of the auditors being upheld by the central authority when they are found to be in accordance with the law. The constant remission of illegal expenditure has a demoralising effect upon the auditors as well as upon the guardians and their officials.

(d) By enforcing responsibility on all who have sanctioned an illegal expenditure by vote or

otherwise, and not merely on those signing the cheque.

(e) By the appointment of relieving officers who have previously passed an examination, both written and oral, by some qualified authority upon the work and duties of the office.

4. We suggest that boards of guardians might be strengthened by giving to the county councils and other statutory authorities within the Poor Law area the right to appoint representatives as guardians. We further suggest that boards of guardians should be continuous, a proportion only of the members retiring at each election.

5. Closer relationship between the official administration of the Poor Law and local charitable bodies is desirable and should be encouraged, and might be brought about through central registries, which should be located in the offices of the guardians (*vide* Mr. Goschen's circular, 1869).

6. We submit that the wisdom of the recommendations of the Royal Commission of 1832 has been abundantly proved by subsequent experience, hence we are encouraged in the belief that a strict adherence to the principles there laid down would eventually lead to economic freedom. We therefore urge that all amendments in the Poor Law should be actuated by the ideal of a State in which pauperism shall have ceased to exist, and in which every citizen shall have attained emancipation from that dependence which is a relic of the feudal times in which the Poor Law was established.

W. CHANCE, *Chairman*.

W. A. BAILWARD.

EDWARD BOND.

ARTHUR CLAY.

WILBRAHAM V. COOPER.

S. HUTCHINSON HARRIS.

MARK H. JUDGE.

THOMAS MACKAY.

P. S. G. PROPERT.

A. F. VULLIAMY.

23, Charing Cross.

July 27th, 1908.

APPENDIX No. XX. (B.).

Handed in by the Rev. P. S. G. Propert, Fulham. (Q. 98600.)

With regard to Question 93300, I beg to refer you to Reply 93555, where the figures asked for are given in detail. I should like to add the following explanatory note.

LUNACY.

The largest sum is recovered in respect of these cases. The guardians have no option as to their reception but orders are made upon the relatives, and where there is ability to pay the guardians recover the costs. A smaller total sum now appears to be received as the London County Council now transfers all cases in a position to pay to the "private class" (not private patients). When the transfer is complete the county council becomes the collector and not the guardians.

INDOOR POOR.

The sum recovered for these cases is made up chiefly from those admitted to the infirmary. Those admitted to the infirmary as a rule belong to a higher class than those

admitted to the workhouse. Our policy is so well known in the parish that those who are legally liable and are able to pay prefer to prevent their relatives entering the workhouse. Our policy, therefore, tends to restrict admissions both to the infirmary and the workhouse.

OUTDOOR RELIEF.

The same argument holds good. Applications are not made to the guardians where there are relatives liable and able to support. I have heard people say: "There is no advantage in paying through the guardians so I may as well pay my parents direct." The guardians encourage as far as possible direct contributions and so reduce their relief list.

OTHER EXPENSES.

These are made up chiefly of examination fees in lunacy cases. Wherever possible the guardians recover these.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (A).

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

[Memoranda prepared at the Board of Trade for the Royal Commission on the Poor Laws and Relief of Distress.]

METHOD OF COMPILATION OF BOARD OF TRADE'S PERCENTAGES OF UNEMPLOYED AND THE EXTENT TO WHICH THEY MAY BE TAKEN AS A MEASURE OF UNEMPLOYMENT.

STATISTICS RELATING TO THE UNITED KINGDOM

A.—STATISTICS NOW OBTAINED BY THE DEPARTMENT.

The foundation of the figures is the returns collected by the Department every month which are summarised in the *Board of Trade Labour Gazette*. Constant efforts are made to extend and improve the information, and a comparison of the current *Gazette* with those issued five or ten years ago will show that considerable changes have been made, to which it is not necessary to refer in detail.

At the present time returns relating to the state of employment are received from employers' associations, from individual employers and companies, from trade unions, and from correspondents. A few returns are also received from labour bureaux.

With regard to the correspondents just mentioned, it may be explained that in certain industries there are trade correspondents, each dealing with the whole of one trade, who furnish the Department with reports and statistics based on returns supplied to them by employers and their associations. These trade correspondents are connected with important organisations of employers, and the industries covered are the iron and steel, building, cotton, and boot and shoe trades. In the case of agricultural labour, information is received from correspondents in various parts of the country, most of whom are landowners, farmers or members of local governing bodies. In addition there are local correspondents who furnish reports and statistics relating to the various industries carried on in their respective districts. Most of the local correspondents are connected with trade unions. They obtain their information chiefly from workpeople or their organisations.

The information obtained from the various sources, as will be seen from the articles on employment published in the *Gazette*, is by no means exclusively of a statistical character. The form of the statistical information given varies greatly in the different trades, the variation being due to the difference in the methods adopted in the various trades for adjusting output to demand; a difference which necessitates a corresponding variation in the method of exhibiting the activity of the trade—the ultimate object of the statistics in all cases.

STATISTICS OBTAINED FROM EMPLOYERS.

In the coal-mining industry the Department obtains from employers statistics of the weekly number of days on which the pits are at work. These returns, which now cover over 610,000 workpeople, or about 70 per cent. of the total number of persons employed in coal-mining, are summarised in Table D.

In the iron-mining industry similar statistics are obtained (*see* Table E.)

In the pig-iron industry, the Department obtains returns showing the number of furnaces in blast; and in the tin-plate trade the number of mills in operation. The statistical results are in these cases principally useful for comparisons over *short* periods, during which changes in such matters as the average output of a blast furnace or a sheet mill may be neglected with comparative safety. As, however, the average output of a blast furnace in the United Kingdom is now two-and-a-half times what it was thirty years ago, it is obvious that a mere comparison of the number of furnaces in blast over a period of this length would not give a true view of the changes in activity in this trade.

With regard to iron and steel works, the Department obtains from employers returns of the number of shifts worked, and the number of workpeople employed, in the various departments. From these returns the aggregate number of shifts worked can be calculated; and these figures give the best indication of the fluctuation in the total volume of employment.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (A).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).*

In the following Table the statistical results for the coal trade and for the iron and steel trades mentioned above are presented in the form of "Index Numbers." The level of employment in 1900, as indicated by days worked by coal mines, furnaces in blast, etc., is represented by 100, and the level in other years by percentages thereof:—

PERCENTAGE CHANGES IN THE LEVEL OF EMPLOYMENT IN CERTAIN BRANCHES OF THE COAL, IRON, AND STEEL TRADES IN THE UNDERMENTIONED YEARS (1900 = 100).

Year.	Coal Mining.	Iron and Steel.					Coal, Iron, and Steel Trades
		Iron Mining.	Pig Iron Manufacture.	Iron and Steel Works.	Tin Plate & Steel Sheet Works.	(Mean of 4 preceding Columns).	
1897 - -	93·8	101·9	94·5	94·2*	84·1	93·7	93·75
1898 - -	96·0	101·8	93·8	95·4	83·9	93·7	94·85
1899 - -	99·8	101·9	102·0	101·3	99·2	101·1	100·45
1900 - -	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·00
1901 - -	93·6	98·8	83·4	96·2	89·3	91·9	92·75
1902 - -	95·4	101·6	86·4	93·7	103·6	96·3	95·85
1903 - -	93·1	101·2	86·6	91·5	96·6	94·0	93·55
1904 - -	92·7	102·5	81·1	91·1	100·3	93·8	93·25
1905 - -	92·0	102·1	85·6	98·8	110·9	99·4	95·70
1906 - -	96·2	102·3	92·4	105·7	109·6	102·5	99·35
1907 - -	100·7	102·8	97·3	107·6	115·9	105·9	103·36

In another class of returns obtained from employers, information is supplied as to the number of workpeople employed, and their total earnings in one week, generally the last week, of each month. The industries for which such returns are obtained are the cotton, woollen and worsted, flax, jute, lace, hosiery, silk, boot and shoe, and glass trades. They are also obtained from bespoke tailoring firms in London, and from shirt and collar manufacturers in various parts of the country.

Returns of this kind, when covering a sufficiently large proportion of the trade, are of great value in indicating fluctuations in the volume of employment, since the figures showing the total wages paid take account of short time. The figures are, however, affected by changes in rates of wages as well as by fluctuations in employment, so that they are not very suitable for comparisons over a long period. These monthly returns of earnings have only been collected by the Department for a short time,† and it has therefore not been thought necessary to present the figures in this memorandum.

In the case of a few trades the returns obtained from employers furnish only the total number employed. The most important of these is dock and riverside labour in London, as to which returns are obtained from all the docks and from the principal wharves.

STATISTICS OBTAINED FROM TRADE UNIONS.

In most of the remaining trades as to which the Department obtains information respecting the state of employment, the statistics are of an entirely different kind. They are based on returns obtained not from employers but from trade unions, and they relate not to the numbers employed at certain works but to the number of members of the unions out of work so far as recorded. The number of members thus recorded is obtained by the Department from either: (1) the printed monthly reports of the larger trade unions, such as the Amalgamated Society of Engineers, the Boiler Makers' and Iron and Steel Ship-builders' Union, the Associated Shipwrights' Society, the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners, etc., etc.; or (2) returns sent in by the smaller unions or by the secretaries of branches of unions giving the number of members unemployed and in receipt of benefit, and also the number unemployed but not in receipt of benefit, at the end of each month. From the returns the percentage of trade union members unemployed is calcu-

* Figures estimated on partial data.

† They were first published for the boot and shoe trade in the *Gazette* for March 1904, and for other trades at various subsequent dates.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (A).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).*

ated, the fluctuations of which reflect changes in the state of employment. The trades in which these statistics are most useful are the engineering, ship-building, metal, printing, bookbinding, woodworking, and building trades; but in the case of the last-named they are available for two important sections only, viz., carpenters and joiners, and plumbers; while for bricklayers, masons, plasterers, etc., accurate figures cannot in general be obtained. In many other trades there are unions furnishing similar returns which are not of such importance as tests of the state of employment, owing to the existence of other statistics or to the relative unimportance of the unions; but these are all put with the returns in the industries just named for the purpose of calculating a general percentage. This percentage will be found at the beginning of the article on the state of the labour market, which always appears on the first page of the *Gazette*. As will be seen, the percentage is now based on a net* membership of over 600,000.

These returns from trade unions are made possible by the fact that all the unions from which returns are received make weekly payments of varying amounts to their out-of-work members, and are therefore bound to keep an accurate record of the persons entitled to this "unemployed benefit." So long as the conditions of this benefit undergo no great change, the percentage of members returned as unemployed reflects the fluctuations in total unemployment. Certain qualifications, however, as to the absolute correctness of these figures have to be made. In the first place there is a qualifying period of unemployment, varying in different unions from two to six days, which must be passed before the member becomes entitled to benefit. Secondly, there is generally a maximum period after the expiration of which the member ceases to be eligible for benefit; and in times of prolonged slackness it is not uncommon for a considerable number of members to have thus "run out of benefit." In most unions, however, a record is kept of those members who have run through their benefit.† This record is kept by the unions for two reasons (1) because a certain number of weeks, or a certain number of weeks of *employment*, must elapse before the member again becomes eligible for unemployed benefit if thrown out of work; some such provision as this is almost universal; (2) because many unions excuse all or part of the contributions of members out of work and not on benefit. In many unions a "vacant book" is signed by the out-of-work members, whether on benefit or not. In nearly every case, therefore, the unions are able to say how many persons who have run out of benefit are still unemployed, and in that event the figures are included by the Department with those "on benefit."

Further, there are some members who may, on account of age or infirmity, experience more than the average difficulty in obtaining and keeping employment, and who consequently are often in receipt of unemployed benefit, when their allowance is virtually in the nature of a sick or superannuation allowance. Such persons would, of course, be included in the returns; but how far they may properly be termed "unemployed" depends on the definition of that rather vague word. The number of such persons, however, is comparatively small, and their case is being met by the increasing number of men granted superannuation pay by the unions. It is to be noted that in all cases the number of *superannuated* members is deducted from the total membership. In some unions also, certain classes of members do not contribute for, and are consequently not entitled to, unemployed relief. Such members, called variously "trade members," "trade protection members," etc., are of course excluded from the total membership on which the percentage is based, unless the unions are able to return also the number of such members who are out of work.

* *i.e.*, excluding superannuated members, members abroad, etc.

† The most important union in which the number of members who have "run out of" their unemployed benefit has not hitherto been obtainable is that of the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners, which until recently gave only the number of members receiving unemployed benefit. In this case the benefit lasts twenty-six weeks.

In the case of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers, the unemployed benefit is paid for fifty-two weeks in the case of members of twelve months' standing, and for eighty weeks in the case of members of five years' standing, while in the case of members of ten years' standing the benefit is continuous. Consequently the number of full members unemployed and not on benefit in this union is negligible.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (A).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).*

MAIN PURPOSE OF THE STATISTICS

It will be seen from the preceding account that the statistical methods adopted by the Department to indicate the state of the labour market vary in the different trades. In all cases, however, the main purpose of the figures is to show tendencies and afford comparisons between one period and another, rather than to furnish quantitative measures of employment or unemployment. In the nature of the case there is no such thing as an absolute standard of universal employment; all that can be attempted is to show a lowering of the percentage of unemployment, or an increase in the volume of employment, in "good" years; and an increase of unemployment, or a decrease of employment, in "bad" years; "good" and "bad" being merely relative to one another, or to a year arbitrarily chosen, or to the average of a given period.

B.—THE DEPARTMENT'S STATISTICS AS A MEASURE OF GENERAL UNEMPLOYMENT.

The general percentage of members of trade unions returned to the Department as unemployed is so often taken as being applicable to the whole working population that the cautions necessary in using this percentage must be referred to in some detail. In the first place the majority of persons covered by the returns are in trades in which probably the liability to fluctuations is above the average of skilled occupations as a whole. The total membership of the unions in the various trade groups is summarised below:—

MAY, 1908.

Industry.	No. of Unions.	Membership of Unions making Returns.
Building - - - - -	6	56,386
Coal Mining - - - - -	2	128,226
Iron and Steel - - - - -	1	15,534
Shipbuilding - - - - -	6	46,267
Engineering - - - - -	24	154,355
Miscellaneous Metal - - - - -	18	16,455
Textiles - - - - -	82	97,896
Clothing - - - - -	4	8,994
Printing and Bookbinding - - - - -	26	56,189
Paper - - - - -	5	2,462
Woodworking and Furnishing - - - - -	62	34,960
Leather (excluding boot and shoe) - - - - -	18	3,568
Glass - - - - -	10	4,239
Tobacco - - - - -	4	2,082
Total - - - - -	268	627,613

These figures are, of course, not at all in the proportion of the totals working at the various trades, and it sometimes happens in slack times, when the percentage unemployed in the engineering and shipbuilding group becomes high, that the over-representation of this group causes the general percentage to be considerably higher than it would be if obtained by "weighting" the percentages for the various trades according to the relative numbers employed.

There is, however, no reason to suppose that the figure which would be obtained by assigning to the percentages for each trade group weights proportional to the numbers employed in the group would be a better index than that now published, since it must be borne in mind that the returns may be more representative of the total workpeople in a given trade in one trade union than in another. Thus in the building trade group, bricklayers, masons, and painters—the classes most affected by seasonal fluctuations—are not represented at all, so that there is a possibility of an error in applying a percentage derived almost entirely from carpenters and joiners and plumbers to all branches of these trades.

Apart from the question of the numbers included in each group, it is to be noted that some groups are not represented at all in these trade union figures, *e.g.*, agriculture,

APPENDIX No. XXI. (A).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

railway service, and domestic service. These occupations employ large numbers of persons, and are comparatively stable industries to which an unemployed percentage derived from fluctuating trades cannot be applied.

While such people as railway employees and employees of local authorities have more constant employment than many of the classes of workpeople covered by the returns, other classes who are unrepresented in the returns, such as the casual labourer and navvy, possibly suffer from a greater amount of unemployment than those included in the percentage.

Again, the statistics are based on returns from what may be roughly termed the skilled unions. The proportion of unskilled workers who are members of trade unions is much lower than in the case of skilled workmen and unions that do enrol unskilled labourers do not as a rule keep any record of the number of their members out of work. But many of the unskilled workers are helpers or labourers to the skilled men, and what affects one class must sooner or later affect the other; so that although the percentages derived from skilled workers may not be exactly applicable to unskilled, they may probably be used as an index of employment in both classes.

A further question arises as to how far a percentage of unemployed trade union members may be applied to non-unionists. On the one hand, the proportion of unemployed among unionists may be *lower* than among non-members: (1) Because the unions help their members to obtain employment; and (2) because some unions may contain more efficient men. As to this latter point, however, it is difficult to say whether the general standard of efficiency is higher in the unions as a whole than outside them; doubtless different results would be shown in different trades. On the other hand, as tending to make the percentage of unemployed *higher* among trade unionists than among non-unionists, we have the facts: (1) That the non-unionist may accept work at less than the "standard" rate, which the unionist cannot take; (2) that in some unions there are a number of men who through age, infirmity, or other causes can seldom obtain employment at the full rate, and so are almost continually on the books, thus swelling the percentage of unemployed members; and further (3) that in some few cases there may be a number of exceptionally efficient men in practically constant employment who do not belong to the union.

APPENDICES.

A.—PERCENTAGE OF TRADE UNION MEMBERS UNEMPLOYED AT THE END OF EACH MONTH.*

Year.	Jan.	Feb.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Yearly Mean.
ALL TRADE UNIONS MAKING RETURNS.													
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
1897	3·3	3·0	2·5	2·5	2·3	2·7	2·7	3·5	4·4	4·7	4·8	5·3	3·5
1898	5·0	4·4	3·1	2·9	2·7	2·6	2·6	2·8	2·6	2·5	2·3	2·9	3·0
1899	3·0	2·6	2·5	2·2	2·5	2·3	2·3	2·3	2·4	2·3	2·2	2·5	2·4
1900	2·7	2·9	2·3	2·5	2·4	2·6	2·7	3·0	3·6	3·3	3·2	4·0	2·9
1901	4·0	3·9	3·6	3·8	3·6	3·5	3·4	3·9	3·7	3·7	3·8	4·6	3·8
1902	4·4	4·3	3·7	3·9	4·0	4·2	4·0	4·5	5·0	5·0	4·8	5·5	4·4
1903	5·1	4·8	4·3	4·1	4·0	4·5	4·9	5·5	5·8	5·8	6·0	6·7	5·1
1904	6·6	6·1	6·0	6·0	6·3	5·9	6·1	6·4	6·8	6·8	7·0	7·6	6·5
1905	6·8	6·2	5·6	5·6	5·1	5·2	5·2	5·4	5·3	5·0	4·7	4·9	5·4
1906	4·7	4·4	3·9	3·7	3·6	3·7	3·6	3·8	3·8	4·4	4·5	4·9	4·1
1907	4·2	3·9	3·6	3·3	3·4	3·6	3·7	4·0	4·6	4·7	5·0	6·1	4·2

* Based solely on Returns furnished direct to the Labour Department by various Trade Unions which pay unemployed benefit to their members. Persons on strike or locked out, sick, or superannuated are excluded from the figures.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (A).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).*A.—PERCENTAGE OF TRADE UNION MEMBERS UNEMPLOYED AT THE END OF EACH MONTH*—*continued.*

Year.	Jan.	Feb.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Yearly Mean.
PRINCIPAL GROUPS OF TRADES.													
Building Trades (Carpenters and Plumbers only†).													
1897	2.4	2.0	1.2	1.0	0.8	1.5	1.3	1.2	1.4	1.7	1.6	2.8	1.6
1898	2.0	1.7	1.6	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.8	1.3
1899	1.7	1.5	1.6	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.1	1.5	2.5	1.5
1900	2.7	3.1	2.6	2.2	1.9	2.0	1.8	1.8	2.1	2.5	3.3	4.2	2.5
1901	4.7	5.2	4.7	3.4	3.1	3.3	3.0	2.7	2.9	3.1	3.5	5.2	3.7
1902	5.0	5.9	4.5	3.5	3.0	3.4	3.6	3.4	3.8	4.4	4.6	5.9	4.3
1903	6.4	5.5	4.1	3.4	3.3	4.2	3.8	3.6	4.4	5.7	6.3	7.7	4.9
1904	7.9	7.3	7.0	6.7	6.4	6.7	6.4	6.4	7.3	8.4	10.1	11.2	7.7
1905	11.2	10.0	8.5	7.9	7.2	7.2	7.0	6.7	7.3	8.6	8.7	9.6	8.3
1906	10.3	9.8	8.1	6.0	5.7	5.9	6.0	5.5	6.2	7.6	6.9	8.4	7.2
1907	8.0	7.8	6.2	4.9	5.0	5.6	5.7	5.1	6.3	7.3	8.3	10.2	6.7
ENGINEERING TRADES.													
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
1897	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.1	1.8	2.3	3.0	4.3	5.9	6.5	6.3	7.0	3.8
1898	6.8	7.6	4.4	3.6	3.2	2.9	3.2	2.9	2.6	2.7	2.7	3.2	3.8
1899	2.8	2.5	2.4	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.8	2.7	2.5	2.3	2.8	2.5
1900	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.2	2.5	2.6	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.2	4.0	2.8
1901	3.8	3.6	3.4	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.3	3.5	3.7	3.9	4.5	5.8	3.8
1902	5.3	5.1	5.2	5.0	4.9	5.0	4.4	4.5	4.9	5.3	5.3	6.6	5.1
1903	5.6	5.1	4.6	4.2	3.8	4.0	3.9	4.2	4.8	5.2	6.0	7.7	4.9
1904	6.7	6.5	6.4	6.2	6.6	6.7	6.7	6.8	7.4	7.9	7.8	8.3	7.0
1905	7.0	6.5	6.1	6.0	5.1	5.0	4.8	4.9	4.6	4.1	3.6	3.7	5.1
1906	3.2	3.0	2.8	2.7	2.5	2.4	2.5	2.8	2.8	3.1	3.5	4.1	3.0
1907	3.2	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.9	3.4	3.5	3.8	4.1	4.5	4.7	6.4	3.8
SHIPBUILDING TRADES.													
1897	7.4	5.8	5.0	4.9	4.1	4.5	4.4	6.3	9.5	12.2	13.2	14.1	7.6
1898	10.9	6.8	5.4	5.0	3.7	3.3	3.3	4.2	4.1	3.7	2.5	3.7	4.7
1899	3.7	2.8	3.0	2.1	2.4	1.7	1.4	1.5	1.6	2.9	2.5	2.4	2.3
1900	2.0	2.9	2.5	2.1	1.6	2.1	1.8	2.1	2.4	2.6	3.6	3.7	2.5
1901	3.9	3.2	2.4	4.5	2.3	3.2	3.0	3.7	3.9	4.2	4.7	5.8	3.7
1902	4.7	5.2	4.2	5.2	6.4	7.7	6.6	7.4	10.9	12.6	13.0	14.0	8.2
1903	12.9	10.4	9.8	9.1	8.7	9.1	10.5	11.2	13.4	15.0	17.1	16.7	12.0
1904	14.4	12.6	11.8	12.7	13.1	12.9	12.9	12.7	15.3	16.1	16.6	16.4	14.0
1905	12.4	11.5	11.2	12.2	11.1	11.5	11.7	13.2	13.7	11.9	11.8	10.2	11.9
1906	7.9	6.9	5.6	5.1	6.0	6.4	5.7	5.6	6.5	10.4	13.6	11.3	7.6
1907	8.8	7.5	7.1	6.6	6.7	6.4	7.2	9.3	11.7	11.6	12.8	14.2	9.2
PRINTING TRADES.													
1897	4.9	4.4	3.4	3.6	3.2	4.3	2.9	5.2	5.6	3.6	2.6	3.2	3.9
1898	4.9	3.6	2.8	3.1	3.5	3.7	2.9	4.7	4.9	3.4	2.5	4.1	3.7
1899	4.7	3.8	3.4	3.1	3.8	3.8	3.6	5.9	5.3	3.7	2.3	3.8	3.9
1900	4.4	4.4	3.4	4.0	4.4	4.4	3.7	5.7	4.3	4.8	3.0	4.7	4.3
1901	4.4	3.9	3.8	4.2	5.3	4.9	3.8	6.8	5.9	5.0	2.7	5.0	4.6
1902	5.8	4.7	3.4	4.1	4.8	4.5	4.4	6.3	6.5	5.3	2.9	3.7	4.7
1903	4.6	4.4	4.1	4.9	5.0	4.3	4.1	5.9	5.1	4.3	2.9	3.6	4.4
1904	4.3	4.0	3.1	4.1	5.4	4.9	4.0	6.1	6.2	4.7	3.4	4.8	4.6
1905	5.3	4.7	4.4	5.5	5.0	5.1	4.5	6.1	5.4	5.2	3.2	4.8	4.9
1906	5.1	4.7	3.9	5.2	4.7	4.1	3.5	5.5	5.2	4.9	3.3	4.7	4.6
1907	4.3	3.6	3.4	3.8	4.0	4.1	3.6	5.8	5.9	4.9	3.3	4.9	4.3

* See * note on p. 5.

† The other trade unions connected with the building trades do not, as a rule, pay unemployed benefit, and consequently do not keep an exact record of the number of their members out of work.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (A).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

A.—PERCENTAGE OF TRADE UNION MEMBERS UNEMPLOYED AT THE END OF EACH MONTH*—continued.

Year.	Jan.	Feb.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Yearly Mean.
FURNISHING TRADES.													
1897	5.1	3.0	0.7	0.5	1.1	1.5	1.9	1.7	1.4	2.2	2.4	4.7	2.2
1898	5.1	2.8	1.3	1.2	1.0	1.3	1.6	1.9	1.9	1.6	2.3	3.8	2.2
1899	4.3	3.0	1.0	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.9	1.9	2.1	2.3	2.3	4.8	2.2
1900	5.9	6.9	2.4	1.3	1.0	1.6	2.6	3.0	4.0	3.7	4.2	6.8	3.6
1901	7.3	6.4	3.6	2.5	2.2	2.7	3.1	3.5	3.2	3.6	4.2	5.9	4.0
1902	7.6	5.7	3.2	1.7	1.9	2.7	4.2	3.9	4.0	4.1	4.2	5.4	4.1
1903	8.1	6.3	3.6	1.6	1.7	2.2	4.2	4.3	5.0	5.8	6.9	9.8	5.0
1904	11.0	10.1	6.8	6.4	6.9	8.0	7.7	8.4	8.3	8.6	10.0	11.8	8.7
1905	13.5	11.1	5.4	4.4	3.8	5.9	7.4	6.5	6.5	6.9	7.0	9.9	7.3
1906	10.9	9.4	4.5	3.4	4.0	5.2	6.3	5.4	5.5	5.7	5.8	7.8	6.2
1907	8.5	6.9	3.4	2.7	3.2	4.0	5.3	5.6	5.9	6.7	8.0	11.5	6.0

B.—EMPLOYMENT AT IRON AND STEEL WORKS.*

[Compiled from Returns furnished to the Department by the owners of Iron and Steel Works in the United Kingdom.]

Month.	Average number of Shifts worked in the last week of month by establishments making returns.									
	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905	1906.	1907.
January	5.54	5.60	5.57	5.21	5.31	5.38	5.38	5.39	5.61	5.62
February	5.54	5.60	5.56	5.24	5.35	5.43	5.41	5.50	5.58	5.62
March	5.55	5.56	5.61	5.25	5.37	5.43	5.41	5.49	5.58	5.63
April	5.51	5.59	5.56	5.29	5.46	5.39	5.42	5.48	5.58	5.62
May	5.57	5.53	5.52	5.42	5.42	5.42	5.40	5.48	5.56	5.62
June	5.51	5.52	5.49	5.41	5.35	5.38	5.36	5.40	5.54	5.57
July	5.49	5.50	5.26	5.12	5.28	5.27	5.31	5.43	5.53	5.58
August	5.50	5.42	4.97	5.44	5.40	5.41	5.39	5.52	5.54	5.58
September	5.57	5.60	5.49	5.47	5.33	5.42	5.43	5.54	5.56	5.58
October	5.57	5.62	5.36	5.49	5.38	5.38	5.45	5.61	5.59	5.54
November	5.59	5.59	5.36	5.42	5.36	5.33	5.42	5.60	5.55	5.46
December	5.59	5.61	5.30	5.38	5.33	5.39	5.46	5.63	5.62	5.52
Yearly Mean ...	5.54	5.56	5.42	5.33	5.32	5.37	5.40	5.51	5.57	5.58

C.—EMPLOYMENT AT TIN PLATE AND STEEL SHEET MILLS.

[Compiled from Returns furnished to the Department.]

Year.	Number of Mills working at end of month.												Yearly Mean.
	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	
1897 ...	348	355	335	325	313	299	295	299	295	328	344	340	323
1898 ...	355	338	335	310	325	325	288	290	306	321	340	335	322
1899 ...	318	356	348	354	380	380	393	396	408	415	412	414	381
1900 ...	421	419	420	413	412	401	358	349	359	360	356	342	384
1901 ...	295	278	296	328	347	347	347	349	378	380	393	377	343
1902 ...	390	386	397	407	407	398	399	402	400	404	398	386	398
1903 ...	391	395	389	390	383	362	342	367	356	359	360	353	371
1904 ...	360	374	377	378	383	274	366	391	393	406	412	409	385
1905 ...	415	417	420	421	428	431	421	418	435	435	439	429	426
1906 ...	434	424	419	394	415	391	402	417	430	441	441	441	421
1907 ...	445	449	443	437	437	451	446	448	449	444	447	436	444

* Including iron puddling and rolling, and steel making and rolling.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (A).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

D.—DAYS WORKED PER WEEK BY COAL MINES.†

[Compiled from Returns furnished to the Department.]

Year.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Mean for Year.
1897	5.15	5.34	5.14	4.84	5.20	4.82	4.95	4.92	5.24	5.37	5.32	5.31	5.13
1898	5.06	5.24	5.29	4.98	5.38	4.95	5.13	5.19	5.37	5.44	5.46	5.54	5.25
1899	5.16	5.63	5.62	5.24	5.64	5.42	5.25	5.23	5.46	5.58	5.64	5.65	5.46
1900	5.13	5.69	5.67	5.19	5.63	5.18	5.52	5.43	5.65	5.63	5.45	5.46	5.47
1901	4.80	5.19	5.30	4.91	5.23	4.71	4.83	4.91	5.36	5.36	5.33	5.46	5.12
1902	5.26	5.39	5.35	4.90	4.89	5.17	4.82	4.94	5.35	5.52	5.51	5.51	5.22
1903	5.22	5.28	5.10	4.82	5.21	4.64	4.84	4.89	5.22	5.21	5.24	5.40	5.09
1904	5.10	5.19	5.28	4.86	5.09	4.95	4.79	4.76	5.16	5.16	5.14	5.30	5.07
1905	4.95	5.33	5.10	4.95	4.94	4.59	4.63	4.76	5.13	5.32	5.28	5.39	5.03
1906	5.01	5.54	5.50	5.08	5.37	4.84	4.99	4.95	5.30	5.49	5.50	5.60	5.26
1907	5.48	5.69	5.67	5.17	5.57	5.49	5.38	5.22	5.63	5.64	5.60	5.63	5.51

E.—DAYS WORKED PER WEEK BY IRON MINES.*

[Compiled from Returns furnished to the Department.]

MONTHLY AND YEARLY AVERAGES, UNITED KINGDOM, 1897–1907.

Year.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Mean for Year.
1897	5.72	5.86	5.82	5.66	5.87	5.72	5.78	5.65	5.79	5.88	5.84	5.58	5.76
1898	5.59	5.79	5.89	5.62	5.76	5.68	5.71	5.76	5.82	5.73	5.80	5.82	5.75
1899	5.49	5.86	5.89	5.59	5.83	5.86	5.72	5.74	5.83	5.80	5.79	5.75	5.76
1900	5.35	5.55	5.71	5.64	5.79	5.54	5.52	5.55	5.80	5.78	5.74	5.83	5.65
1901	5.20	5.39	5.55	5.37	5.65	5.55	5.58	5.62	5.76	5.75	5.72	5.77	5.58
1902	5.53	5.74	5.79	5.67	5.72	5.88	5.68	5.69	5.81	5.78	5.81	5.76	5.74
1903	5.55	5.79	5.79	5.61	5.78	5.69	5.69	5.76	5.78	5.73	5.74	5.77	5.72
1904	5.37	5.79	5.83	5.67	5.90	5.91	5.73	5.77	5.89	5.90	5.88	5.87	5.79
1905	5.41	5.90	5.84	5.71	5.85	5.62	5.72	5.73	5.87	5.85	5.81	5.88	5.77
1906	5.38	5.86	5.85	5.63	5.79	5.71	5.73	5.77	5.89	5.90	5.89	5.92	5.78
1907	5.75	5.88	5.82	5.67	5.88	5.86	5.76	5.78	5.92	5.82	5.78	5.82	5.81

* The figures in the Table show, for each period, the number of days per week on which iron ore was got and drawn at mines and openworks included in the returns received. The monthly returns relate to periods of four complete weeks and not to calendar months.

† The figures in the Table show, for each period, the average number of days per week on which coal was hewn and wound at collieries included in the returns received. The monthly returns relate to periods of four complete weeks and not to calendar months.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (B).

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

CYCLICAL TRADE DEPRESSIONS.

The course of trade observed over a considerable term of years shows a continual though irregular alternation of periods of activity and depression, longer fluctuations to be distinguished from the shorter and fairly regular seasonal fluctuations which recur within the course of a single year. These long-term depressions are termed cyclical because, though irregular in their duration and intensity, they exhibit a marked tendency to recur at intervals of a few years, following each period of great activity. They are general in character affecting simultaneously, or approximately so, the whole body of industries, extractive, manufacturing, transport, commercial, financial, though, as will appear from comparison, the intensity of depressions is greater in some groups of industry than in others.

There are various indices of these cyclical depressions, some having reference to the volume and value of trade in general, or of certain fundamental and indicative trades, such as the coal and iron and the carrying trades, others relating to the consumption of certain standard articles, or to such direct testimony of the condition of the people as the statistics of pauperism afford.

The best available measure of cyclical depressions, however, is afforded by the statistics of the variations of employment of labour. We shall, therefore, set out this evidence in some detail, correlating with it such evidence of general trade depression as is contained in the statistics of the general movements of prices, and reserving for briefer separate statement in appendices some further evidence from the study of the condition of particular industries.

Depressions of Employment.

The chief evidence of the condition of employment during recent years is contained in the monthly reports made to the Labour Department of the Board of Trade by official correspondents and by trade unions, and the only figures available for the direct measurement of employment (save in the coal, iron and steel trades) are based upon the trade union records.

From 1888 onwards we have the monthly returns made to the Department by trade unions of their members out of work or on unemployed benefit. For the purposes of the "Second Series of Memoranda on British and Foreign Trade and Industry" [Cd. 2337] the figures were carried back for as long a period as possible prior to 1888 by means of an analysis of the books and other records of trade unions. In the case of some of the unions it was possible to ascertain directly the monthly percentage unemployed over the whole period, in the case of others it was necessary to calculate this percentage from the particulars of the total expenditure on unemployed benefit taken in connection with the weekly rate of such benefit. In certain cases both methods were available, and a comparison of the results showed that with proper care they led to practically identical results.*

Composition of the General Index Figure of Employment.

The percentage of "unemployment" which appears monthly on the first page of the *Board of Trade Labour Gazette*, and which forms the basis of the annual percentage, is itself based upon returns of the number of members of certain unions out of work. The number of members thus recorded is obtained by the Department from either:

- (1) The printed monthly reports of the larger trade unions, such as the Amalgamated Society of Engineers, the Boilermakers' and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders' Union, the Associated Shipwrights' Society, the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners, etc., etc.; or
- (2) Returns sent in by the smaller unions or by the secretaries of branches of unions giving

* See Cd. 2337, p. 97, for the unions whose percentage is calculated respectively by these two methods.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (B).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

the number of members unemployed and in receipt of benefit, and also the number unemployed but not in receipt of benefit, at the end of each month. From these returns the percentage of trade unionists unemployed is calculated, the fluctuations of which reflect changes in the state of employment. The trades in which these statistics are most useful are the engineering, shipbuilding, metal, printing, bookbinding, woodworking and building trades; but in the case of the last named they are available for two important sections only, viz., carpenters and joiners and plumbers; while for bricklayers, masons, plasterers, etc., accurate figures cannot be obtained. In many other trades there are unions furnishing similar returns which are not of such importance as tests of the state of employment, owing to the existence of other statistics or to the relative unimportance of the unions; but these are all put with the returns in the industries just named for the purpose of calculating a general percentage.

The basis of the general percentage has been growing gradually stronger since the regular reports of unions to the Board of Trade began in 1888, both by an increase in the number and variety of reporting unions and by an increase in the proportion of the total working population represented in the returns. In 1893 the basis of the return was considerably widened by the inclusion of additional unions. Since 1893 the figures have been fairly comparable, though further extensions of their basis have taken place, the number of members included at the end of 1893 being 360,000, at the end of 1903, 560,000, at the end of 1907, 644,000.

The following Table shows the number and membership of the various groups of unions reporting to the Labour Department at the end of December, 1894, and at the end of December, 1907, respectively:—

Industry.	December.			
	1894.		1907.	
	No. of Unions.	Membership.	No. of Unions.	Membership.
Building - - - - -	3	55,267	6	64,145
Coal Mining - - - - -	2	68,030	2	120,234
Iron and Steel - - - - -	1	2,464	1	15,500
Shipbuilding - - - - -	5	55,036	6	60,481
Engineering - - - - -	11	108,946	24	163,158
Miscellaneous Metal - - - - -	2	5,708	18	16,204
Textiles - - - - -	2	10,412	81	91,140
Clothing - - - - -	2	1,575	5	8,910
Printing, etc. - - - - -	21	35,367	27	56,524
Paper - - - - -	—	—	5	2,492
Wood-working, etc. - - - - -	10	21,280	63	34,873
Other Leather - - - - -	2	1,158	19	3,653
Glass - - - - -	5	1,364	10	4,715
Tobacco - - - - -	1	1,189	4	2,269
	67	367,796	271	644,298

APPENDIX No. XXI. (B).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

The general percentage of unemployed for all unions included in the returns is as follows:—

PERCENTAGE UNEMPLOYED IN TRADE UNIONS.

Percentages for all Unions included and for Principal Groups of Trades.

Note.—The percentages in Columns B. are derived from returns of the numbers unemployed at the end of each month. Those in Columns A. are partly computed from expenditure on unemployed benefit.

Year.	General Percentage for all Unions included in Returns. (Uncorrected.)		Percentages for Principal Groups.								
			Engineering, Shipbuilding, and Metal.		Build- ing*	Woodworking and Furnishing.		Printing and Bookbinding.		Other Trades.	
	A.	B.	A.	B.	B.	A.	B.	A.	B.	A.	B.
1851 . . .	3.9		3.9								
1852 . . .	6.0		6.0								
1853 . . .	1.7		1.7								
1854 . . .	2.9		2.9								
1855 . . .	5.4		5.4								
1856 . . .	4.7		4.9					1.6			
1857 . . .	6.0		6.1					2.3			
1858 . . .	11.9		12.2					2.5			
1859 . . .	3.8		3.9					1.4			
1860 . . .	1.9		1.9		0.2			2.1			
1861 . . .	5.2		5.5		1.8			3.1			
1862 . . .	8.4		9.0		1.8			3.5			
1863 . . .	6.0		6.7		1.2			3.2			
1864 . . .	2.7		3.0		0.4			1.3			
1865 . . .	2.1		2.4		0.3			2.0			
1866 . . .	3.3		3.9		1.1			1.8			
1867 . . .	7.4		9.1		3.0	4.8		2.7		5.9	
1868 . . .	7.9		10.0		2.9	5.0		2.5		6.2	
1869 . . .	6.7		8.9		3.6	4.5		2.8		0.4	
1870 . . .	3.9		4.4		3.7	4.8		3.5		0.2	
1871 . . .	1.6		1.3		2.5	3.5		2.0		0.3	
1872 . . .	0.9		0.9		1.2	2.4		1.5		0.0	
1873 . . .	1.2		1.4		0.9	1.8		1.3		0.3	
1874 . . .	1.7		2.3		0.8	2.1		1.6		0.1	
1875 . . .	2.4		3.5		0.6	2.0		1.6		0.3	
1876 . . .	3.7		5.2		0.7	2.4		2.4		1.3	
1877 . . .	4.7		6.3		1.2	3.5		2.6		2.8	
1878 . . .	6.8		9.0		3.5	4.4		3.2		3.0	
1879 . . .	11.4		15.3		8.2	8.3		4.0		3.3	
1880 . . .	5.5		6.7		6.1	3.2		3.2		2.2	
1881 . . .	3.5		3.8		5.2	2.7		2.8		1.5	
1882 . . .	2.3		2.3		3.5	2.5		2.4		0.9	
1883 . . .	2.6		2.7		3.6	2.5		2.2		1.2	
1884 . . .	8.1		10.8		4.7	3.0		2.1		1.4	
1885 . . .	9.3		12.9		7.1	4.1		2.5		1.8	
1886 . . .	10.2		13.5		8.2	4.7		2.6		5.2	
1887 . . .	7.6		10.4		6.5	3.6		2.2		1.9	
1888 . . .	4.6	4.9	5.5	6.0	5.7	3.6	3.1	2.5	2.4	1.2	3.2
1889 . . .	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.3	3.0	2.6	2.4	2.1	2.5	0.9	0.0
1890 . . .	2.1	2.1	2.4	2.2	2.2	1.5	2.5	1.9	2.2	0.6	1.6
1891 . . .	3.2	3.5	4.4	4.1	1.9	1.7	2.1	2.9	4.0	0.7	1.7
1892 . . .	5.8	6.3	8.2	7.7	3.1	2.4	3.8	3.6	4.3	1.3	5.6
1893 . . .		7.5		11.4	3.1		4.1		4.1		2.6
1894 . . .		6.9		11.2	4.3		4.4		5.7		2.1
1895 . . .		5.8		8.2	4.4		3.6		4.9		3.5
1896 . . .		3.4		4.2	1.3		2.0		4.3		3.0
1897 . . .		3.5		4.8	1.2		2.2		3.9		2.6
1898 . . .		3.0		4.0	0.9		2.3		3.7		2.3
1899 . . .		2.4		2.4	1.2		2.1		3.9		2.4
1900 . . .		2.9		2.6	2.6		2.8		4.2		3.1
1901 . . .		3.8		3.8	3.9		3.7		4.5		3.8
1902 . . .		4.4		5.5	4.0		4.1		4.6		3.3
1903 . . .		5.1		6.6	4.4		4.7		4.4		3.9
1904 . . .		6.5		8.4	7.3		6.8		4.7		5.6
1905 . . .		5.4		6.6	8.0		5.8		5.1		3.6
1906 . . .		4.1		4.1	6.9		4.8		4.5		3.2
1907 . . .		4.2		5.0	6.4		4.8		4.3		2.7

* Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners only.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (B).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

This general percentage is here described as “uncorrected.” A correction of some importance in its bearing on the comparative intensity of the fluctuations is necessitated by the dominant position in the statistics taken by the engineering, shipbuilding, and metal trades. A comparison between this and the other principal groups whose percentages are recorded shows that the fluctuations of employment are more violent in this group and the depressions in bad periods far deeper. Now if a weight disproportionate to the actual amount of the employment afforded by the engineering, shipbuilding and metal group, as compared with the labour market as a whole, is given in the basis of the general percentage, it is evident that this excess tends to be represented in an excess of fluctuations in the general figure. If, moreover, a constant relation is not maintained throughout the entire series of years between the weight of this group and that of the aggregate of the other groups, this changed relation will involve false impressions regarding the relative stability of employment during different periods.

Now, in point of fact, both these defects are present.

The proportion of the total membership of the recorded returns accounted for by the engineering, shipbuilding and metal groups in 1860-70 was about three-quarters, in 1870-80 about three-fifths, in 1880-90 rather under three-fifths, while since 1890 it has remained at about two-fifths. How far these proportions, always exceeding far the real importance of this group in the aggregate employment of the labour market, affect the value of the general average as an index of trade depressions throughout the whole period, remains for later consideration.

The effect of the change in the relative importance of this group has been of course to exaggerate the fluctuations of general employment in the earlier years of the series as compared with the later, and thus to give the impression that employment is recently more stable and regular than in the earlier years when the statistics were dominated by the more fluctuating group.

To avoid this cause of error a corrected series of percentages has been calculated giving the same weight throughout the period to the engineering, shipbuilding and metal group. This has been done by taking the simple arithmetic mean of the figures for this group and for the aggregate of all the other groups in the return, thus assigning a constant weight to this group of one-half of the total throughout the period, instead of a changing weight fluctuating from three-quarters to two-fifths.

The following Table gives the annual general averages thus corrected :—

COMPUTED AVERAGE PERCENTAGE OF MEMBERS OF TRADE UNIONS RETURNED AS OUT OF WORK
AT THE END OF EACH MONTH IN THE YEARS 1860-1907.

Year.	Percentage Unemployed.	Year.	Percentage Unemployed.	Year.	Percentage Unemployed.
1860	1.85	1876	3.40	1892	6.20
1861	3.70	1877	4.40	1893	7.70
1862	6.05	1878	6.25	1894	7.70
1863	4.70	1879	10.70	1895	6.05
1864	1.90	1880	5.25	1896	3.50
1865	1.80	1881	3.55	1897	3.65
1866	2.65	1882	2.35	1898	3.15
1867	6.30	1883	2.60	1899	2.40
1868	6.75	1884	7.15	1900	2.85
1869	5.95	1885	8.55	1901	3.80
1870	3.75	1886	9.55	1902	4.60
1871	1.65	1887	7.15	1903	5.30
1872	0.95	1888	4.15	1904	6.80
1873	1.15	1889	2.05	1905	5.60
1874	1.60	1890	2.10	1906	4.10
1875	2.20	1891	3.40	1907	43.0

APPENDIX No. XXI. (B).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

The corrections in this Table, it appears, though abating the intensity of the depressions as recorded in the "uncorrected" figures, do not materially alter the shape of the depressions. The years 1868, 1879, 1886 and 1904 still mark the bottom of a dip; only in the case of 1894 is a notable alteration made. Here the effect of correction is to place 1894 on the same low level with 1893.

As a further check upon this method, a series of percentages has also been calculated, based on the combined returns of the sixteen trade unions for which continuous figures are available since 1873.

These percentages closely confirm those given above and are presented in the following Table, which also gives in a final column the proportions of employment measured from 1900 as the standard year.

INDEX NUMBER OF EMPLOYMENT.

From 1873–1907 based on continuous Returns from 16 Unions.*

Year.	Membership.	Percentage Unemployed.	Percentage not returned as Unemployed.	Index Number (1900=100).
1873	115,215	1.2	98.8	101.3
1874	123,250	1.7	98.3	100.8
1875	126,398	2.5	97.5	100.0
1876	130,302	3.8	96.2	98.7
1877	131,849	4.9	95.1	97.5
1878	129,941	6.9	93.1	95.5
1879	121,704	11.7	88.3	90.6
1880	123,234	5.6	94.4	96.8
1881	129,309	3.6	96.4	98.9
1882	139,496	2.3	97.7	100.2
1883	148,686	2.6	97.4	99.9
1884	154,938	7.9	92.1	94.5
1885	156,589	9.7	90.3	92.6
1886	155,718	10.5	89.5	91.8
1887	152,108	7.9	92.1	94.5
1888	154,274	4.8	95.2	97.6
1889	173,155	2.0	98.0	100.5
1890	196,249	2.1	97.9	100.4
1891	209,562	3.4	96.6	99.1
1892	213,953	5.9	94.1	96.5
1893	224,912	7.9	92.1	94.5
1894	229,098	8.2	91.8	94.2
1895	236,957	6.6	93.4	95.8
1896	251,550	3.5	96.5	99.0
1897	242,484	3.6	96.4	98.9
1898	261,662	2.6	97.4	99.9
1899	279,306	2.1	97.9	100.4
1900	289,827	2.5	97.5	100.0
1901	292,584	3.5	96.5	99.0
1902	300,399	4.8	95.2	97.6
1903	306,785	5.4	94.6	97.0
1904	283,751	7.4	92.6	95.0
1905	284,260	6.4	93.6	96.0
1906	289,497	4.3	95.7	98.2
1907	295,120	4.9	95.1	97.5

* The 16 unions included in the Table are the following :—

Amalgamated Society of Engineers.
 Steam Engine Makers' Society.
 United Society of Boiler Makers and Iron and Steel Ship Builders.
 Friendly Society of Ironfounders of England, Ireland, and Wales.
 Associated Iron Moulders of Scotland.
 Associated Blacksmiths' Society.
 Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners.
 United Kingdom Society of Coach Makers.
 Amalgamated Society of Millsawyers, &c.
 Alliance Cabinet Makers, now National Amalgamated Furnishing Trades Association.
 London Society of Compositors.
 Typographical Association.
 London Consolidated Society of Journeymen Bookbinders.
 Vellum Account Bookbinders' Trade Society.
 Northumberland Miners' Mutual Confident Association.
 Bradford and District Power Loom Overlookers' Society.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (B).—Continued.)

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

The following Table gives the employment index number for each year from 1860-1906 (based upon the records of all available unions) and the decennial averages.

INDEX NUMBER OF EMPLOYMENT, 1860-1907.
(1900=100.)

Year.	Index Number.	Year.	Index Number.	Year.	Index Number.	Year.	Index Number.	Year.	Index Number.
1860	101·0	1870	99·1	1880	97·5	1890	100·8	1900	100·0
1861	99·1	1871	101·2	1881	99·3	1891	99·4	1901	99·0
1862	96·7	1872	102·0	1882	100·5	1892	96·6	1902	98·2
1863	98·1	1873	101·7	1883	100·3	1893	95·0	1903	97·5
1864	100·9	1874	101·3	1884	95·6	1894	95·0	1904	95·9
1865	101·1	1875	100·7	1885	94·1	1895	96·7	1905	97·1
1866	100·2	1876	99·4	1886	93·1	1896	99·3	1906	98·7
1867	96·4	1877	98·4	1887	95·6	1897	99·2	1907	98·5
1868	96·0	1878	96·5	1888	98·7	1898	99·7		
1869	96·8	1879	91·9	1889	100·8	1899	100·5		
Mean.	98·6	Mean.	99·2	Mean.	97·6	Mean.	98·2	Mean.	98·1

The figures may be summarised as follows :—

Mean of 40 years,
1860-1899.

Decennial average	1860-69	-	-	98·6
"	"	1870-79	-	99·2
"	"	1880-89	-	97·6
"	"	1890-99	-	98·2

98·4

Standard year	1900	-	-	-	100·0
	1901	-	-	-	99·0
	1902	-	-	-	98·2
	1903	-	-	-	97·5
	1904	-	-	-	95·9
	1905	-	-	-	97·1
	1906	-	-	-	98·7
	1907	-	-	-	98·5

Mean of 8 years,
1900-1907.

98·1

From these Tables of corrected averages the following facts seem to be established :—

(1) The proportion of unemployment differs very slightly in the different decades, as compared with the differences in good and bad years within each decade.

(2) No regularity of the length of intervals between depressions is apparent, the interval preceding the depression of 1879 being nearly twice as long as that preceding the depression of 1868, while subsequently two intervals of seven years between the depressions of 1879, 1886 and 1893 are followed by one of eleven years preceding 1904. Nor can it be concluded that a longer interval of comparative prosperity is followed by a deeper depression, for though this occurred in the case of 1879 it did not occur in 1904.

(3) The several periods of acutest depression differ widely in duration as well as in maximum intensity, the prolonged depression of 1867-69 contrasting sharply with the pointed crisis of 1879.

(4) Of the four successive decades the lowest average of unemployment is that of 1879, which included the years of abnormal inflation following the Franco-German War; the highest average is that of the next decade, 1880-89, which included 1886, the year of unemployed riots.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (B).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827*

(5) The longest spell of high trade prosperity, 1871–75, is followed by the worst recorded year of unemployment, 1879. This year also serves as a central crisis of greatest depression during the period under survey, the preceding depressions appearing to lead up to it by some sensible though irregular gradation, those following it decreasing in violence.

Comparison of General Table with Group Tables.

Two objects may be served by comparing the general Table (corrected or uncorrected) of unemployment with the Tables on pp. 16–18 for the several recorded trades and groups of trades; first, to ascertain how far a “general” depression is really “general,” in the sense of indicating a simultaneous depression in all or most recorded trades as distinct from a depression in a few trades of dominant statistical weight; secondly, to ascertain by examination of the figures in each trade how far it reflects or harmonises with the general state of trade, or how far it retains a separate fluctuation of its own.

The important part played by the figures of the engineering, shipbuilding, and metal trades in the general average has been already pointed out. The wider fluctuations in this than in other recorded groups serve not only in the uncorrected but in the corrected general percentage to give an exaggerated appearance of fluctuation to the aggregate regarded as an index of the general labour market.

The dominance of this group expresses itself in the fact that every year of deepest depression of employment from 1851 is also a year of deepest depression for this group of trades, a statement which is not applicable to any other principal group.

A comparison of the figures for the engineering, etc. group with that of the several other groups in relation to the general figure, not merely for the earlier years of depression, 1858, 1868, 1879, when this group weighed heaviest, but even in the more recent depressions of 1886, 1893–4 and 1904, shows the continuous effect of this statistical preponderance. Had this group been absent, the general depressions in each of these cases would have been expressed in far lower percentages, as the following comparative Table shows:—

UNEMPLOYMENT.

PERCENTAGE FOR ALL UNIONS EXCEPT ENGINEERING, SHIPBUILDING AND METAL TRADE UNIONS.

Year.	Percentage Unemployed.	Year.	Percentage Unemployed.	
	A.		A.	B.
1856 - - - - -	1·6	1882 - - -	2·4	...
1857 - - - - -	2·3	1883 - - -	2·5	...
1858 - - - - -	2·5	1884 - - -	3·5	...
1859 - - - - -	1·4	1885 - - -	4·2	...
1860 - - - - -	1·8	1886 - - -	5·6	...
1861 - - - - -	1·9	1887 - - -	3·9	...
1862 - - - - -	3·1	1888 - - -	3·4	2·3
1863 - - - - -	2·7	1889 - - -	2·1	1·8
1864 - - - - -	0·9	1890 - - -	1·6	2·0
1865 - - - - -	1·2	1891 - - -	1·8	2·7
1866 - - - - -	1·4	1892 - - -	2·7	4·7
1867 - - - - -	3·5	1893 - - -	...	4·0
1868 - - - - -	3·5	1894 - - -	...	4·2
1869 - - - - -	3·0	1895 - - -	...	3·9
1870 - - - - -	3·1	1896 - - -	...	2·8
1871 - - - - -	2·0	1897 - - -	...	2·5
1872 - - - - -	1·0	1898 - - -	...	2·3
1873 - - - - -	0·9	1899 - - -	...	2·4
1874 - - - - -	0·9	1900 - - -	...	3·1
1875 - - - - -	0·9	1901 - - -	...	3·8
1876 - - - - -	1·6	1902 - - -	...	3·7
1877 - - - - -	2·5	1903 - - -	...	4·0
1878 - - - - -	3·5	1904 - - -	...	5·2
1879 - - - - -	6·1	1905 - - -	...	4·7
1880 - - - - -	3·8	1906 - - -	...	4·1
1881 - - - - -	3·3	1907 - - -	...	3·6

NOTE.—The percentages in Column B are derived from returns of the numbers unemployed at the end of the month. Those in Column A are partly computed from expenditure on unemployed benefit.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (B).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

Not only does the aggregate of other unions exhibit a lower average of unemployment over a period of years and a much smaller fluctuation than the engineering, shipbuilding and metal trades, but in recent years the booms and depressions in the two groups do not show so close a coincidence in time as in former decades.

But though the tendency of the size of the engineering and shipbuilding and metal trades has been both to emphasise the depressions and to determine the precise year of deepest depression, it is clear from closer investigation that the general figures for the aggregate of the other groups and for each separate group accord both in direction and in time.

If we take the depressions centering in 1868 as the first for which sufficient data for comparison exist, though the woodworking and the group entitled "other trades" alone exhibit the depth of depression in that year, the building and printing groups not exhibiting the maximum of unemployment until 1870, these latter in 1868 already exhibit definite signs of weakness. In the great depression of 1879 each group showed a low level of employment, though the actual percentage unemployed for "other trades" was not a large one. The same is true of 1886, the next centre of depression. In the depression of 1893, though each group again visibly shared in the decline, printing, woodworking and building showed a larger percentage of unemployment for 1894, and building was worst in 1895, when the general percentage indicates distinct recovery. Similarly with the 1904 depression, both the building and printing groups reach their lowest figure in the following year. On the whole, "woodworking and furnishing" and "other trades" (including textiles, clothing, paper, leather, glass, tobacco) follow most closely in time the general fluctuations, building and printing lagging somewhat behind in the development of their depressions.

UNEMPLOYMENT IN THE SEVERAL GROUPS.

Engineering, Shipbuilding, and Metals.

Closer investigation of the several groups which contribute to the general percentages shows in some instances a wide disproportion in the intensity of depression among the constituent trade unions of a group.

This is forcibly illustrated in the case of the engineering, shipbuilding, and metal trades. From 1851 to 1871 three unions chiefly contributed to the group percentages, the "Amalgamated Engineers," the "Iron Founders," the "Iron Moulders," from 1871 to 1906, the "Boiler Makers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders" also contributed to this group figure. During the entire period 1851 to 1906 the figure for the "Amalgamated Engineers" has (save for a few years of exceptionally full employment) been far below that of the two or three other unions, and has seldom exceeded the general percentage for all trades. The heavy weight exercised by this group in the percentage of unemployment during years of depression is entirely attributable to the other unions. The statistical Table for this group (*see* Table A.) establishes this fact, which may here be indicated more concisely by the following percentages for the six years of deepest depression.

Year.	General Percentage for all Unions.	General Percentage for Unions in Engineering, Shipbuilding and Metals.	Percentage for Principal Unions.			
			Amalgamated Engineers.	Iron Founders.	Iron Moulders.	Boiler Makers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders.
1858	11·9	12·2	10·2	16·6	12·9	—
1868	7·9	10·0	7·9	18·6	13·3	—
1879	11·4	15·3	10·6	23·3	23·3	9·5
1886	10·2	13·5	7·6	14·6	34·2	21·6
1893	7·5	11·4	8·3	10·8	20·8	17·0
1904	6·5	8·4	6·2	11·7	14·9	14·0

APPENDIX No. XXI. (B).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

From the full Table it is clear that the prolonged and intense periods of depression for the Iron Founders and Moulders (especially the latter), and in more recent decades for the Boiler Makers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders, have exercised a great influence not merely on the group percentage but on the general percentage for all trades. It may also be noted that the addition of the Boiler Makers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders to the internal composition of this group, by reducing the relative importance of the more stable factor, the Amalgamated Engineers, goes some way to offsetting the steadying influence imparted to the general percentage by the reduced preponderance of the group in the basis for the general figures. The growing importance of the shipbuilding trades is thus illustrated in a greater instability of employment for the group. This influence is not, however, uniform in its operation. Although during the two depressions centering respectively in 1886 and 1893 the high figure for the Iron Moulders and the Boiler Makers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders contributed materially to the high figure for the group, in the 1879 depression the Boiler Makers, etc., exhibited less unemployment even than the Amalgamated Engineers, while during the period 1900–2, when employment was good for the group and for trade in general the Iron Moulders showed a high percentage of unemployment.

Building Trades.

The building trades are represented in the unemployment percentage only by unions of the carpenters and joiners and plumbers. Though there is a possibility of error in regarding a percentage derived almost entirely from carpenters, joiners, and plumbers as applicable to the entire trade, this possibility affects cyclical impressions far less than seasonal. It seems tolerably certain that the cyclical fluctuations of employment for bricklayers, masons, house painters, plasterers, etc., will accord closely with the percentages for carpenters and joiners, though their seasonal fluctuations may differ.

The building trades, as thus represented, show a degree of steadiness of employment considerably greater than that given in the general percentage for all trades, though less than the general percentage excluding the engineering, shipbuilding, and metal trades. Although in 1879 and 1886 their deepest depression coincides with the general depression, in the other critical depressions of 1868, 1893, and 1904, the worst depression for the building trades appears in the year or two years following.

Woodworking and Furnishing.

The woodworking and furnishing group, whose percentage is based upon returns from a wider variety of unions, the principal being the United Coachmakers, Furnishing Trades Association, and Amalgamated Mill Sawyers, follows more closely the fluctuations of general trade in direction and time, though exhibiting especially in later years a greater degree of steadiness than that of general trade. The deepest depressions are in 1879 and 1904; the long period between these dates exhibits a regularity in percentage of unemployment considerably greater than that of the building trades and greater than that of general trade, excluding the engineering trades, etc.

This statement applies, moreover, to each of the constituent trades in this group, especially during the last twenty years, the Furnishing Trades Association and the Amalgamated Mill Sawyers showing on the whole the lowest uniform level of unemployment.

Printing and Bookbinding.

The general percentage for this group, mainly composed of returns from the "London Compositors," "Typographical Association," and "London Bookbinders," shows slighter fluctuations and less intense depressions than the general trade percentage or even the percentage excluding engineering, etc. This may be illustrated from the percentages in years of deepest depression which for this group generally accord with the general movement, with a tendency, however, in the later period to a year's delay.

Year.	General Percentage for all Unions.	General Percentage excluding Engineering, etc.	Printing and Book- binding Trades.
1858	11·9	2·5	2·5
1868	7·9	3·5	2·5
1879	11·4	6·1	4·0
1886	10·2	5·6	2·6
1893	7·5	4·0	4·1
1904	6·5	5·2	4·7

APPENDIX No. XXI. (B).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

But while the Table for this group (*see* Table C.) shows more than usual capacity to resist depressions, it also shows, especially in the two last decades, a considerable normal amount of unemployment even in the best years. What is even more significant is the increase of the unemployed percentage as expressed in decennial averages since 1880, as is shown by the following Table :—

AVERAGE PERCENTAGE UNEMPLOYMENT PER DECENNIUM IN PRINTING AND BOOKBINDING TRADES.									
1860-9	-	-	-	2.5	1890-9	-	-	-	4.1
1870-9	-	-	-	2.37	1900-7	-	-	-	4.6
1880-9	-	-	-	2.49					

The group Table indicates that for the decade 1880-9 this advance in average of unemployment was mainly due to the large though tolerably regular amount of unemployment in the London Compositors. But since 1890 the Typographical Association (whose figures in the preceding decennial period were extremely low) and the London Bookbinders appear to be responsible for the further increase, the former exhibiting a high regular figure for every year since 1893.

These percentages for the several groups contributing to the general percentage and for the constituent factors in the several groups present so close an agreement in the direction of their fluctuations and in the periodicity of depression, though not in the intensity, as to justify us in regarding them as sound indices for the general course of the trades which they represent.

STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT IN MINING, ETC.

It is convenient to make reference here to certain statistics furnishing a more or less direct measure of quantity of employment which are supplied to the Labour Department by employers in the mining, iron and steel, and tin trades. In coal-mining, where output is adapted to periods of activity and slackness by working a greater or smaller number of days in preference to the increase or decrease of the labour staff, it is possible to record the fluctuations by obtaining from employers statistics of the weekly number of days on which the pits are at work. The following statistics apply to the last twelve years.

COAL MINING.

Average number of days worked per week in each of the years 1895-1907.

Year.	Mean number of days worked by coal mines.	Percentage of days worked in 1900.	Year.	Mean number of days worked by coal mines.	Percentage of days worked in 1900.
	Per week.			Per week.	
1895	4.74	86.7	1902	5.22	95.4
1896	4.92	89.9	1903	5.09	93.1
1897	5.13	93.8	1904	5.07	92.7
1898	5.25	96.0	1905	5.03	92.0
1899	5.46	99.8	1906	5.26	96.2
1900	5.47	100.0	1907	5.51	100.7
1901	5.12	93.6			

The number given as “days worked” is the number of days (allowance being made for short days) on which coal was hewn and wound at the collieries included in the Returns.

Though the percentage of days worked in coal mines during recent years corresponds pretty closely with the general course of unemployment based on trade union returns, the same is not the case with iron mining, where the figures indicate a fluctuation slighter in extent and different in time, the lowest percentage falling in 1901, a year of large though declining employment in general trade, the highest percentage in 1904, a year of depression in general trade.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (B).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

IRON MINING 1896-1907.

Year.	Mean number of days worked by such mines.	Percentage of days worked in 1900.	Year.	Mean number of days worked by such mines.	Percentage of days worked in 1900.
1896	5.72	101.2	1902	5.74	101.6
1897	5.76	101.9	1903	5.72	101.2
1898	5.75	101.8	1904	5.79	102.5
1899	5.76	101.9	1905	5.77	102.1
1900	5.65	100.0	1906	5.78	102.3
1901	5.58	98.8	1907	5.81	102.8

The state of employment in the pig iron industry is expressed in a return to the Home Office of the average number of furnaces in blast and the average output per furnace.

These figures are, for earlier years, of very unequal value, owing to technical improvements increasing the output per furnace. During the last few years, however, no material increase in such output has taken place, so that the following figures expressing the average number of such furnaces in blast as percentages of the total for 1900 may be taken as a sound indication of the condition of employment.

PERCENTAGES OF FURNACES IN BLAST COMPARED WITH 1900.

Year.	Percentage.	Year.	Percentage.	Year.	Percentage.
1897	94.5	1901	83.4	1905	85.6
1898	93.8	1902	86.4	1906	91.3
1899	102.0	1903	86.6		
1900	100.0	1904	81.1		

These percentages, it will be seen, conform very closely to the general fluctuation expressed in the general percentage of unemployment. The same is true of the recent percentages of shifts worked in iron and steel works, 1898-1907 :—

Year.	Average Number of Shifts worked per man, per week.	Percentage of Shifts worked in 1900.	Year.	Average Number of Shifts worked per man, per week.	Percentage of Shifts worked in 1900.
1898 - - -	5.54	95.4	1903 - - -	5.37	91.5
1899 - - -	5.56	101.3	1904 - - -	5.40	99.6
1900 - - -	5.42	100.0	1905 - - -	5.51	101.7
1901 - - -	5.33	96.2	1906 - - -	5.57	102.8
1902 - - -	5.32	93.7	1907 - - -	5.58	103.0

The tinplate trade, though subject to special causes of fluctuation, conforms in general to the recent movements in the mining and metal trades, and in general trade.

PERCENTAGE OF TIN PLATE AND STEEL SHEET MILLS WORKING COMPARED WITH 1900.

Year.	Per Cent.	Year.	Per Cent.	Year.	Per Cent.
1896	82.8	1900	100.0	1904	100.3
1897	84.1	1901	89.3	1905	110.9
1898	83.9	1902	103.6	1906	109.6
1899	99.2	1903	96.6	1907	115.9

APPENDIX No. XXI. (B).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)**Wholesale Prices as an Index of Cyclical Depression.*

Since a fall of general prices is a usual accompaniment of cyclical depression in trade, it is worth while to test the validity of our statistics of unemployment regarded as indices of depression by ascertaining how far they correspond to downward movements of prices.

For this purpose we append a Table containing the general index number for wholesale prices adopted by the Board of Trade, based on the standard of 1900, and set beside it for comparison the index number of employment, based upon returns for all available unions.

The index number for wholesale prices is based upon the percentages of forty-five principal articles weighted by their estimated consumption (as explained in Appendix II. of the "Report on Wholesale and Retail Prices in the United Kingdom in 1904, with Statistical Tables for a Series of Years" [321]) and is brought up to 1906 in the "Eleventh Abstract of Labour Statistics," p. 78 :—

Year.	Index Number of Wholesale Prices for 45 Articles.	Index Number of Employment.	Year.	Index Number of Wholesale Prices for 45 Articles.	Index Number of Employment.
1871	136·0	101·2	1889	104·0	100·8
1872	145·8	102·0	1890	104·0	100·8
1873	152·7	101·7	1891	107·4	99·4
1874	148·1	101·3	1892	101·8	96·6
1875	141·4	100·7	1893	100·0	95·0
1876	138·0	99·4	1894	94·2	95·0
1877	141·6	98·4	1895	91·0	96·7
1878	132·6	96·5	1896	88·2	99·3
1879	126·6	91·9	1897	90·1	99·2
1880	129·6	97·5	1898	93·2	99·7
1881	127·3	99·3	1899	92·3	100·5
1882	128·4	100·5	1900	100·0	100·0
1883	126·8	100·3	1901	96·9	99·0
1884	114·7	95·6	1902	96·5	98·2
1885	107·7	94·1	1903	96·9	97·5
1886	101·6	93·1	1904	98·3	95·9
1887	99·6	95·6	1905	97·6	97·1
1888	102·7	98·7	1906	100·5	98·7
			1907	105·7	98·5

In regarding the index number of wholesale prices as a measure of trade depression, allowance must be made for the more or less constant operation of other economic forces which, whether operative through improvements of the arts of transport and of extraction upon cost of production and so on prices, or through forces which find expression through the medium of exchange, have worked during the past third of a century in the direction of lower wholesale prices. If we are to find in price movements a corroboration of the evidence presented by statistics of employment, it is in an acceleration of this normal tendency that we shall expect to find it. Such an acceleration is clearly visible, at any rate in three of the four periods of definite depression which have occurred during the decades under survey. Though years 1879, 1886, and 1893 are not the years of the sharpest drop in prices, in each case they are in a triennial period which marks such a drop; the period 1877 to 1879, 1885 to 1887, and 1892 to 1894, the opening of a long continued fall of prices.

A reference to the several groups into which the forty-five articles forming the basis of the index figures have been classified bears out this general conformity of the depression of wholesale prices to that of employment. (*See Table E. for Table from Abstract.*) In the case of "coal and metals," textiles and corn, the correspondence is even closer than in the General Index figure.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (B).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

TABLE A.

PERCENTAGE UNEMPLOYED IN TRADE UNIONS.

I.—ENGINEERING, SHIPBUILDING, AND METAL TRADES.

NOTE.—The percentages in Column B. are derived from returns of the numbers unemployed at the end of each month. Those in Column A. are partly computed from expenditure on unemployed benefit.

Year.	General Percentage for all Unions in Engineering, Shipbuilding, and Metal.		Percentage for Principal Unions.			
	A.	B.	Amalgamated Engineers.	Iron Founders.	Iron Moulders.	Boiler Makers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders.
1851	3.9		2.3	6.8	4.7	
1852	6.0		1.8	17.3	3.3	
1853	1.7		0.9	3.4	0.9	
1854	2.9		1.7	5.3	3.8	
1855	5.4		3.1	10.2	4.6	
1856	4.9		2.7	9.0	4.1	
1857	6.1		4.6	9.3	6.7	
1858	12.2		10.2	16.6	12.9	
1859	3.9		3.4	5.1	4.6	
1860	1.9		1.4	2.9	3.4	
1861	5.5		3.8	8.8	12.4	
1862	9.0		7.2	14.1	12.9	
1863	6.7		5.5	9.6	11.3	
1864	3.0		2.4	4.6	5.9	
1865	2.4		1.8	3.7	5.9	
1866	3.9		2.5	6.6	8.4	
1867	9.1		6.3	16.5	24.2	
1868	10.0		7.9	18.6	13.3	
1869	8.9		7.8	16.1	6.1	
1870	4.4		4.1	7.2	3.8	
1871	1.3		1.0	2.5	1.8	
1872	0.9		0.6	1.4	2.7	1.0
1873	1.4		0.8	3.3	4.0	1.2
1874	2.3		1.4	4.1	7.3	2.5
1875	3.5		2.3	3.7	7.9	5.9
1876	5.2		3.5	6.0	10.0	8.5
1877	6.3		4.8	9.4	10.8	8.3
1878	9.0		6.9	15.1	17.4	9.4
1879	15.3		10.6	23.3	23.3	9.5
1880	6.7		5.0	11.5	11.5	8.0
1881	3.8		3.5	8.3	8.5	1.8
1882	2.3		1.9	4.7	11.0	0.7
1883	2.7		2.2	4.7	8.1	2.1
1884	10.8		4.8	7.8	23.1	20.8
1885	12.9		6.7	11.5	31.6	22.2
1886	13.5		7.6	14.6	34.2	21.6
1887	10.4		6.1	10.6	26.0	16.7
1888	5.5	6.0	4.2	5.9	13.5	7.3
1889	2.0	2.3	1.9	2.0	5.1	2.0
1890	2.4	2.2	1.7	2.6	6.8	3.4
1891	4.4	4.1	3.2	5.0	13.3	5.7
1892	8.2	7.7	6.3	9.2	17.1	10.9
1893		11.4	8.3	10.8	20.8	17.0
1894		11.2	8.5	10.9	17.2	16.2
1895		8.2	5.9	8.6	18.1	13.0
1896		4.2	2.3	3.2	9.1	9.5
1897		4.8	2.4	7.5	8.4	8.6
1898		4.0	2.5	3.6	6.5	4.7
1899		2.4	2.4	1.8	5.8	2.1
1900		2.6	2.2	3.0	10.2	2.3
1901		3.8	2.9	6.7	10.0	3.6
1902		5.5	4.4	7.8	12.8	8.3
1903		6.6	4.4	7.4	12.5	11.7
1904		8.4	6.2	11.7	14.9	14.0
1905		6.6	4.6	8.4	11.8	11.6
1906		4.1	2.7	4.3	6.5	7.0
1907		5.0	3.2	6.2	9.3	9.3

APPENDIX No. XXI. (B).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

TABLE B.

PERCENTAGE UNEMPLOYED IN TRADE UNIONS—*continued.*

II.—BUILDING, WOODWORKING, AND FURNISHING TRADES.

NOTE.—The percentages in Column B. are derived from returns of the numbers unemployed at the end of each month. Those in Column A. are partly computed from expenditure on unemployed benefit.

Year.	Building Trades.		General Percentage for all Unions in Woodworking and Furnishing.		Woodworking and Furnishing Trades.			
	Amalgamated Carpenters and Joiners.	Percentages for Principal Unions.						
		United Coachmakers.			Furnishing Trades Association.*	Amalgamated Mill-sawyers.		
		A.					B.	B.
1860	-	-	0·2					
1861	-	-	1·8					
1862	-	-	1·8					
1863	-	-	1·2					
1864	-	-	0·4					
1865	-	-	0·3					
1866	-	-	1·1					
1867	-	-	3·0	4·8	5·0			
1868	-	-	2·9	5·0	5·3		0·2	
1869	-	-	3·6	4·5	4·7		1·0	
1870	-	-	3·7	4·8	5·0		1·5	
1871	-	-	2·5	3·5	3·8		0·4	
1872	-	-	1·2	2·4	2·6		0·1	
1873	-	-	0·9	1·8	2·1		0·1	0·8
1874	-	-	0·8	2·1	2·6		0·2	1·0
1875	-	-	0·6	2·0	2·5		0·3	1·0
1876	-	-	0·7	2·4	3·5		0·7	1·3
1877	-	-	1·2	3·5	5·0		0·9	1·5
1878	-	-	3·5	4·4	5·9		1·6	2·0
1879	-	-	8·2	8·3	11·5		3·7	3·0
1880	-	-	6·1	3·2	3·6		2·6	2·0
1881	-	-	5·2	2·7	3·4		1·9	2·8
1882	-	-	3·5	2·5	2·9		1·6	1·5
1883	-	-	3·6	2·5	2·9		2·1	2·0
1884	-	-	4·7	3·0	3·3		3·2	2·5
1885	-	-	7·1	4·1	4·7		4·1	3·0
1886	-	-	8·2	4·7	5·8		4·6	2·6
1887	-	-	6·5	3·6	4·4		3·6	2·3
1888	-	-	5·7	3·6	4·9		2·5	1·5
1889	-	-	3·0	2·6	3·7		1·1	0·8
1890	-	-	2·2	1·5	2·4		0·6	0·9
1891	-	-	1·9	1·7	2·4		1·2	1·0
1892	-	-	3·1	2·4	3·4		1·7	1·5
1893	-	-	3·1			2·9	2·5	2·0
1894	-	-	4·3			3·3	2·3	2·5
1895	-	-	4·4			3·5	1·8	2·6
1896	-	-	1·3			2·1	0·8	1·9
1897	-	-	1·2			2·4	1·0	1·5
1898	-	-	0·9			2·4	1·1	2·0
1899	-	-	1·2			2·4	1·2	2·0
1900	-	-	2·6			2·5	1·9	2·1
1901	-	-	3·9			3·5	2·7	3·8
1902	-	-	4·0			4·3	2·9	3·9
1903	-	-	4·4			4·5	3·5	3·5
1904	-	-	7·3			5·7	7·2	5·6
1905	-	-	8·0			4·2	6·2	5·2
1906	-	-	6·9			3·0	4·6	4·7
1907	-	-	6·4			4·5	5·0	4·9

* Formerly called the Alliance Cabinet Makers.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (B).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

TABLE C.

PERCENTAGE UNEMPLOYED IN TRADE UNIONS—*continued.*

III.—PRINTING AND BOOKBINDING TRADES.

NOTE.—The percentages in Column B. are derived from returns of the numbers unemployed at the end of each month. Those in Column A. are partly computed from expenditure on unemployed benefit.

Year.	General Percentage for all Unions in Printing and Bookbinding Trades.		Percentages for Principal Unions.					
			London Compositors.		Typographical Association.		London Bookbinders.	
	A.	B.	A.	B.	A.	B.	A.	B.
1856	1·6						1·9	
1857	2·3						2·8	
1858	2·5						3·0	
1859	1·4						1·6	
1860	2·1		2·1				2·4	
1861	3·1		3·0				4·0	
1862	3·5		3·6				3·5	
1863	3·2		3·9		2·9		2·1	
1864	1·3		1·1		1·7		1·0	
1865	2·0		2·8		1·4		1·2	
1866	1·8		2·1		1·5		1·1	
1867	2·7		2·9		2·3		2·5	
1868	2·5		2·7		1·9		3·4	
1869	2·8		3·1		2·2		3·8	
1870	3·5		4·5		1·7		4·9	
1871	2·0		2·7		1·2		1·9	
1872	1·5		1·7		1·2		1·5	
1873	1·3		1·4		1·0		2·8	
1874	1·6		1·5		1·5		2·4	
1875	1·6		1·1		2·2		1·2	
1876	2·4		2·3		2·6		2·2	
1877	2·6		2·5		2·2		5·3	
1878	3·2		3·0		2·9		5·1	
1879	4·0		4·3		3·7		4·7	
1880	3·2		3·8		2·9		3·1	
1881	2·8		3·6		2·6		1·3	
1882	2·4		3·4		1·6		1·4	
1883	2·2		2·9		1·6		2·8	
1884	2·1		2·7		1·5		2·4	
1885	2·5		3·3		1·7		3·5	
1886	2·6		3·3		1·7		4·4	
1887	2·2		2·7		1·7		2·7	
1888	2·5	2·4	2·8	2·6	2·0		2·2	
1889	2·1	2·5	2·1	2·5	1·5		1·3	
1890	1·9	2·2	2·0	2·3	1·4	1·8	1·2	
1891	2·9	4·0	3·6	4·0	1·1	2·8	1·3	
1892	3·6	4·3	3·9	4·4	1·1	2·8	6·9	
1893		4·1		3·9		3·1		3·8
1894		5·7		5·7		6·0		6·4
1895		4·9		4·4		5·3		5·4
1896		4·3		3·7		6·3		6·3
1897		3·9		3·1		5·2		4·8
1898		3·7		3·0		4·8		3·8
1899		3·9		4·0		4·3		4·2
1900		4·2		4·8		5·0		5·7
1901		4·5		4·9		5·2		4·9
1902		4·6		5·1		5·2		3·3
1903		4·4		4·5		5·0		5·9
1904		4·7		4·5		5·0		7·0
1905		5·1		5·5		5·0		5·7
1906		4·5		5·2		4·4		5·4
1907		4·3		4·8		4·3		6·0

APPENDIX No. XXI. (B).—*Continued.*

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

TABLE D.

EMPLOYMENT IN COAL, IRON, AND STEEL TRADES.

I.—COAL MINING—1895—1907.

NUMBER of PERSONS EMPLOYED and AVERAGE NUMBER of DAYS WORKED per WEEK by COAL MINES in each of the Years 1895–1907.

Years.	Number of Persons employed in and about Coal Mines.	Mean Number of Persons employed in Coal Mines respecting which Employment Returns were received.	Mean number of Days worked* per Week by Coal Mines.	Percentage of Days worked in 1900.
1895 - - - - -	681,700	248,417	4·74	86·7
1896 - - - - -	678,690	350,894	4·92	89·9
1897 - - - - -	681,531	418,022	5·13	93·8
1898 - - - - -	693,661	401,004	5·25	96·0
1899 - - - - -	715,205	418,304	5·46	99·8
1900 - - - - -	766,901	459,162	5·47	100·0
1901 - - - - -	792,648	476,913	5·12	93·6
1902 - - - - -	810,787	488,079	5·22	95·4
1903 - - - - -	828,968	494,675	5·09	93·1
1904 - - - - -	833,629	528,379	5·07	92·7
1905 - - - - -	843,418	548,943	5·03	92·0
1906 - - - - -	867,152	584,879	5·26	96·2
1907 - - - - -	925,000 (est.)	612,404	5·51	100·7

* The number given as “days worked” is the number of days (allowance being made in all the calculations for short days) on which coal was hewn and wound at the collieries included in the returns received. It is not necessarily implied that all the persons employed at these collieries worked the whole number of days.

II.—IRON MINING—1896–1907.

NUMBER of PERSONS EMPLOYED and MEAN NUMBER of DAYS WORKED per WEEK by IRON MINES in each of the Years 1896–1907.

Years.	Mean Number of Workpeople employed at Mines covered by the Returns.	Mean Number of Days worked per Week by such Mines.	Percentage of Days worked in 1900.
1896 - - - - -	15,658	5·72	101·2
1897 - - - - -	16,873	5·76	101·9
1898 - - - - -	17,349	5·75	101·8
1899 - - - - -	17,133	5·76	101·9
1900 - - - - -	16,830	5·65	100·0
1901 - - - - -	15,329	5·58	98·8
1902 - - - - -	15,529	5·74	101·6
1903 - - - - -	15,800	5·72	101·2
1904 - - - - -	15,422	5·79	102·5
1905 - - - - -	15,363	5·77	102·1
1906 - - - - -	16,147	5·78	102·3
1907 - - - - -	16,352	5·81	102·8

APPENDIX No. XXI. (B)—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

TABLE E.

PRICES.—INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES, 1871–1907. 1900=100.

NOTE.—These Index Numbers have been obtained by weighting the percentages for the 45 articles by their estimated consumption.

[Compiled from Report on Wholesale and Retail Prices, H.C. 321 of 1903 and from the Board of Trade Labour Gazette.]

Year.	Index No. for all the 45 Articles.	Groups into which the 45 selected articles have been classified.						
		I. Coal and Metals.	II. Textiles (Raw Materials).	III. Food and Drink.				Group IV. Miscel- laneous.
				III. A. Corn, &c.	III. B. Meat, Fish and Dairy Produce.	III. C. Sugar, Tea, Wine and Tobacco, &c.	Total Group III.	
1871	136·0	68·3	146·4	163·5	111·5	220·0	144·6	145·1
1872	145·8	102·8	166·5	169·9	113·1	222·6	148·3	151·5
1873	152·7	128·3	161·9	179·0	120·9	212·1	154·5	156·8
1874	148·1	104·8	151·1	179·2	123·3	201·0	154·4	154·5
1875	141·4	84·6	147·3	161·3	130·3	198·5	150·4	140·3
1876	138·0	72·4	137·9	159·9	130·7	192·5	149·4	141·1
1877	141·6	67·5	135·2	175·9	128·5	209·6	156·7	139·3
1878	132·6	62·8	131·4	160·6	125·1	188·0	146·4	125·1
1879	126·6	58·7	123·0	157·9	119·2	178·5	141·4	113·8
1880	129·6	64·8	130·0	159·1	117·9	183·6	141·8	124·4
1881	127·3	61·9	127·6	154·3	118·0	179·8	139·5	123·0
1882	128·4	62·2	123·4	153·7	124·0	178·6	142·1	123·7
1883	126·8	60·7	119·1	150·7	126·2	171·8	141·2	121·6
1884	114·7	57·5	115·2	130·4	115·9	144·0	124·9	114·5
1885	107·7	54·6	108·9	123·7	106·8	133·0	116·5	111·4
1886	101·6	52·6	99·9	116·3	102·9	125·8	110·9	101·7
1887	99·6	53·9	102·7	115·7	98·6	119·3	107·8	95·3
1888	102·7	56·6	101·2	115·9	104·8	128·6	111·9	98·0
1889	104·0	62·7	105·1	114·1	102·9	137·1	111·3	103·1
1890	104·0	74·9	105·4	115·7	101·1	123·8	109·5	99·4
1891	107·4	70·1	101·4	134·3	101·0	125·4	117·0	95·0
1892	101·8	65·2	95·6	117·6	102·1	125·1	110·9	92·5
1893	100·0	59·0	96·4	108·7	105·8	129·1	109·7	89·3
1894	94·2	60·0	88·6	100·8	101·5	116·0	102·9	84·5
1895	91·0	56·8	84·3	100·3	97·2	106·4	99·5	84·9
1896	88·2	55·5	92·9	93·0	90·2	107·8	93·3	86·5
1897	90·1	56·3	86·8	101·6	92·8	102·5	97·4	86·9
1898	93·2	61·7	80·0	117·6	90·0	101·5	102·3	89·7
1899	92·3	72·4	82·9	101·9	94·6	99·7	98·1	91·3
1900*	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0
1901	96·9	82·2	93·3	102·5	100·0	95·0	100·4	96·3
1902	96·5	76·1	92·3	101·9	105·2	86·0	101·7	92·5
1903	96·9	74·1	101·7	102·0	102·6	88·0	100·7	91·7
1904	98·3	70·9	112·9	106·8	99·0	92·6	101·4	88·3
1905	97·6	71·3	106·7	104·3	98·2	103·6	101·2	91·1
1906	100·5	78·3	121·1	102·2	101·5	90·4	100·5	95·6
1907	105·7	86·9	127·4	109·0	104·5	94·4	105·1	99·7

* Base Year.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (C).

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827)

THE GROWTH OF TRADE UNIONS WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE TO THE PAYMENT OF UNEMPLOYED BENEFIT.

The purpose of this Memorandum is to set out, so far as the information is available, the facts as to the development of Trade Unions during the period 1892-1906 inclusive, and as to the extent to which the unions have paid benefits, in whatever form, to their unemployed members.

Table I. shows the number of trade unions known to the Labour Department of the Board of Trade to be in existence at the end of each of the fifteen years from 1892 to 1906 inclusive, and their total membership. From that Table it will be seen that whilst the aggregate membership reached, in 1906, by far the highest point yet recorded, the number of separate unions was at its maximum a decade earlier, in 1896, and that since then there has been a nearly continuous yearly decline. This diminution in the number of unions is due in part to amalgamations and the tendency for smaller unions to be absorbed by larger ones in the same trade ; thus in the three years 1902-4 there were 50 cases of such amalgamation or absorption. The total membership of the unions has, in spite of fluctuations, shown a steady upward movement, the increase between 1892 and 1906 having been 39·2 per cent. The membership of many unions varies with trade conditions, with its activity or depression, and to this cause the fluctuations in total membership are mainly due ; it will be seen from the Table that the years of declining employment, 1902-1904, witnessed a falling-off in trade union membership, as had been the case a decade earlier ; and that this was followed by a slight recovery in 1905, when employment began to improve, followed by a very rapid advance in 1906.

TABLE I.
GROWTH OF TRADE UNIONS, 1892-1906.

Year.	No of Unions at end of year.	Aggregate Membership at end of year.	Year.	No. of Unions at end of Year.	Aggregate Membership at end of Year.
1892	1,195	1,513,647	1900	1,251	1,951,198
1893	1,229	1,497,949	1901	1,246	1,932,164
1894	1,270	1,472,128	1902	1,213	1,948,688
1895	1,292	1,438,889	1903	1,196	1,926,080
1896	1,306	1,526,395	1904	1,164	1,888,289
1897	1,298	1,648,904	1905	1,152	1,913,199
1898	1,267	1,683,768	1906	1,161	2,106,283
1899	1,262	1,844,114			

Of the 1,161 unions in existence at the end of 1906, 747 (with a membership of 1,456,977, or 69 per cent. of the total trade union membership), paid one or more forms of unemployed benefit in the course of that year ; in the remaining 414 unions, with 649,306 members, no such benefits were paid, so that rather more than two-thirds of the organised workmen were in unions which gave some kind of help to their unemployed members. This help takes various forms ; in addition to the ordinary

APPENDIX No. XXI. (C).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

weekly benefit or "Donation," there are payments to members travelling in search of work, fares to situations, payments on account of cessations of work due to fires, failures of firms, temporary stoppages and breakdowns of machinery, emigration grants (in a few instances), and special grants in times of excessive slackness (usually in the case of unions which do not pay unemployed benefit as a regular thing). The benefits given regularly by unions may be divided into three main groups:—

- (a) **TRAVELLING BENEFITS ONLY.**—These are allowances at the rate of so much per day, with in some cases an additional mileage rate, to members travelling in search of work. Most of the unemployed benefit paid by Bricklayers', Masons', Plasterers', and Builders' Labourers' unions is travelling benefit only; but outside the Building Trades the total amount paid as travelling benefit only (so far as it is distinguishable) was in 1906 about £250 in 20 unions.
- (b) **UNEMPLOYED BENEFIT ONLY.**—Where systematic (*i.e.*, where not given in the form of only occasional grants) this consists of fixed payments for a number of weeks—both amounts and time varying in the different unions. In some cases the benefit is given whatever the cause of unemployment; in others it appears to be given only when unemployment is due to certain specified causes (*e.g.*, in some of the textile unions, to fires, failure of firms, breakdowns of machinery, etc.). Where unemployed benefit is given only in the form of special grants a ballot of members is sometimes required before such grants can be made.
- (c) **UNEMPLOYED AND TRAVELLING BENEFITS.**—In a number of unions both the above forms of benefit are given.

Some illustrations of these various forms of benefit may be given here:—

- (a) **TRAVELLING BENEFIT ONLY.**—The Operative Bricklayers' Society pays 1s. 6d. a day for not more than eight weeks in a half year; the Operative Stonemasons' Union of England, Ireland and Wales give 9d. per day for distances under 10 miles (Sundays 1s. 6d.), 1s. 6d. per day for 10 miles and under 20 miles, and 1d. for every additional three miles, and members are entitled to 98 days relief in each year.
- (b) **UNEMPLOYED BENEFIT ONLY.**—The Amalgamated Society of Dyers pays 8s. per week for the first 10 weeks, and 5s. per week for the second 10 weeks in any one year. The Amalgamated Brassworkers give to full members of one year's standing, 10s. per week for the first 13 weeks, and 7s. per week for a second period of 13 weeks. The Amalgamated Union of Cabinetmakers gives 12s. for four, six, or eight weeks (according to member's age at admission to Union) with 1s. per week for each child registered (not exceeding four) under 13; members of six months and under 12 months' standing get 6s., and 6d. per child, according to the above scale; when a member has received the benefit for four, six, or eight weeks he is not again entitled to benefit till he has worked and paid contributions for 26 weeks.* The Amalgamated Society of Engineers has a sliding scale—its members of over 10 years' standing receive 10s. per week for 14 weeks, 7s. for 30 weeks, and thereafter 6s. so long as unemployed; the rates are the same for other sections of full members, but the number of weeks is reduced. Machinist section

* This union allows 6d. per night for a bed to members "on travel."

APPENDIX No. XXI. (C).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

members get 10s. for 10 weeks, 5s. for 12 weeks, and 2s. 6d. for 14 weeks; while "Trade Members" receive 10s. for 14 weeks, 7s. for 16 weeks, and 5s. for 24 weeks. The Blackburn and District Weavers Association pays to members unemployed owing to fires, failures, breakdowns, and stoppages of machinery, depression in trade, etc., 3s., 7s., 10s., or 16s. a week, according to scale of contributions (3d., 4d., 5d., 6d. or 7d. per week) for a period of six weeks. The Cleveland Miners and Quarrymen's Union is a union in which grants to unemployed members may be given if authorised by a ballot.

- (c) UNEMPLOYED AND TRAVELLING BENEFITS.—The Typographical Association, in addition to ordinary unemployed benefits of 8s. a week for five, six, or seven weeks in each quarter (according to length of membership), gives 1s. 8d. a day travelling allowance, with maxima of £4 to £5 12s. per annum; but a member may not receive both benefits at the same time.

The next Table (II.) shows the number of unions in each trade group which paid or did not pay some form of unemployed benefit in 1906, and their membership.

TABLE II.

Trade.	Unions paying one or more forms of Unemployed Benefit in 1906.		Unions paying no Unemployed Benefit in 1906.	
	No.	Membership.	No.	Membership.
Building - - - - -	53	175,434	43	20,902
Mining and Quarrying - - - - -	40	251,858	29	319,262
Metal, Engineering and Shipbuilding -	164	314,396	58	46,570
Textile - - - - -	204	280,586	55	20,299
Clothing - - - - -	20	55,095	17	4,419
Transport - - - - -	9	115,391	49	73,570
Printing, etc. - - - - -	36	63,472	5	979
Woodworking and Furnishing - - -	90	41,849	8	480
Miscellaneous - - - - -	123	89,045	70	34,501
General Labour - - - - -	6	63,991	12	42,843
Employees of Public Authorities - -	2	860	68	85,481
Total - - - - -	747	1,456,977	414	649,306

From the standpoint of this memorandum the unions of employees of public authorities can be put aside, since the nature of their occupations is obviously such as to cause them to be little, if at all, affected by the forces which ordinarily bring about unemployment. With this exception, the only one of the above trade-groups in which the majority of the organised workmen are in unions which pay no unemployed benefit is mining and quarrying, and it is well known that among the miners slackness of work is met systematically by short time, and not by a reduction in the numbers employed. In regard to the trade-group "Transport," it may be noted that, of the total of 101,584 railway servants who were members of unions at the end of 1906, 98,165 belonged to unions which paid some form of unemployed benefit; whereas, of the 87,377 workers included under the heading of "Carmen, Seamen, Dock Labourers, etc.," only a small proportion (17,226) were members of such unions. A more detailed classification of the unions will be found in Table VIII. of this Memorandum.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (C).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

Table III. shows the amount expended by each group of unions on unemployed benefits during 1906.*

TABLE III.

Trade.	Number of Unions paying Unemployed Benefits in 1906.	Amount Expended in + Unemployed Benefits in 1906.
		£
Building - - - - -	53	127,909
Mining and Quarrying - - - - -	40	36,566
Metal, Engineering and Shipbuilding - - - - -	164	181,480
Textile - - - - -	204	37,365
Clothing - - - - -	20	5,277
Transport - - - - -	9	4,533
Printing, etc. - - - - -	36	50,789
Woodworking and Furnishing - - - - -	90	29,586
Miscellaneous - - - - -	123	38,000
General Labour - - - - -	6	2,223
Employees of Public Authorities - - - - -	2	50
Total - - - - -	747	513,778

Detailed statistics over the whole period of fifteen years, 1892-1906, are available only for a hundred “principal” unions, which include the chief unions of each of the above trade-groups, and form, therefore, a representative selection; their membership was in 1906, 60 per cent. of the total membership of all Trade Unions. But inasmuch as they include most of the largest and best-organised and developed unions, it is natural that their share of the total expenditure on unemployed benefits should be much greater; in 1906, out of a total of £513,778 spent in unemployed benefits, the hundred principal unions expended £421,292 or 82 per cent. Actually 81 of them made such payments, which gives an average of about £5,200 per union. The remaining £92,486 was paid by 666 unions, or an average of £139 each.

These hundred principal trade unions may be divided for the present purpose into three groups—(a) unions which paid unemployed benefits in every year throughout the period 1892-1906; (b) unions which paid unemployed benefits in some years only; (c) unions which did not pay unemployed benefits in any of the

* In the case of some unimportant unions, where exact figures could not be obtained, an estimate has been made of the amount expended.

† With reference to this see the following correspondence:—

COPY.

Scotland House,
Victoria Embankment,
Westminster, S.W.
4th September, 1908.

Dear Mr. Wilson Fox,

I have been looking into your most interesting Memorandum as to the Growth of Trades Unions with particular reference to the payment of Unemployed Benefit. On page 2, you classify the benefits under three classes, viz.: (a), (b), and (c). Under (b), you talk about the systematic (Unemployed Benefit), that is, regular fixed payments for a certain number of fixed weeks. Can you give us any idea of what number of men belonging to Trades Unions have a right to this systematic benefit, as contrasted with the partial travelling or occasional grants, etc.?

The point is rather an interesting one, and Lord George Hamilton would be much obliged if you could give us roughly, any figures or estimate on the subject.

I am,
Yours faithfully,
R. G. DUFF, Secretary.

A. Wilson Fox, Esq.,
Board of Trade,
Whitehall Gardens, S.W.

7, Whitehall Gardens,
London, S.W.
16th September, 1908.

Dear Mr. Duff,

In reply to your inquiry of 4th September as to the number of members belonging to trade unions which pay a “systematic” unemployed benefit, I have to inform you that in the hundred principal unions having a membership of 1,273,995 in 1906, 69 with a membership of 991,190 pay a regular weekly allowance, 7 (with 71,345 members) pay travelling benefit only and 10 (with 74,298 members) make occasional grants, etc., the remaining fourteen unions with a membership of 137,162 give no assistance to their unemployed members. As regards the other Trade Unions, it is known that 661 unions with a membership of 320,144 pay some form of unemployed benefit, and that the remaining 400 unions with a membership of 512,144 do not pay this benefit in any form.

Yours truly,
ARTHUR WILSON FOX.

R. G. Duff, Esq.,
Royal Commission on the Poor Laws and Relief of Distress,
Scotland House,
Victoria Embankment, S.W.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (C).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

years. In the first group there are 70 unions, with 948,275 members in 1906; the second group consists in the main of unions in which the payment of unemployed benefits is not a regular institution, but which make grants under special circumstances. This group contains 16 unions, with 188,558 members in 1906. The third group contains 14 unions, with 137,162 members in 1906. Roughly speaking, the three groups represent respectively (a) unions of skilled workpeople who are able to pay weekly subscriptions large enough to cover insurance against unemployment; (b) unions of miners and other workers whose need of assistance on account of unemployment is occasional only (depression in trade being in general met in the mining industry by short time); (c) unions of unskilled workers whose wages are, as a rule, too small to enable them to make a sufficient contribution to the cost of unemployment relief. Table IV. shows the total membership of each of these groups for each of the years 1892-1906.

TABLE IV.

Year.	Membership of Unions which paid one or more forms of Unemployed Benefit <i>every</i> year. (70 Unions).	Membership of Unions which paid one or more forms of Unemployed Benefit in <i>some</i> years only. (16 Unions).	Membership of Unions which paid no Unemployed Benefits in any year. (14 Unions).
1892	661,982	141,995	111,568
1893	675,999	143,473	103,634
1894	705,865	135,757	100,662
1895	706,251	125,810	100,268
1896	748,216	121,075	118,340
1897	827,385	125,066	136,542
1898	797,968	130,298	139,346
1899	845,630	148,523	153,578
1900	871,069	164,431	155,815
1901	873,839	169,077	156,028
1902	877,195	173,418	146,446
1903	879,733	170,972	134,003
1904	880,075	165,154	131,930
1905	895,935	166,329	127,443
1906	948,275	158,558	137,162
Percentage of Increase 1892-1906	43·2	32·8	22·9

From this Table it appears (i) that the percentage of the total members of the 100 principal trade unions who were included in the 70 unions which have paid some form of unemployed benefit throughout the whole period was in 1892 72·3 per cent., and in 1906 74·4 per cent.; (ii) that the rate of increase during the period has been greatest in the case of such unions and least in the case of the unions which have paid no unemployed benefits during the period. It will be observed, moreover, that excepting 1898, the membership of the 70 unions has increased yearly, whereas that of the other two groups has fluctuated with the condition of trade—a phenomenon which was to be expected since these latter are unable to offer so great an incentive to their members to remain in the unions during a period of depression.

The next Table shows the total amounts paid in each of the 15 years by those unions which paid some form of unemployed benefit every year, and by the unions which paid such benefits in some years only, together with the amount per head of membership in each case. Information is not available as to the total number of members who actually received such unemployed benefits in any year.

TABLE V.

Year.	70 Unions which Paid one or more Forms of Unemployed Benefit <i>every</i> Year.		16 Unions which Paid one or more Forms of Unemployed Benefit in <i>some</i> Years only.	
	Total Amount Paid.	Amount per Head of Membership.	Total Amount Paid.	Amount per Head of Membership.*
	£	s. d.	£	s. d.
1892	324,403	9 10	4,274	4 4
1893	449,224	13 3	9,482	2 6
1894	442,022	12 6	4,400	1 4
1895	411,718	11 8	7,244	1 9

* The amount per member in the case of the sixteen Unions which paid unemployed benefits in *some* years only is based on the membership of those Unions which paid the benefit during the particular year.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (C).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*TABLE V.—*continued.*

Year.	70 Unions which Paid one or more Forms of Unemployed Benefit every Year.		16 Unions which Paid one or more Forms of Unemployed Benefit in some Years only.	
	Total Amount Paid.	Amount per Head of Membership.	Total Amount Paid.	Amount per Head of Membership.*
	£	s. d.	£	s. d.
1896 - - - - -	260,125	6 11	668	0 7
1897 - - - - -	330,098	8 0	1,010	0 7
1898 - - - - -	230,860	5 9	3,201	1 8
1899 - - - - -	183,961	4 4	882	0 5
1900 - - - - -	259,920	6 0	1,640	0 6
1901 - - - - -	321,174	7 4	4,218	1 3
1902 - - - - -	419,112	9 7	9,978	3 5
1903 - - - - -	503,152	11 5	11,747	3 8
1904 - - - - -	625,441	14 3	27,030	6 5
1905 - - - - -	502,447	11 3	17,094	3 11
1906 - - - - -	393,385	8 5	21,907	4 1

* The amount per member in the case of the sixteen Unions which paid unemployed benefits in *some* years only is based on the membership of those Unions which paid the benefit during the particular year.

The total number of unions paying one or more forms of unemployed benefit in any one year during the period under review ranged from 74 (in 1894 and 1896) to 81 in 1906. The number of members of such unions has, in spite of some fluctuations, shown a gradual upward tendency, and has increased from 681,865 in 1892 to 1,054,878 in 1906. Full details as to the number of unions in each of the chief trade groups which paid such benefit in each of the fifteen years, their membership, the total amount paid, and the sum per head of total membership, are given in Table IX.

It is not possible to give the total number of trade unionists who have been assisted for long or short periods during any year by means of the unemployed benefits paid by their unions. If, however, we take the total amount paid by the 100 principal trade unions in these benefits in 1904, when the expenditure was greater than in any other year during the period, we find that the sum disbursed (£652,471) was sufficient to pay 36,000 workpeople, or nearly 4 per cent. of the total membership of the unions paying the benefits, a weekly sum of 7s. each during the entire year. The number relieved was, of course, very much greater than 36,000, as few, if any, of the workpeople would be out of employment for a year, and fewer still would receive the benefit for that period. The number of dependants on those assisted must also be taken into account when any estimate is made of the importance of this benefit with reference to the relief of distress.

Any consideration of the help given by trade unions to their unemployed members would be very incomplete without reference to two other forms of assistance—(a) Sickness and accident benefits, and (b) Superannuation benefits.

- (a) SICKNESS AND ACCIDENT BENEFITS.—The most important part of this expenditure consists of weekly payments, but a number of unions (chiefly in the engineering, shipbuilding, building, and cotton spinning trades) pay also a lump sum as a bonus to members totally or partially disabled by accident. The amounts paid under the second head vary considerably, the maximum in the event of total disablement being £100, and the minimum payments being as low as £10. Some unions pay nothing beyond grants to hospitals. Table VI., given below, shows the amount expended for the years 1892-1906 by those of the 100 principal unions which paid one or more forms of the above benefits, together

APPENDIX No. XXI. (C)—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827),

with the number and membership of the unions. From this Table it will be seen that after some fluctuations the total amount so expended steadily increased between 1896 and 1906. The amount spent per head of membership rose in the latter period from 6s. 3d. to an average of 8s. 4d. The sum expended in 1906 was sufficient to pay 20,000 work-people, or 2 per cent. of the total membership—a weekly sum of 8s. throughout the year. Here, again, of course, the number actually relieved on account of sickness or accident was very much greater.

TABLE VI.

Year.	Principal Unions paying one or more forms of Sick and Accident Benefit.		Amount expended by Principal Unions on Sick and Accident Benefits.		Year.	Principal Unions paying one or more forms of Sick and Accident Benefit.		Amount expended by Principal Unions on Sick and Accident Benefits.	
	Number.	Membership.	Total.	Per Member.		Number.	Membership.	Total.	Per Member.
1892	65	629,478	£ 205,022	s. d. 6 6	1900	73	884,302	£ 307,812	s. d. 7 0
1893	66	657,567	235,201	7 2	1901	76	910,962	325,458	7 2
1894	63	667,426	223,227	6 8	1902	75	905,893	340,309	7 6
1895	69	696,201	253,016	7 3	1903	76	908,510	363,839	8 0
1896	67	757,587	236,248	6 3	1904	76	928,885	386,651	8 4
1897	65	791,573	255,739	6 6	1905	79	949,119	401,828	8 6
1898	71	797,151	266,024	6 8	1906	79	1,008,463	413,400	8 2
1899	71	859,500	287,505	6 8					

(b) SUPERANNUATION BENEFIT.—This is paid by a comparatively small number of the 100 principal unions, chiefly those in the engineering, shipbuilding, building and printing trades; but these included in 1906, 633,000 members, or about one-half of the total membership of the 100 principal unions. Few of the miners', and none of the weavers' and labourers' unions pay this form of benefit; but in the case of the miners it is given by the Miners' Permanent Relief Societies. The weekly amounts range from 2s. to 12s., the majority ranging from 5s. to 10s. In some cases the benefit is given only when incapacity (more or less complete) accompanies old age. Table VII. gives the number of principal unions paying such benefits, their membership, and the amount expended on superannuation, for each of the years 1892-1906, and the number of members receiving the benefit at the end of each year. It will be seen that there has been a steady increase in the numbers receiving the benefit, the number in receipt of superannuation relief at the end of 1906 being nearly treble the number in 1892 and almost exactly double the number in 1896. The average weekly amount received by the 15,000 recipients in 1906 was 8s.

TABLE VII.
SUPERANNUATION BENEFIT.

Year.	Principal Unions Paying Superannuation Benefit.			Amount Expended by Principal Unions on Superannuation Benefit.		
	Number.	Total Membership.	Number of Members in * Receipt of Benefit.	Total.	Per Head of Total Membership.	Average amount received by Members in Receipt of the Benefit.*
1892 - -	35	391,438	5,636	£ 98,741	s. d. 5 1	£ s. d. 17 4 11
1893 - -	36	413,866	6,050	108,883	5 3	17 15 0
1894 - -	35	426,949	6,611	118,123	5 6	17 13 4
1895 - -	36	435,092	7,073	127,444	5 10	17 16 2

* Exclusive of the Amalgamated Association of Operative Cotton Spinners.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (C).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*TABLE VII.—*continued.*
SUPERANNUATION BENEFIT—*continued.*

Year.	Principal Unions Paying Superannuation Benefit.			Amount expended by Principal Unions on Superannuation Benefit.		
	Number.	Total Membership.	Number of Members in Receipt of Benefit.*	Total.	Per Head of Total Membership.	Average amount received by Members in Receipt of the Benefit.*
				£	s. d.	£ s. d.
1896 - -	35	471,251	7,511	137,883	5 10	18 2 3
1897 - -	35	536,131	7,839	147,440	5 6	18 10 10
1898 - -	35	512,185	8,308	158,823	6 2	18 17 9
1899 - -	35	539,329	8,812	173,518	6 5	19 6 6
1900 - -	35	556,240	9,431	183,721	6 7	19 6 3
1901 - -	34	542,052	9,887	197,460	7 3	19 14 7
1902 - -	35	549,380	10,767	216,956	7 11	19 18 1
1903 - -	35	551,005	11,892	237,747	8 8	19 14 8
1904 - -	36	552,056	13,094	265,372	9 7	19 19 10
1905 - -	36	555,127	14,094	285,871	10 4	20 0 7
1906 - -	38	633,428	15,062	306,089	9 8	20 1 2

* Exclusive of the Amalgamated Association of Operative Cotton Spinners. The figures are subject to slight correction.

SUMMARY.

It appears, then, that some two-thirds of the organised industrial workers of the United Kingdom are members of unions which give some form of assistance to their members when out of employment, either by a regular system of benefits or by occasional grants; that of the 100 principal unions a large proportion, with about four-fifths of the total membership of the 100, give sickness and accident benefits, and that a much smaller number of unions, but with about one-half of the same total membership, give superannuation benefit also. The amount expended by the unions under these last two heads is steadily rising, but the expenditure on ordinary unemployed benefits naturally fluctuates with the condition of trade and the labour market. In the absence of complete information as to the number of members who receive aid in these ways, it is practically impossible to measure the exact extent to which such assistance, considerable as it is in the aggregate, is really effective in relieving the distress consequent upon unemployment arising from slackness of trade, sickness and old age. Inasmuch as the assistance is given mainly by unions of highly skilled and well-paid workers, it is evident that it does little to help the class of more or less unskilled workers. Finally, the unions giving such relief are, for the reasons already indicated, usually in those trades in which their steady growth is to be expected from other causes besides the attraction of unemployed benefits; and therefore any attempt to estimate the effect of the existence of such benefits on the growth of the unions would probably lead to fallacious results.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (C).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

TABLE VIII.

EXPENDITURE by all TRADE UNIONS in UNITED KINGDOM on Unemployed Benefits in 1906.*

Trade.	Unions paying one or more forms of Unemployed Benefit in 1906.			Unions paying no Unemployed Benefit in 1906.	
	Number of Unions.	Amount paid in 1906.	Membership at end of 1906.	Number of Unions.	Membership at end of 1906.
Building :—		£			
Bricklayers - - - -	5	1,705	34,441	1	16
Masons - - - - -	6	5,043	16,310	4	3,932
Carpenters and Joiners - -	4	84,701	78,434	—	—
Plumbers - - - - -	2	8,306	11,275	2	1,147
Plasterers - - - - -	5	632	8,368	1	1,325
Painters - - - - -	7	26,818	20,376	6	1,760
Slaters and others - - -	6	667	1,546	6	1,474
Labourers - - - - -	18	37	4,684	23	11,248
Total Building - -	53	127,909	175,434	43	20,902
Mining and Quarrying - - -	40	36,566	251,858	29	319,262
Metal, &c., Trades :—					
Iron and Steel Manufacture -	3	7,370	18,379	6	27,101
Ironfounding - - - - -	7	25,246	33,800	2	4,380
Engineering and Shipbuilding -	82	139,918	237,580	24	8,749
Other Metal Trades - - -	72	8,946	24,637	26	6,340
Total Metal, &c., Trades -	164	181,480	314,396	58	46,570
Textile Trades :—					
Cotton (Cardroom) - - -	16	2,292	35,630	2	1,171
„ (Spinners) - - - -	1	12,455	45,159	—	—
„ (Weaving) - - - -	120	13,350	150,271	6	1,381
Other Textiles - - - -	67	9,268	49,526	47	17,747
Total Textiles - -	204	37,365	280,586	55	20,299
Clothing Trades - - - -	20	5,277	55,095	17	4,419
Transport Trades :—					
Railway Servants - - - -	4	4,401	98,165	2	3,419
Carmen, Seamen, Dock Labourers, &c. -	5	132	17,226	47	70,151
Total Transport -	9	4,533	115,391	49	73,570

* In the case of some unimportant unions where exact figures could not be obtained, an estimate has been made of the amount expended.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (C).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

TABLE VIII.—continued.

Trade.	Unions paying one or more forms of Unemployed Benefit in 1906.			Unions paying no Unemployed Benefit in 1906.	
	Number of Unions.	Amount paid in 1906.	Membership at end of 1906.	Number of Unions.	Membership at end of 1906.
Printing and Allied Trades :—					
Letterpress Printing * - -	15	£ 38,017	46,654	2	595
Litho. and Plate Printing - -	8	4,783	6,868	—	—
Bookbinding - - - -	7	5,549	7,220	1	60
Paper Trades - - - -	6	2,440	2,730	2	324
Total Printing, &c. -	36	50,789	63,472	5	979
Woodworking and Furnishing :—					
Furnishing Trades - - -	24	15,431	15,395	—	—
Coachmakers - - - -	11	6,195	12,956	1	98
Sawyers and Machinists - -	6	3,961	6,506	—	—
Coopers and others - - -	49	3,999	6,992	7	382
Total Woodworking and Furnishing	90	29,586	41,849	8	480
Miscellaneous Trades (including Agriculture and Fishing) :—					
Glass Trades - - - -	18	13,701	8,620	1	40
Tobacco Trades - - - -	6	3,566	3,950	2	980
Brushmakers - - - -	4	2,230	2,166	1	839
Leather Trades - - - -	24	3,527	5,413	4	508
Shop Assistants - - - -	4	9,428	39,457	1	9
Others - - - -	67	5,548	29,439	61	32,125
Total Misc. Trades - -	123	38,000	89,045	70	34,501
General Labour - - - -	6	2,223	68,991	12	42,843
Employees of Public Authorities -	2	50	860	68	85,481
Grand total, all trades -	747	513,778	1,456,977	414	649,306

* Including typefounding.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (C).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

TABLE IX.

UNEMPLOYED BENEFITS paid by 100 PRINCIPAL TRADE UNIONS in each Year 1892-1906.

Unions which paid Unemployed Benefit in one or more forms in one or more years during the period.

YEAR.	Building Trades.	Mining and Quarrying.	Metal, Engineering and Shipbuilding.	Textile Trades.	Clothing Trades.	Transport.	Printing, &c., Trades.	Woodworking and Furnishing.	Miscellaneous Trades.	General Labour.	TOTAL.
1892 -	9	9	13	19	4	4	7	4	4	2	75
1893 -	9	10	13	19	4	4	7	4	4	2	76
1894 -	9	10	12	18	4	4	7	4	3	3	74
1895 -	9	9	14	18	4	4	7	4	5	2	76
1896 -	9	8	13	19	4	4	7	4	4	2	74
1897 -	9	10	13	19	4	4	7	4	5	2	77
1898 -	10	10	13	19	4	4	7	4	4	2	77
1899 -	9	9	13	19	4	4	7	4	4	2	75
1900 -	10	10	14	19	4	4	7	4	4	2	78
1901 -	10	11	14	19	4	4	7	4	4	2	79
1902 -	10	10	13	19	4	4	7	4	4	2	77
1903 -	10	11	13	19	4	4	7	4	4	2	78
1904 -	10	12	13	19	4	4	7	4	4	2	79
1905 -	10	12	13	19	4	4	7	4	4	2	79
1906 -	10	13	13	20	4	4	7	4	4	2	81

A.—NUMBER OF UNIONS.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (C).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

TABLE IX.—continued.

UNEMPLOYED BENEFITS paid by 100 PRINCIPAL TRADE UNIONS in each YEAR 1892-1906—continued.

Unions which paid Unemployed Benefit in one or more forms in one or more years during the period—continued.

YEAR.	Building Trades.	Mining and Quarrying.	Metal, Engineering and Shipbuilding.	Textile Trades.	Clothing Trades.	Transport.	Printing, &c., Trades.	Woodworking and Furnishing.	Miscellaneous Trades.	General Labour.	TOTAL.
B.—MEMBERSHIP of UNIONS.											
1892 -	108,566	97,806	170,492	104,164	67,731	48,344	32,277	15,635	10,200	26,650	681,865
1893 -	120,380	154,538	172,629	106,076	66,017	49,913	33,604	15,702	9,649	24,059	752,567
1894 -	125,841	158,264	173,753	106,392	67,677	56,127	34,508	14,965	5,342	27,798	770,667
1895 -	127,065	165,662	184,757	105,333	63,319	53,803	36,359	15,015	12,747	23,896	787,956
1896 -	137,361	113,425	202,756	106,951	59,178	62,179	37,710	17,875	9,140	24,003	770,578
1897 -	150,278	125,209	212,400	109,025	58,384	107,392	39,174	19,252	15,406	27,421	863,941
1898 -	165,451	131,117	207,044	107,670	54,223	73,448	40,729	18,077	12,749	26,627	837,135
1899 -	175,300	146,355	220,358	112,206	50,172	79,846	42,538	19,119	16,004	26,492	888,390
1900 -	185,567	159,583	234,954	113,903	49,404	85,996	42,635	19,632	19,320	25,186	936,180
1901 -	184,563	163,318	235,355	113,854	49,562	81,334	43,476	20,114	22,933	26,299	940,808
1902 -	185,321	161,765	231,295	114,426	48,036	79,566	44,263	20,639	25,289	25,587	936,187
1903 -	183,741	169,452	233,444	113,884	46,777	78,689	44,877	21,204	27,724	23,664	943,456
1904 -	177,593	190,532	235,700	116,152	45,298	79,781	45,847	20,822	31,371	20,774	963,870
1905 -	169,272	193,350	241,215	125,600	45,768	85,355	46,417	21,124	34,110	20,863	983,074
1906 -	162,689	215,730	255,413	138,935	43,545	104,959	47,023	22,673	39,277	24,634	1,054,878

APPENDIX No. XXI. (C).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

TABLE IX.—continued.

UNEMPLOYED BENEFITS paid by 100 PRINCIPAL TRADE UNIONS in each Year 1892-1906—continued

Unions which paid Unemployed Benefit in one or more forms in one or more years during the period—continued.

C.—TOTAL AMOUNT PAID.

	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1892 -	31,729	7,738	190,568	44,101	1,532	6,097	25,598	9,244	5,004	7,066	328,677	£
1893 -	40,030	63,265	252,223	48,352	1,884	5,907	26,514	12,140	6,838	1,553	458,706	
1894 -	53,794	27,079	260,735	41,386	1,530	3,272	34,717	11,808	10,119	1,982	446,422	
1895 -	52,345	68,635	191,830	48,825	1,512	3,505	30,374	9,898	9,244	2,894	418,962	
1896 -	25,099	43,660	112,944	34,244	1,422	3,091	27,835	5,734	5,345	1,419	260,793	
1897 -	24,216	25,273	194,240	41,605	1,254	3,357	24,995	6,736	4,710	4,722	331,108	
1898 -	22,249	13,942	104,510	34,206	1,223	17,779	25,668	6,773	6,138	1,573	234,061	
1899 -	24,277	10,409	80,512	26,457	843	3,017	28,310	7,050	3,848	120	184,843	
1900 -	46,355	4,540	94,227	60,782	763	3,612	35,410	9,985	5,722	164	261,560	
1901 -	67,228	18,475	132,932	43,999	563	3,480	36,469	13,892	7,484	870	325,392	
1902 -	73,804	19,387	203,965	55,748	559	3,385	37,495	16,014	16,704	2,029	429,090	
1903 -	80,802	18,468	224,950	113,745	595	3,590	38,690	17,045	16,462	552	514,899	
1904 -	137,406	48,403	303,749	71,024	637	4,400	40,897	24,556	20,091	1,308	652,471	
1905 -	142,987	35,564	227,747	24,428	666	4,735	43,937	19,370	18,782	1,325	519,541	
1906 -	125,574	30,585	157,137	24,049	1,453	4,398	41,387	15,861	18,720	2,128	421,292	

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

TABLE IX.—continued.

UNEMPLOYED BENEFITS paid by 100 PRINCIPAL TRADE UNIONS in each Year 1892-1906—continued.

Unions which paid Unemployed Benefit in one or more forms in one or more years during the period—continued.

YEAR.	Building Trades.	Mining and Quarrying.	Metal, Engineering, and Shipbuilding.	Textile Trades.	Clothing Trades.	Transport.	Printing, &c., Trades.	Woodworking and Furnishing.	Miscellaneous Trades.	General Labour.	TOTAL.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
1892 -	5 10	1 7	22 4	8 6	0 5	2 6	15 10	11 10	9 10	5 4	9 8
1893 -	6 8	8 2	29 3	9 1	0 7	2 4	15 9	15 6	14 2	1 3	12 2
1894 -	8 7	3 5	30 0	7 9	0 5	1 2	20 1	15 9	37 11	1 5	11 7
1895 -	8 3	8 3	20 9	9 3	0 6	1 4	16 8	13 2	14 6	2 5	10 8
1896 -	3 8	7 8	11 2	6 5	0 6	1 0	14 9	6 5	11 8	1 2	6 9
1897 -	3 3	4 0	18 3	7 8	0 5	0 8	12 9	7 0	6 1	3 5	7 8
1898 -	2 8	2 2	10 1	6 4	0 5	4 10	12 7	7 6	9 8	1 2	5 7
1899 -	2 9	1 5	7 4	4 9	0 4	0 9	13 4	7 4	4 10	0 1	4 2
1900 -	5 0	0 7	8 0	10 8	0 4	0 10	16 7	10 2	5 11	0 2	5 7
1901 -	7 3	2 3	11 4	7 9	0 3	0 10	16 9	13 10	6 6	0 8	6 11
1902 -	8 0	2 5	17 8	9 9	0 3	0 10	16 11	15 6	13 3	1 7	9 2
1903 -	8 10	2 2	19 3	20 0	0 3	0 11	17 3	16 1	11 11	0 6	10 11
1904 -	15 6	5 1	25 9	12 3	0 3	1 1	17 10	23 7	12 10	1 3	13 6
1905 -	16 11	3 8	18 11	3 11	0 3	1 1	18 11	18 4	11 0	1 3	10 7
1906 -	15 5	2 10	12 4	3 6	0 8	0 10	17 7	14 0	9 6	1 9	8 0

D.—AMOUNT PER HEAD OF TOTAL MEMBERSHIP.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (C).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

TRADE UNIONS AND UNEMPLOYED BENEFIT.

TABLE X.

100 PRINCIPAL UNIONS :—TOTAL MEMBERSHIP and Total Amount of Unemployed Benefits paid in each of the Years 1892–1906.

A.—Unions which paid some form of Unemployed Benefit in each Year

Year.	United Operative Bricklayers (London Order).		Operative Bricklayers (Manchester Order).		Operative Stonemasons.		General Union of Carpenters and Joiners.	
	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.
1892	2,245	£ 44	22,270	£ 363	15,621	£ 1,462	3,645	£ 714
1893	2,505	56	22,253	484	16,104	1,709	6,177	979
1894	2,878	44	23,557	586	16,210	2,416	6,900	1,503
1895	3,500	24	24,123	469	15,603	2,176	5,841	2,020
1896	3,300	32	26,289	464	16,223	2,021	5,669	874
1897	3,500	24	29,755	243	16,701	1,423	6,129	793
1898	3,255	27	33,310	239	18,116	1,251	6,684	705
1899	4,300	20	36,491	272	19,079	1,163	7,462	838
1900	3,438	22	38,830	453	19,419	2,109	7,727	1,879
1901	3,136	36	38,743	782	18,684	3,094	7,301	2,795
1902	2,931	21	38,410	742	17,805	2,679	6,968	2,983
1903	2,764	29	37,821	815	17,140	2,700	6,566	2,813
1904	2,443	47	35,488	1,597	16,303	3,991	6,152	4,163
1905	2,262	44	32,830	2,010	14,981	5,445	5,532	3,907
1906	2,139	42	31,267	1,480	13,245	4,642	5,565	3,366

Year.	Amalgamated Carpenters and Joiners.		Associated Carpenters and Joiners.		United Operative Plumbers.		National Operative Plasterers.	
	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.
1892	37,588	£ 24,719	6,270	£ 1,059	6,177	£ 533	6,925	£ 195
1893	40,996	30,905	7,312	1,514	6,873	649	7,707	217
1894	43,041	41,371	6,880	2,406	7,511	870	7,941	320
1895	44,155	38,884	7,120	2,396	8,146	534	8,486	277
1896	48,631	16,436	8,000	534	8,758	540	9,416	185
1897	53,057	14,676	8,786	971	9,555	725	10,725	73
1898	56,634	13,677	9,331	606	9,957	846	11,531	27
1899	61,781	15,341	9,787	1,286	10,675	650	10,992	66
1900	65,012	30,673	9,808	2,920	11,186	587	11,009	246
1901	67,018	44,511	8,785	3,307	11,089	1,065	10,074	481
1902	69,942	47,435	8,802	2,404	11,390	5,192	9,568	280
1903	71,547	52,561	8,659	2,785	11,498	6,221	9,246	346
1904	70,763	90,814	8,189	5,742	11,479	8,455	8,732	519
1905	68,177	92,807	7,343	5,298	11,419	7,593	8,176	635
1906	66,362	77,524	6,490	3,791	11,247	8,294	7,823	484

APPENDIX No. XXI. (C).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

TRADE UNIONS AND UNEMPLOYED BENEFIT—continued.

TABLE X.—continued.

100 PRINCIPAL UNIONS :—TOTAL MEMBERSHIP and Total Amount of Unemployed Benefits paid in each of the Years 1892–1906.

A.—Unions which paid some form of Unemployed Benefit in each Year.

Year.	House and Ship Painters and Decorators.		Northumberland Miners.		Durham Miners.		Durham Co. Colliery Enginemmen, &c.	
	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.
1892	7,825	£ 2,640	18,727	£ 626	53,605	£ 2,180	1,689	£ 110
1893	10,453	3,517	19,043	7,348	56,039	44,946	1,597	585
1894	10,923	4,278	19,482	2,152	64,949	19,666	1,600	286
1895	10,091	5,565	20,522	7,425	63,649	51,426	1,649	500
1896	11,075	4,013	19,894	4,557	66,822	36,676	1,638	344
1897	12,070	5,288	20,884	746	67,989	22,017	1,641	321
1898	13,309	4,849	21,594	889	69,132	9,719	1,655	250
1899	14,733	4,641	22,667	1,541	79,563	7,178	1,847	125
1900	15,613	7,307	23,950	206	80,260	3,362	2,062	64
1901	16,213	11,009	24,138	1,212	81,858	13,292	2,217	176
1902	16,505	12,047	23,933	412	82,894	10,504	2,242	181
1903	15,875	12,484	23,794	316	86,346	10,864	2,303	218
1904	16,056	22,053	23,364	620	89,914	22,662	2,328	415
1905	16,542	25,197	24,368	610	90,371	19,930	2,436	307
1906	16,519	25,937	25,162	156	95,516	14,508	2,518	337
Year.	Durham Cokemen and Labourers.		Durham Colliery Mechanics.		Cumberland Miners.		Cleveland Miners and Quarrymen.	
	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.
1892	2,819	£ Breakage provided for by rule. 344	2,477	£ 100	4,961	£ 933	3,930	£ 3,578
1893	2,659		1,999	830	3,699	Included with dispute benefit.	3,868	Included with other benefits. 75
1894	2,440	71	2,084	441	3,088		2,690	
1895	2,632	54	1,847	589	2,383		2,926	186
1896	2,708	94	1,777	764	2,274	611	3,170	14
1897	2,800	66	1,835	396	2,732	811	4,440	57
1898	2,850	39	1,968	207	3,811	1,181	5,364	Included with other benefits. 74
1899	3,673	8	2,518	162	3,812	748	6,946	
1900	3,713	39	3,101	121	5,340	Included with dispute benefit.	7,801	375
1901	3,262	29	3,037	748	5,223		6,758	2,102
1902	3,312	16	2,975	511	4,433		6,700	330
1903	3,304	34	2,948	448	4,021		6,654	68
1904	3,208	201	3,203	1,213	3,250	2,103	7,077	169
1905	3,538	532	3,205	1,455	3,229	1,330	6,887	298
1906	3,914	168	3,434	612	4,311	1,523	7,375	62

APPENDIX No. XXI. (C).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*TRADE UNIONS AND UNEMPLOYED BENEFIT—*continued.*TABLE X.—*continued.*

100 PRINCIPAL UNIONS :—TOTAL MEMBERSHIP and Total Amount of Unemployed Benefits paid in each to the Years 1892–1906.

A.—Unions which paid some form of Unemployed Benefit in each Year.

Year.	Ironfounders.		Associated Ironmoulders.		Steam Engine Makers.		United Machine Workers.	
	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.
1892	15,190	£ 29,676	6,268	£ 11,554	6,100	£ 4,361	2,494	£ 2,185
1893	15,050	32,551	6,345	12,531	6,328	7,837	2,095	1,080
1894	15,195	37,494	6,546	11,411	6,680	8,352	2,125	1,999
1895	15,176	25,831	6,612	11,032	7,085	5,841	2,217	2,064
1896	16,278	10,524	6,761	4,949	8,118	2,560	3,499	852
1897	16,915	30,391	6,896	6,804	8,565	4,966	3,876	819
1898	17,295	16,980	7,232	4,798	8,113	3,349	3,440	3,855
1899	17,971	6,722	7,744	4,811	8,202	2,628	3,443	1,508
1900	18,357	11,173	7,504	10,249	8,566	2,056	3,769	1,691
1901	18,268	24,756	7,832	9,089	8,976	3,268	3,917	2,718
1902	18,287	28,381	7,709	12,001	9,303	5,456	3,815	3,861
1903	18,427	24,067	7,525	11,639	9,651	5,666	3,782	3,821
1904	18,426	39,174	7,582	13,247	10,001	9,762	3,764	4,433
1905	18,474	26,549	7,831	9,227	10,645	8,073	4,029	2,426
1906	19,264	17,560	8,065	5,903	11,599	3,886	4,907	1,925

Year.	Amalgamated Engineers.		United Patternmakers.		Associated Blacksmiths.		Amalgamated Smiths and Strikers.	
	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.
1892	70,909	£ 88,956	2,537	£ 3,502	2,343	£ 1,909	2,200	£ 243
1893	73,526	130,872	2,727	4,327	2,317	2,929	2,133	307
1894	75,510	134,990	2,990	3,372	2,390	3,728	2,201	137
1895	79,134	95,514	3,160	4,282	2,462	2,167	2,219	130
1896	87,313	49,968	3,636	1,236	2,767	1,443	2,849	74
1897	91,444	81,468	3,908	6,121	2,874	2,326	3,656	100
1898	83,564	37,517	4,208	2,492	2,964	1,329	3,916	83
1899	84,957	46,020	4,417	1,172	2,986	857	5,122	88
1900	87,672	42,405	4,604	2,496	2,933	1,325	4,504	250
1901	90,943	54,400	4,837	2,402	3,004	1,033	4,003	825
1902	93,252	83,134	5,120	2,991	2,978	1,620	3,696	989
1903	95,403	84,961	5,527	2,643	2,879	2,209	3,544	479
1904	96,106	120,560	5,800	7,209	2,816	2,519	3,456	706
1905	98,666	90,614	6,051	4,525	2,791	1,674	3,270	548
1906	104,871	53,827	6,513	4,414	2,868	1,749	3,719	464

APPENDIX No. XXI. (C).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

TRADE UNIONS AND UNEMPLOYED BENEFIT—continued.

TABLE X.—continued.

100 PRINCIPAL UNIONS :—TOTAL MEMBERSHIP and Total Amount of Unemployed Benefits paid in each of the Years 1892-1906—continued.

A.—Unions which paid some form of Unemployed Benefit in each Year—continued.

Year.	National Amalgamated Brassworkers, etc.		Boilermakers and I. and S. Shipbuilders.		Associated Shipwrights.		Bedstead Workmen.	
	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.
		£		£		£		£
1892	6,458	3,903	39,000	36,193	11,937	3,740	2,399	1,026
1893	5,805	3,518	38,238	48,334	13,325	6,900	2,359	905
1894	5,082	4,157	39,228	48,493	13,447	5,599	2,359	1,003
1895	5,751	3,205	39,629	38,583	13,747	2,727	2,597	446
1896	10,637	3,903	40,776	35,152	14,235	1,596	2,576	676
1897	10,784	7,086	42,178	46,434	14,785	7,060	2,528	651
1898	10,256	7,730	43,905	21,368	15,084	3,357	2,462	417
1899	9,911	3,988	47,417	11,598	15,582	551	2,630	549
1900	8,675	5,299	47,670	13,817	18,308	904	2,390	1,817
1901	6,927	5,204	48,113	24,841	19,206	1,364	2,096	710
1902	6,922	3,770	48,370	56,814	19,411	2,525	2,031	694
1903	6,862	3,978	48,582	72,233	19,367	7,032	2,087	1,868
1904	6,716	6,795	48,776	82,697	18,909	10,591	2,075	1,529
1905	6,904	4,563	49,630	67,414	18,461	7,458	2,014	493
1906	7,110	4,666	52,056	48,003	19,047	6,884	1,888	586

Year.	Bolton Card and Blowing Room Ops.		Oldham Provincial Card Room Ops.		S. E. Lancashire Card Room Ops.		Amalgamated Cotton Spinners.	
	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.
		£		£		£		£
1892	4,800	15	12,465	1,576	3,472	880	18,303	23,003
1893	3,849	8	11,042	1,210	3,171	667	19,327	19,829
1894	3,403	4	11,054	2,813	3,005	993	18,615	23,229
1895	2,755	7	11,204	2,043	2,845	823	18,234	26,443
1896	2,901	7	10,953	1,206	2,837	284	18,009	18,012
1897	3,613	56	10,951	1,161	2,675	845	17,760	20,662
1898	3,788	442	10,286	888	2,564	391	17,813	17,520
1899	3,804	240	10,448	859	2,726	168	18,151	15,403
1900	4,128	394	10,481	3,669	3,084	1,344	18,384	33,098
1901	4,234	891	10,594	1,335	3,052	1,001	18,474	20,395
1902	4,750	920	10,658	2,556	2,995	756	18,391	35,462
1903	4,797	2,548	10,630	6,166	3,015	2,628	18,315	56,751
1904	5,008	1,832	10,428	2,301	3,537	954	18,534	38,444
1905	5,617	1,068	12,216	574	4,003	500	19,451	10,511
1906	6,687	650	13,033	493	4,178	372	20,928	12,455

APPENDIX No. XXI. (C).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*TRADE UNIONS AND UNEMPLOYED BENEFIT—*continued.*TABLE X.—*continued.*100 PRINCIPAL UNIONS :—TOTAL MEMBERSHIP and Total Amount of Unemployed Benefits paid in each of the years 1892-1903—*continued.*A.—Unions which paid some form of unemployed benefit in each year.—*continued.*

Year.	Blackburn Power Loom Overlookers.		Padiham Weavers.		Blackburn Weavers' Association.		Chorley Weavers.	
	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.
1892	872	£ 580	4,008	£ 937	10,800	£ 3,424	2,454	£ 290
1893	901	2,103	4,200	1,329	10,800	5,440	2,000	115
1894	971	351	4,445	481	11,200	1,510	3,475	101
1895	985	1,036	4,612	372	11,200	3,815	3,332	393
1896	1,024	493	5,020	634	11,400	2,546	3,363	107
1897	1,035	1,498	4,692	1,884	11,700	4,091	3,263	50
1898	1,023	796	4,650	420	12,000	2,412	3,710	374
1899	1,047	208	4,903	691	13,000	2,282	3,953	147
1900	1,091	1,632	4,784	967	12,500	5,856	4,053	447
1901	1,101	968	4,969	810	12,800	5,870	4,041	70
1902	1,113	1,137	5,020	514	12,500	4,523	4,005	419
1903	1,141	1,814	4,943	2,298	12,500	10,596	3,772	1,245
1904	1,139	788	4,533	476	12,500	5,403	3,972	234
1905	1,194	101	5,009	258	12,500	854	3,981	194
1906	1,241	161	5,347	129	14,500	1,413	4,057	152

Year.	Accrington Weavers.		Darwen Weavers.		Burnley Weavers.		Nelson Weavers.	
	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.
1892	3,656	£ 25	5,201	£ 318	10,043	£ 1,500	4,176	£ 1,549
1893	3,358	612	5,100	982	12,345	2,091	4,618	2,002
1894	3,641	Included with other Benefits	5,363	351	12,345	739	5,347	126
1895	3,494	90	5,501	779	11,023	2,850	5,755	1,650
1896	3,387	51	6,000	780	10,690	1,761	5,920	1,055
1897	3,497	215	6,264	708	10,652	1,356	5,954	2,011
1898	3,314	176	6,383	577	10,596	1,188	5,704	1,976
1899	3,381	49	7,037	143	10,779	921	5,950	381
1900	3,257	187	6,924	727	11,217	2,673	6,277	293
1901	3,175	184	6,852	1,325	11,442	1,976	6,865	1,826
1902	3,248	103	6,819	765	11,389	1,469	7,100	904
1903	3,102	984	6,864	3,169	12,256	8,801	7,020	1,502
1904	3,092	347	7,146	939	12,876	3,314	7,520	1,045
1905	3,658	107	7,240	102	14,601	2,211	8,580	1,522
1906	3,771	222	7,969	221	15,320	1,703	9,605	1,484

APPENDIX No. XXI. (C).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*TRADE UNIONS AND UNEMPLOYED BENEFIT—*continued.*TABLE X.—*continued.*100 PRINCIPAL UNIONS :—TOTAL MEMBERSHIP and Total Amount of Unemployed Benefits paid in each of the years 1892–1906—*continued.*A.—Unions which paid some form of unemployed benefit in each year—*continued.*

Year.	Ashton Weavers.		Hyde Weavers.		Colne Weavers.		Blackburn Weavers' Protection Society.	
	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.
1892	5,400	£ 1,511	5,523	£ 2,988	1,000	£ 124	2,503	£ 1,130
1893	5,500	985	5,725	3,094	1,200	47	2,950	2,429
1894	5,500	713	6,015	4,311	1,500	110	3,150	570
1895	6,500	2,049	5,000	1,114	2,230	118	3,039	1,407
1896	6,500	1,562	4,524	794	2,335	374	3,293	781
1897	6,852	1,065	4,707	2,029	2,917	304	3,638	698
1898	6,297	1,482	4,000	475	2,928	833	3,683	613
1899	6,040	894	4,300	820	3,300	217	3,716	678
1900	6,000	1,139	4,887	2,472	3,450	362	3,761	2,311
1901	4,236	1,665	5,131	508	3,500	201	3,673	1,307
1902	4,000	1,405	5,200	723	3,650	561	3,557	1,110
1903	3,500	1,400	5,200	5,088	3,380	1,230	3,473	3,161
1904	3,000	1,735	5,500	3,977	4,200	1,016	3,390	1,878
1905	3,500	450	5,900	607	4,890	1,283	3,601	327
1906	4,800	200	6,500	1,171	5,783	469	3,700	546

Year.	Amalgamated Lace-makers.		Amalgamated Dyers.		National Boot and Shoe Operatives.		Amalgamated Boot and Shoe Makers.	
	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.
1892	3,390	£ 3,008	3,098	£ 509	42,524	£ 799	4,516	£ 116
1893	3,461	4,136	2,669	1,155	41,274	1,002	4,178	127
1894	3,477	4,310	3,886	674	43,955	753	3,934	104
1895	3,528	3,326	4,096	510	40,720	780	3,429	73
1896	3,394	2,760	4,151	1,032	36,385	814	3,297	47
1897	3,421	2,236	4,064	707	35,598	649	3,148	68
1898	3,404	3,035	4,053	449	32,084	725	2,926	48
1899	3,340	1,994	4,781	224	27,993	432	2,837	34
1900	3,361	1,976	4,769	1,038	27,960	406	2,969	31
1901	3,298	2,332	4,826	795	28,011	185	2,580	31
1902	3,222	1,282	5,194	731	26,625	173	2,433	20
1903	3,347	2,284	5,146	1,754	26,834	184	2,378	22
1904	3,203	4,416	5,218	1,446	26,572	193	1,978	31
1905	3,013	2,154	5,427	1,216	25,953	320	2,013	27
1906	3,067	962	5,679	1,183	23,945	1,113	1,828	17

APPENDIX No. XXI. (C).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*TRADE UNIONS AND UNEMPLOYED BENEFIT—*continued.*TABLE X.—*continued.*100 PRINCIPAL UNIONS :—TOTAL MEMBERSHIP and Total Amount of Unemployed Benefits paid in each of the years 1892–1906—*continued.*A.—Unions which paid some form of unemployed benefit in each year—*continued.*

Year.	Amalgamated Tailors and Tailoresses.		Scottish Tailors and Tailoresses.		Amalgamated Railway Servants.		Locomotive Engineers and Firemen.	
	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.
1892	16,732	£ 587	3,959	£ 30	30,611	£ 5,664	6,710	£ 315
1893	16,087	711	4,478	44	33,826	5,046	7,015	852
1894	15,540	593	4,248	80	40,993	3,001	7,524	171
1895	15,005	572	4,165	87	38,119	3,217	7,920	116
1896	15,125	523	4,371	38	44,709	2,715	8,423	276
1897	15,216	484	4,422	53	85,928	3,119	8,724	166
1898	14,708	417	4,505	33	54,426	16,332	8,761	1,397
1899	14,571	335	4,771	42	59,819	2,883	9,062	115
1900	13,439	290	5,036	36	62,023	3,215	10,002	351
1901	14,091	312	4,880	35	55,941	3,231	10,502	193
1902	14,028	351	4,950	15	53,453	3,154	11,002	152
1903	13,301	384	4,264	5	52,355	3,234	11,500	178
1904	13,186	389	3,562	24	53,407	3,482	12,000	248
1905	14,266	314	3,536	5	57,462	3,965	13,000	341
1906	14,298	320	3,474	3	70,130	3,661	15,997	388

Year.	General Railway Workers.		Tramway and Vehicle Workers.		London Compositors.		Printing Machine Managers.	
	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.
1892	8,300	£ 115	2,723	£ 3	9,798	£ 12,592	1,513	£ 1,139
1893	5,564	Included with other Benefits	3,508	9	10,151	12,560	1,602	2,017
1894	3,814		3,796	9	10,011	17,314	1,666	1,803
1895	3,794		3,970	8	10,280	12,482	1,834	965
1896	4,194		4,853	15	10,558	11,060	1,984	805
1897	5,694		7,046	10	10,780	10,439	2,137	742
1898	3,200		7,061	11	11,079	9,920	2,277	1,286
1899	3,609		7,356	6	11,415	13,189	2,377	1,170
1900	4,757		9,214	9	11,287	16,371	2,178	1,435
1901	4,699		10,192	20	11,355	16,592	2,302	1,918
1902	4,370		10,741	15	11,244	16,508	2,428	2,723
1903	3,945		10,889	6	11,270	17,079	2,261	3,237
1904	3,617		10,757	19	11,455	17,013	2,309	3,115
1905	3,834		11,059	8	11,383	20,453	2,327	2,388
1906	5,821		13,011	3	11,563	19,220	2,360	1,986

APPENDIX No. XXI. (C).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*TRADE UNIONS AND UNEMPLOYED BENEFIT—*continued.*TABLE X.—*continued.*100 PRINCIPAL UNIONS:—TOTAL MEMBERSHIP and Total Amount of Unemployed Benefits paid in each of the years 1892-1906—*continued.*A.—Unions which paid some form of unemployed benefit in each year—*continued.*

Year.	Typographical Association.		Amalgamated Lithographic Printers.		London Consolidated Binders.		Scottish Typographical Association.	
	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.
1892	11,313	£ 2,704	2,502	£ 3,558	1,310	£ 2,803	2,934	£ 882
1893	12,027	5,130	2,537	1,898	1,313	1,726	3,005	1,405
1894	12,544	7,300	2,617	2,349	1,293	2,182	3,205	1,803
1895	13,593	9,247	2,822	1,702	1,241	2,106	3,216	1,581
1896	13,906	9,648	3,058	1,592	1,240	1,336	3,398	1,515
1897	14,405	8,042	3,289	1,402	1,264	1,225	3,480	1,373
1898	15,075	8,292	3,443	1,780	1,312	921	3,583	1,338
1899	15,854	7,619	3,728	1,949	1,360	1,166	3,747	1,281
1900	16,179	9,513	3,858	2,619	1,339	1,741	3,730	1,638
1901	16,600	10,238	3,914	3,090	1,345	1,494	3,694	1,236
1902	17,243	10,812	3,992	2,838	1,339	993	3,775	1,128
1903	17,698	9,861	4,099	2,742	1,342	1,892	3,941	918
1904	18,230	10,712	4,191	3,191	1,317	2,306	3,976	1,301
1905	18,752	11,215	4,245	3,106	1,305	1,720	4,025	1,766
1906	19,103	11,289	4,334	2,941	1,254	1,668	3,967	1,696

Year.	Bookbinders and Machine Rulers.		Amalgamated Cabinet Makers.		National Amalgamated Furnishing Trades Association.		United Kingdom Coachmakers.	
	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.
1892	2,907	£ 1,920	1,386	£ 1,074	6,890	£ 3,640	5,464	£ 3,667
1893	2,969	1,778	1,406	1,267	6,341	5,702	5,577	3,887
1894	3,172	1,966	1,474	1,318	5,682	4,793	5,591	4,324
1895	3,373	2,191	1,580	1,219	5,437	3,000	5,675	3,967
1896	3,566	1,879	1,860	691	7,243	1,623	6,191	2,548
1897	3,819	1,772	2,068	664	7,632	2,548	6,446	2,596
1898	3,960	2,131	2,094	774	6,105	2,212	6,445	2,590
1899	4,057	1,936	2,288	812	6,907	2,706	6,309	2,496
1900	4,064	2,093	2,452	1,359	6,475	4,320	6,526	2,879
1901	4,266	1,901	2,518	1,941	6,383	5,500	6,767	3,737
1902	4,242	2,493	2,588	1,943	6,248	5,686	7,208	5,475
1903	4,266	2,961	2,769	2,162	6,402	5,942	7,366	5,926
1904	4,369	3,259	2,772	3,280	5,871	9,326	7,487	7,527
1905	4,380	3,289	2,871	2,927	5,910	6,903	7,782	5,309
1906	4,442	2,587	2,974	2,571	6,400	5,786	8,743	4,367

APPENDIX No. XXI. (C).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*TRADE UNIONS AND UNEMPLOYED BENEFIT—*continued.*TABLE X.—*continued.*100 PRINCIPAL UNIONS :—TOTAL MEMBERSHIP and Total Amount of Unemployed Benefits paid in each of the Years 1892–1906—*continued.*A.—Unions which paid some form of Unemployed Benefit in each Year—*continued.*

Year.	Millsawyers and Wood-cutting Machinists.		Glass Bottle Makers of Yorkshire.		Cigar Makers.	
	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.
		£		£		£
1892 - - - - -	1,895	863	2,389	3,346	1,233	1,526
1893 - - - - -	2,378	1,284	2,440	4,946	1,222	1,633
1894 - - - - -	2,218	1,373	2,482	8,058	1,209	1,900
1895 - - - - -	2,323	1,712	2,525	6,907	1,921	2,104
1896 - - - - -	2,581	872	2,553	3,295	1,950	1,735
1897 - - - - -	3,106	928	2,643	2,982	2,133	1,283
1898 - - - - -	3,433	1,197	2,683	3,895	2,148	1,656
1899 - - - - -	3,615	1,036	2,788	1,683	2,411	1,491
1900 - - - - -	4,179	1,427	2,840	2,278	2,196	2,334
1901 - - - - -	4,446	2,714	2,901	3,208	2,191	2,030
1902 - - - - -	4,595	2,910		10,751	1,680	2,968
1903 - - - - -	4,667	3,015	2,885	10,330	2,092	1,988
1904 - - - - -	4,692	4,423	2,851	10,983	2,003	2,881
1905 - - - - -	4,561	4,231	2,754	9,769	1,973	1,515
1906 - - - - -	4,556	3,137	2,623	7,850	1,907	2,427

Year.	Shop Assistants, Warehousemen, etc.		Gasworkers, Brick-makers, etc.		National Amalgamated Union of Labour.	
	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.
		£		£		£
1892 - - - - -	1,950	123	2,846	66	23,804	7,000
1893 - - - - -	1,294	239	2,425	53	21,634	1,500
1894 - - - - -	1,651	161	2,351	87	22,576	1,883
1895 - - - - -	1,618	215	2,629	56	21,267	2,838
1896 - - - - -	1,978	263	3,157	86	20,846	1,333
1897 - - - - -	2,323	337	5,024	27	22,397	4,695
1898 - - - - -	2,897	459	4,191	52	22,436	1,521
1899 - - - - -	4,900	523	4,009	26	22,483	94
1900 - - - - -	7,551	944	4,075	23	21,111	141
1901 - - - - -	10,041	1,954	4,205	56	22,094	814
1902 - - - - -	11,700	2,598	4,136	107	21,451	1,922
1903 - - - - -	13,022	3,645	4,377	153	19,287	399
1904 - - - - -	15,527	5,248	3,601	178	17,173	1,130
1905 - - - - -	17,238	6,129	3,493	187	17,370	1,138
1906 - - - - -	19,952	7,108	4,120	104	20,514	2,024

APPENDIX No. XXI. (C).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*TRADE UNIONS AND UNEMPLOYED BENEFIT—*continued.*TABLE X.—*continued.*100 PRINCIPAL UNIONS :—TOTAL MEMBERSHIP and Total Amount of Unemployed Benefits paid in each of the Years 1892–1906—*continued.*

B.—Unions which paid some form of Unemployed Benefit in some of the Years 1892–1906.

Year.	Navvies, Builders' Labourers, and General Labourers.		Yorkshire Miners.		Derbyshire Miners.		Nottinghamshire Miners.	
	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.
		£		£		£		£
1892	10,018	—	55,000	—	17,847	—	17,011	—
1893	9,470	—	55,000	9,028	18,986	—	18,835	—
1894	5,034	—	55,000	4,321	17,908	—	16,550	—
1895	3,724	—	50,379	6,618	19,675	600	13,363	—
1896	2,570	—	50,000	—	15,142	600	14,642	—
1897	3,318	—	50,000	—	15,286	600	14,609	—
1898	3,324	22	50,000	—	16,323	855	15,287	—
1899	3,330	—	51,000	—	20,329	50	16,766	—
1900	3,525	159	54,475	—	24,330	100	19,968	—
1901	3,520	148	60,000	—	24,286	Included with dispute	20,839	—
1902	3,000	21	60,684	—	27,972	6,398	21,338	—
1903	2,625	48	60,504	—	27,199	4,994	21,043	—
1904	1,988	25	56,690	—	24,429	9,390	20,982	7,986
1905	2,010	51	55,211	—	26,188	5,035	20,305	2,862
1906	2,032	14	62,182	—	29,480	3,132	23,774	1,427

Year.	Warwickshire Miners.		Cannock Chase Miners, etc.		Coalville and District Miners.		Mid and East Lothian Miners.	
	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.
		£		£		£		£
1892	4,000	—	6,840	44	2,758	167	3,413	—
1893	4,137	148	6,497	36	2,859	—	3,400	—
1894	4,200	46	5,723	—	2,731	21	3,670	—
1895	4,200	—	4,865	—	2,541	—	3,000	—
1896	4,500	—	3,500	—	2,499	—	2,500	—
1897	4,600	158	3,002	101	2,443	—	2,500	—
1898	5,000	684	3,420	118	2,990	—	2,540	—
1899	5,000	523	4,052	—	2,431	—	2,750	—
1900	5,000	91	4,026	182	3,301	—	3,250	—
1901	5,250	466	4,000	428	3,289	22	3,260	—
1902	5,500	—	4,000	689	3,304	346	3,300	—
1903	5,500	910	3,998	524	3,385	92	3,350	—
1904	5,500	3,012	4,005	504	3,272	128	3,400	—
1905	5,500	2,514	4,003	416	3,320	275	3,850	—
1906	7,500	891	5,003	356	3,693	6,970	4,050	443

APPENDIX No. XXI. (C).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).*TRADE UNIONS AND UNEMPLOYED BENEFIT—*continued.*TABLE X.—*continued.*100 PRINCIPAL UNIONS :—TOTAL MEMBERSHIP and Total Amount of Unemployed Benefits paid in each of the Years 1892–1906—*continued.*B.—Unions which paid some form of Unemployed Benefit in some of the Years 1892–1906—*continued.*

Year.	British Steel Smelters.		Associated Iron and Steel Workers.		Amalgamated Steel and Iron Workers.		Amalgamated Hosiery Union.	
	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.
1892	2,657	£ 3,320	7,800	£ —	1,127	—	3,000	£ 734
1893	2,381	132	7,350	—	767	—	3,860	118
1894	2,464	Unemployed suspended.	6,050	—	1,439	—	3,604	—
1895	2,567	4	5,000	—	2,401	4	3,386	—
1896	3,311	11	5,100	—	4,368	—	1,900	—
1897	3,991	14	5,900	—	4,629	—	1,776	—
1898	4,605	1,235	6,000	—	4,891	—	1,734	—
1899	9,976	20	7,000	—	8,428	—	1,638	—
1900	10,467	704	8,000	—	9,535	41	1,661	—
1901	10,233	1,325	7,000	997	7,196	—	1,626	—
1902	10,401	1,729	7,000	—	6,327	—	1,900	—
1903	9,808	4,354	6,500	—	5,814	—	1,787	—
1904	11,273	4,527	6,500	—	4,758	—	1,784	—
1905	12,449	4,183	6,500	—	4,973	—	1,579	—
1906	13,506	7,270	6,500	—	5,986	—	1,364	66

Year.	Flax Roughers.		Amalgamated Bakers and Confectioners.		Amalgamated Co-operative Employees.		National Amalgamated Labourers' Union.	
	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.	Membership.	Amount Paid.
1892	1,244	£ —	4,628	£ 9	738	—	3,914	£ —
1893	1,376	—	4,693	20	847	—	3,015	—
1894	1,450	—	4,970	—	2,033	—	2,871	12
1895	1,203	—	4,627	10	2,056	8	2,823	—
1896	1,250	5	4,442	—	2,659	52	2,692	—
1897	1,370	29	4,747	11	3,560	97	3,335	—
1898	1,474	159	4,616	—	5,021	128	3,073	—
1899	1,550	138	4,673	—	5,905	151	3,695	—
1900	1,495	197	5,160	—	6,733	166	3,505	—
1901	1,591	540	5,560	—	7,800	292	3,627	—
1902	1,615	408	5,188	—	8,700	387	3,189	—
1903	1,483	326	5,193	—	9,725	499	3,058	—
1904	1,356	479	5,053	—	10,990	979	3,174	—
1905	1,219	389	4,992	—	12,145	1,369	2,085	—
1906	1,406	3	5,087	—	14,795	1,335	2,200	—

TRADE UNIONS AND UNEMPLOYMENT BENEFIT—continued.

TABLE X.—continued.

100 PRINCIPAL UNIONS:—Total Membership and Total Amount of Unemployed Benefits paid in each of the Years 1892-1906—continued.
C.—Membership of Unions paying no form of Unemployed Benefit during the period 1892-1906.

1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	Name of Union.
5,690	6,516	8,224	9,329	10,816	11,922	12,025	11,921	9,657	7,909	9,170	7,984	6,577	3,132	3,559	United Masons of Scotland.
3,160	3,742	4,240	4,134	3,294	4,818	5,647	7,113	7,244	6,644	5,116	4,091	3,552	2,902	2,605	General Labourers' Amalgamated Union.
5,500	5,427	5,427	5,427	4,650	5,400	7,000	9,552	9,700	9,753	8,561	8,244	7,387	4,461	3,586	United Builders' Labourers.
6,500	6,500	8,000	7,000	6,500	6,500	6,500	8,000	11,500	11,000	10,500	11,500	12,000	12,000	12,000	Fife and Kinross Miners.
4,700	4,346	1,652	1,423	5,045	6,611	1,654	1,158	2,390	4,761	5,738	4,067	1,683	1,250	2,387	North Wales Quarrymen.
2,068	3,140	3,130	2,406	2,355	2,437	3,018	3,315	3,654	4,130	4,008	4,492	5,537	6,182	6,531	London Carmen.
2,162	2,338	3,010	3,172	3,543	3,188	3,200	3,094	2,339	2,558	1,803	1,627	1,655	1,761	2,073	United Carters of England.
3,400	2,500	3,000	3,000	3,000	3,000	3,000	3,000	3,217	3,233	2,504	2,239	2,146	2,242	2,036	Watermen, Lightermen, etc., of Thames.
22,913	14,000	10,000	9,000	10,000	10,100	9,100	13,210	13,829	13,929	12,357	12,357	12,373	11,908	12,023	Dock, Wharf, Riverside, etc., Workers.
3,038	3,298	3,041	2,982	2,975	3,055	3,463	3,400	3,305	3,234	3,394	3,358	3,315	3,362	3,323	Mersey Quay and Railway Carters.
8,463	10,743	9,974	10,871	11,697	14,115	14,232	14,943	13,388	13,307	12,504	12,489	12,311	13,483	15,569	National Dock Labourers.
2,239	2,019	2,029	2,370	2,826	3,426	4,211	4,492	4,433	4,294	4,458	4,554	4,557	4,595	4,658	Operative Bakers of Scotland.
36,108	30,793	27,839	23,532	29,730	40,042	43,474	48,030	47,979	46,014	40,986	31,783	29,631	28,120	33,680	Gasworkers and General Labourers.
5,627	8,272	11,096	15,622	21,909	21,928	22,822	22,350	23,180	25,262	25,347	25,218	29,206	32,045	33,132	Postmen's Federation
111,568	103,634	100,662	100,268	118,340	136,542	139,346	153,578	155,815	156,028	146,446	134,003	131,930	127,443	137,162	
681,865	752,567	770,667	787,956	770,578	863,941	837,135	888,390	936,180	940,808	936,187	943,456	963,870	983,074	1,054,878	Total of Unions paying Unemployed Benefit in some or all of the years, for such years as Benefit was paid.
122,112	66,905	70,955	44,105	98,713	88,510	91,131	105,763	99,320	102,108	114,426	107,249	81,359	79,190	81,955	Members of Unions paying benefit intermittently for years when no Benefit was paid
915,545	923,106	942,284	932,329	987,631	1,088,993	1,067,612	1,147,731	1,191,315	1,198,944	1,197,059	1,184,708	1,177,159	1,189,707	1,273,995	Total Membership---100 Unions

APPENDICES.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (C).

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

ADDENDUM.

CORRESPONDENCE WITH BOARD OF TRADE AS TO NUMBERS
OF WORKMEN NOT BELONGING TO TRADES UNIONS IN
CERTAIN TRADES.ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE POOR LAWS AND RELIEF OF DISTRESS,
SCOTLAND HOUSE,

VICTORIA EMBANKMENT,

WESTMINSTER, S.W.

11th November, 1908.

SIR,

Lord George Hamilton desires me to ask whether the Board of Trade would be good enough to furnish the above Commission with an estimate of the number of workmen belonging to trades and industries for which trade unions exist, but who have not yet joined those unions. The Commission do not desire anything more than a very approximate estimate.

I am, Sir,

Your obedient servant,

(signed) R. G. DUFF, *Secretary*.

The Comptroller General,
(Commercial Department),
Board of Trade,
Whitehall, S.W.

BOARD OF TRADE,

(COMMERCIAL DEPARTMENT),

7, WHITEHALL GARDENS,

LONDON, S.W.

16th November, 1908.

SIR,

In compliance with the request contained in your letter of the 11th November, I have pleasure in forwarding to you herewith, for the information of Lord George Hamilton, a memorandum dealing with the proportion of trade unionists to the total industrial population.

I am to add that the subject is a very difficult one, and that the proportions stated must be regarded as only roughly approximate.

I am, Sir,

Your obedient Servant,

ARTHUR WILSON FOX.

The Secretary,
Royal Commission on the Poor Laws and Relief of Distress,
Scotland House, S.W.

PROPORTION OF TRADE UNIONISTS TO INDUSTRIAL POPULATION.

GENERAL.

No exact comparison can be made between the number of trade unionists and the total numbers employed in each trade, the difficulty arising in the estimate of the number of the working population that might properly be included in the total for this purpose.

The total number of trade unionists in the Kingdom is ascertained by the Department with a very near approach to completeness. The proportion of the industrial population belonging to the classes eligible for membership in trade unions cannot, however, be precisely determined*. Nor is it easy from the return of the last Census (1901) to fix with certainty the number of persons engaged in various industrial occupations; nor, again, is the increase in the numbers of those engaged in such occupations since that Census exactly known.

A rough estimate has however been made from the sources available, showing a total of over 8,000,000 males and 1,400,000 females (excluding domestic and other servants) of twenty years of age and upwards in the United Kingdom belonging, in September, 1908, to the classes from which trade unionists are drawn. Of these totals the number of male trade unionists (2,200,000) and of female trade unionists (200,000) at the end of 1907 are about 27 and 14 per cent. respectively. In the case of the cotton trade, however, where the majority of the female trade unionists are employed, some of the members are not adults. On the other hand, as regards the percentage of male trade unionists to the industrial population, if agricultural workers, seamen, and fishermen are excluded, the percentage rises from 27 to 31. Some slight allowance must also be made for the difference in dates between the estimate of the total industrial population and the ascertained number of trade unionists. On the whole it appears that the proportion of men of the classes in question who belong to trade unions is roughly *one in four* or (omitting agriculture, seafaring and fishing) *three in ten*; while in the case of women the proportion is about *one in eight*.

PARTICULAR TRADES.

Mining and Quarrying.—For the mining and quarrying industries the Home Office returns show a total of 986,000 males over 16 years of age engaged in this group of trades in 1907. The returns made to the Labour Department show that the membership of mining and quarrying trade unions was 703,000, union members thus forming over 70 per cent. of the whole. For trades other than mining and quarrying the percentage of male trade unionists to industrial male population would thus be not more than about 20.

Other Trades.—It is estimated that for the following trades the proportions of trade unionists are as stated, but the figures are very rough and must be taken with considerable caution :—

Building Trades	-	-	-	-	-	1 in 5
Metal, Engineering and Shipbuilding	-	-	-	-	-	1 in 4
Textile Trades—						
Males	-	-	-	-	-	1 in 2
Females	-	-	-	-	-	1 in 3
Clothing Trades—						
Males	-	-	-	-	-	1 in 5
Females	-	-	-	-	-	1 in 100
Railway Servants	-	-	-	-	-	1 in 4

It should be added that these proportions would, of course, vary in different districts and in the various sections of each trade.

* Many workpeople are disqualified from becoming members of unions by reasons of age, bodily infirmity, want of skill, &c., and the older and richer unions paying sick and superannuation benefits are naturally not anxious to recruit their members indiscriminately.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (D).

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

I. STATISTICS OF SEASONAL INDUSTRIES AND INDUSTRIES CARRIED ON BY CASUAL LABOUR.

II. STATISTICS OF NUMBERS EMPLOYED BY RAILWAY COMPANIES, GAS, WATER AND TRAMWAY COMPANIES AND UNDERTAKINGS.

The following Memorandum treats of the subjects specified above, so far as any information on these subjects is available. The statistics as to men employed by dock, gas, and tramway companies at different seasons of the year are given in their place in the account of seasonal fluctuations. No statistics are available for employment by the railway companies at different seasons of the year, but Table XIII., at the close of the Memorandum, gives the numbers employed in certain years.

As will be seen from the Tables, one main result of the inquiries made is to show that seasonal fluctuation is a very general if not universal phenomenon. No information is available as to the number of individual employees whose employment is irregular. The casual fluctuations of employment in London Dock and Wharf Labour are, however, dealt with specially, with a view to showing (a) how far the numbers employed daily diverge from the average for each month or year, (b) how far the busy and slack times of different employers coincide—in what may be called a seasonal movement—or are independent so that opposite fluctuations neutralise one another. These figures show only to what extent it is theoretically possible for men by moving from one employer to another to get a fair continuity of work. They do not show at all how much or how little movement actually takes place.

The information available for tracing the course of seasonal fluctuations of employment in various industries is of three main types :—

I. Reports by Trade Unions of the number and proportion of their members unemployed at the end of each month.

II. Reports by Employers as to the average number of days or of shifts worked per week in each month or in the last week of each month, in coal and iron mines and iron and steel works.

III. Reports by Employers as to the actual number of persons employed or paid wages by them daily or in the last week of each month.

I.—PROPORTION OF MEMBERS OF TRADE UNIONS UNEMPLOYED.

Statistics of the first type are now available for a considerable number of years, and for a good many different industries. It may be assumed that the effect of cyclical fluctuations of trade can be eliminated, and that of accidental variations reduced to a minimum, by taking average for each month over a period of years. In Table I. this has been done for seventeen separate industries or groups of industries, the period in every case but two being the ten years 1897 to 1906 inclusive. This period coincides fairly well with that of the last trade cycle, and may be presumed, therefore, to contain a fair proportion of good and bad years respectively. For Mill-sawyers only seven years—1900–1906, and for the Clothing Trades only eight years—1899–1906—of records are available. The subsidiary Table II. shows the Printing and Book-binding, and the Hat-making groups subdivided for shorter periods.

In each group the first column gives the average percentage unemployed at the end of each month. The movements of this percentage indicate the seasonal fluctuation of the trade, the percentage being low in busy seasons and being high in

APPENDIX No. XXI. (D).—*Continued.*

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

slack ones. An average may, however, be a compromise between opposite extremes without fairly representing either. It is therefore important to see how closely the movements of the average percentage for a period of years are reflected in the movements of the actual percentage in each separate year. This is the object of the other columns in the Table. In Coachbuilding, for instance, the average percentage in the first column falls steadily in the first five months of the year, and rises steadily in the last six. The other columns show that this movement is repeated in every year of the ten taken separately. It is a seasonal fluctuation of a very pronounced character. So in Printing, both the decrease in the average between June and July and the increase between July and August are repeated in each separate year of the period. Where the movement of the average is reflected in all, or the great majority of the separate years in the period, it is evidence of an indisputable seasonal fluctuation; where, on the other hand, the separate years are evenly, or nearly evenly, divided, between increase and decrease, there can clearly be no seasonal fluctuation, or only one so weak as to be constantly overridden by accidents, or the larger cyclical movement of trade. At the foot of the Table is given the number of persons covered by the returns for each group in June, 1906.

These returns show in the first place a good many spring and summer trades. Of these Building, which is no doubt fairly represented by the Carpenters and Joiners, is the most obvious. During spring employment improves rapidly and receives a fresh impetus in July; from the end of August it falls off quite steadily till the end of the year. Furnishing follows the same general course with a busy time more concentrated in the spring and Coachbuilding with one in June and July. In Coopering the season comes somewhat later and is carried on with only slightly diminished briskness till the end of the year. Brushmaking and Hatmaking have each a second season in the autumn. In Clothing the worst time is in October and November; every subsequent month shows improvement to the late spring. Leatherworkers and Millsawyers, though also busiest in spring and summer and slacking off to the winter, have not such well-marked seasons. They approximate to the metal trades which, while undoubtedly affected by seasons, are often far more violently affected by cyclical and other causes.

The returns show, in the second place, certain trades whose general tendency is directly the contrary of that outlined above. They may be regarded as winter trades. Steel smelting, while somewhat irregular, has undoubtedly its slackest times in June and July.

In the third place certain trades have to be mentioned with very characteristic fluctuations, which are apparently more dependent on social habits than on climatic conditions. Printers are always busiest at the end of November, grow slack as soon as Christmas is past, grow busy again in February and March, and slack again from April to June, always recover a little in July, and then fall into a dead season during the summer holidays. Paper makers, as might be expected, follow the same course, though not so regularly. Tobacco workers also are busiest in November, and stand idle in July and August. Bookbinders, as will be seen from the subsidiary Table, agree with Printers in being busiest in November, but have a slack season more or less throughout the late spring and summer.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (D).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

SEASONAL FLUCTUATIONS IN EMPLOYMENT.

TABLE I.—PERCENTAGE UNEMPLOYED at end of each Month in TRADE UNIONS—Mean of Period 1897-19

Month.	Carpenters and Joiners.				Plumbers.				Steel Smelting.			
	Average Per-centage Un-employed at end of month.	Of the 10 years, Number showing in each month.			Average Per-centage Un-employed at end of month.	Of the 10 years, Number showing in each month.			Average Per-centage Un-employed at end of month.	Of the 10 years, Number showing in each month.		
		In-crease.	De-crease.	No change		In-crease.	De-crease.	No change.		In-crease.	De-crease.	No change.
January - - -	5.22	4	4	2	6.71	9	1	—	4.19	6	4	—
February - - -	4.80	2	8	—	7.26	8	1	1	4.10	5	4	—
March - - -	3.84	—	9	1	6.94	2	7	1	2.71	2	8	—
April - - -	3.15	—	10	—	6.53	3	7	—	4.08	6	3	—
May - - -	2.88	2	7	1	6.35	2	5	3	3.11	3	6	—
June - - -	3.07	5	2	3	7.07	8	2	—	4.22	6	1	—
July - - -	2.88	—	10	—	6.93	3	7	—	5.28	6	3	—
August - - -	2.87	5	4	1	6.01	1	8	1	3.90	3	7	—
September - - -	3.39	9	—	1	5.92	4	5	1	3.44	5	4	—
October - - -	4.11	9	1	—	6.15	5	5	—	2.98	3	6	—
November - - -	4.54	9	1	—	5.94	3	6	1	3.51	7	2	—
December - - -	5.93	10	—	—	6.17	7	3	—	3.52	6	4	—
Number covered by Returns (June 1906)	56,406				10,554				12,898			
Month.	Engineering.				Shipbuilding.				Metal Trades (various).			
	Average Per-centage Un-employed at end of month.	Of the 10 years, Number showing in each month.			Average Per-centage Un-employed at end of month.	Of the 10 years, Number showing in each month.			Average Per-centage Un-employed at end of month.	Of the 10 years, Number showing in each month.		
		In-crease.	De-crease.	No change		In-crease.	De-crease.	No change		In-crease.	De-crease.	No change
January - - -	4.53	—	10	—	8.02	1	8	1	2.28	7	3	—
February - - -	4.41	2	7	1	6.81	2	8	—	2.28	4	4	—
March - - -	3.97	2	7	1	6.09	1	9	—	2.50	8	2	—
April - - -	3.78	2	8	—	6.29	4	6	—	2.42	3	6	—
May - - -	3.59	3	7	—	5.94	4	6	—	2.20	1	8	—
June - - -	3.67	6	3	1	6.24	7	3	—	2.16	5	2	—
July - - -	3.68	5	4	1	6.13	2	6	2	2.38	5	4	—
August - - -	3.95	9	1	—	6.79	8	2	—	2.42	4	2	—
September - - -	4.23	6	3	1	8.13	9	1	—	2.51	6	3	—
October - - -	4.41	7	2	1	9.16	8	2	—	2.09	3	6	—
November - - -	4.52	4	4	2	9.86	7	3	—	2.06	5	4	—
December - - -	5.33	10	—	—	9.83	6	4	—	2.30	7	1	—
Number covered by Returns (June 1906)	151,791				57,851				15,252			

APPENDIX No. XXI. (D).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

SEASONAL FLUCTUATIONS IN EMPLOYMENT.

TABLE I.—PERCENTAGE UNEMPLOYED at end of each Month in TRADE UNIONS—Mean of Period 1897–1906—continued.

Month.	Hat Making.				Clothing.*				Furnishing.			
	Average Per-centage Un-employed at end of month.	Of the 10 years, Number showing in each month.			Average Per-centage Un-employed at end of month.	Of the 8 years, Number showing in each month.			Average Per-centage Un-employed at end of month.	Of the 10 years, Number showing in each month.		
		In-crease.	De-crease.	No change		In-crease.	De-crease.	No change		In-crease.	De-crease.	No change
January - - -	4.16	3	6	1	2.44	-	-	-	7.88	10	-	-
February - - -	3.34	1	9	-	2.25	2	6	-	6.47	1	9	-
March - - -	2.95	1	7	2	1.82	1	6	1	3.25	-	10	-
April - - -	2.86	3	6	1	1.46	2	4	2	2.38	-	10	-
May - - -	2.51	3	7	-	1.19	1	6	1	2.45	6	4	-
June - - -	2.85	8	1	1	1.34	6	2	-	3.20	9	-	1
July - - -	3.21	8	2	-	1.51	3	5	-	4.09	9	1	-
August - - -	3.37	8	2	-	1.99	7	1	-	4.05	5	4	1
September - - -	3.10	4	6	-	2.55	7	1	-	4.19	5	3	2
October - - -	2.94	2	6	2	3.01	3	3	1	4.45	8	2	-
November - - -	4.22	10	-	-	2.99	4	3	1	4.93	9	-	1
December - - -	4.65	8	2	-	2.71	-	8	-	7.07	10	-	-
Number covered by Returns(June 1906)	5,410				1,856				14,100			

Month.	Millsawyers.†				Coopers.				Coachbuilding.			
	Average Per-centage Un-employed at end of month.	Of the 7 years, Number showing in each month.			Average Per-centage Un-employed at end of month.	Of the 10 years, Number showing in each month.			Average Per-centage Un-employed at end of month.	Of the 10 years, Number showing in each month.		
		In-crease.	De-crease.	No change		In-crease.	De-crease.	No change		In-crease.	De-crease.	No change
January - - -	4.56	3	4	-	+	8	1	1	5.23	-	10	-
February - - -	4.34	2	4	1	+	8	2	-	4.02	-	10	-
March - - -	4.33	2	5	-	+(max.)	5	5	-	2.75	-	10	-
April - - -	4.00	2	5	-	-	3	6	1	1.89	-	10	-
May - - -	4.07	3	2	2	-	3	5	2	1.64	-	7	3
June - - -	3.63	1	5	1	-	2	8	-	1.70	5	2	3
July - - -	3.73	2	4	1	-	1	9	-	1.79	10	-	-
August - - -	3.94	4	3	-	-(min.)	2	8	-	2.58	10	-	-
September - - -	4.01	2	3	2	+	6	3	1	3.19	10	-	-
October - - -	4.43	5	2	-	-	4	5	1	3.96	10	-	-
November - - -	4.41	3	3	1	+	5	4	1	4.72	10	-	-
December - - -	5.17	6	1	-	+	7	3	-	5.84	10	-	-
Number covered by Returns(June 1906)	4,602				4,899				8,719			

* 1899–1906 only. † 1900–1906 only.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (D).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

SEASONAL FLUCTUATIONS IN EMPLOYMENT.

TABLE I.—PERCENTAGE UNEMPLOYED at end of each Month—Mean of Period 1897–1906—continued.

Month	Brush Making.				Leather Trades.				Printing and Bookbinding			
	Average Per- centage Un- employed at end of month.	Of the 10 years, Number showing in each month.			Average Per- centage Un- employed at end of month.	Of the 10 years, Number showing in each month.			Average Per- centage Un- employed at end of month.	Of the 10 years Number showing each month.		
		In- crease.	De- crease.	No change		In- crease.	De- crease.	No change		In- crease.	De- crease.	No change
January -	5·89	1	9	—	5·33	4	5	1	4·60	9	1	—
February -	4·48	—	10	—	4·84	2	7	1	4·14	1	8	1
March -	3·27	1	9	—	4·69	3	5	2	3·64	—	10	—
April -	2·42	1	9	—	4·63	6	4	—	4·21	9	1	—
May -	2·67	5	4	1	4·23	1	9	—	4·50	7	3	—
June -	3·84	10	—	—	4·45	5	4	1	4·54	6	4	—
July -	5·34	9	1	—	4·72	8	2	—	3·91	—	10	—
August -	6·33	9	—	1	5·00	7	3	—	5·69	10	—	—
September -	5·68	3	7	—	5·30	7	3	—	5·25	1	6	3
October -	4·51	1	9	—	4·82	2	6	2	4·28	1	9	—
November -	4·22	3	7	—	5·58	7	2	1	2·82	—	10	—
December -	12·14	10	—	—	5·81	6	3	1	4·04	10	—	—
Number covered by Returns(June 1906)	1,728				4,553				54,345			

Separating the actual percentages unemployed.

Month.	Paper Making.				Tobacco.			
	Average Per- centage Un- employed at end of month.	Of the 10 years, Number showing in each month.			Average Per- centage Un- employed at end of month.	Of the 10 years, Number showing in each month.		
		In- crease.	De- crease.	No change		In- crease.	De- crease.	No change
January -	2·79	4	6	—	5·76	10	—	—
February -	2·74	2	7	1	6·47	6	4	—
March -	2·81	5	4	1	7·38	8	2	—
April -	3·15	7	3	—	7·76	8	2	—
May -	2·94	4	6	—	8·27	6	3	1
June -	2·92	5	5	—	8·58	3	7	—
July -	3·17	4	6	—	9·27	6	3	1
August -	3·64	6	3	1	9·41	3	7	—
September -	3·04	—	9	1	7·28	—	10	—
October -	2·96	5	5	—	5·12	1	9	—
November -	2·77*	3	6	—	3·15	1	9	—
December -	2·98	5	5	—	4·72	9	1	—
Number covered by Returns (June 1906)	2,340				2,472			

* Nine years only.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (D).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

SEASONAL FLUCTUATIONS IN EMPLOYMENT.

TABLE II.—MEAN PERCENTAGE UNEMPLOYED at end of each Month.

Month.	Printing, Nov. 1904– Oct. 1907.	Bookbinding, Nov. 1903– Oct. 1907.	Silk Hat- making, 1904–7.	Felt Hat- making. 1904–7.
January - - - - -	4·9	4·0	14·0	5·5
February - - - - -	4·3	4·6	11·0	4·1
March - - - - -	3·9	4·8	10·2	3·2
April - - - - -	4·8	6·6	9·7	3·1
May - - - - -	4·6	6·5	9·1	2·6
June - - - - -	4·4	6·6	9·8	2·8
July - - - - -	3·9	6·6	11·9	2·4
August - - - - -	5·8	6·4	13·9	2·3
September - - - - -	5·5	5·7	12·8	2·0
October - - - - -	5·0	4·9	11·8	2·5
November - - - - -	3·3	2·9	13·8	4·2
December - - - - -	4·8	3·5	14·7	5·0
Number Covered by Returns (June 1906)	47,359	6,986	746	4,664

II.—DAYS OR SHIFTS WORKED PER WEEK.

Statistics of this type also are available in certain industries for a considerable period of years.

Table III. shows the average number of days per week on which coal was hewn and wound at collieries included in the returns received. The figures for each month represent the mean of the ten years 1897–1906, and the agreement or disagreement of the figures for each separate year with that for all years taken together is shown as in the case of the Trade Union unemployed percentages. The statistics are given for the United Kingdom and for each district separately. In a subsidiary Table (IV.) the general figures are divided in another way — according to the class of coal principally worked, the averaging period being November 1905 to October 1907.

It will be seen that there is in coal mining a definite seasonal fluctuation. December is busiest; employment falls off in January to recover in February and March, after which it falls off in April, and, though recovering in May, becomes slack again throughout June, July and August. With September there is in all cases a recovery. The separate districts show only minor differences from the general result, though in South Wales and Durham December is relatively less busy and the summer slackness less marked. As might be expected, house coal shows the greatest summer and winter fluctuation and coking coal the least.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (D).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

SEASONAL FLUCTUATIONS IN EMPLOYMENT.

TABLE III.—AVERAGE WEEKLY NUMBER of days worked in Coal Mines, 1897-1906.

Month.	United Kingdom.					Northumberland.					Durham.				
	Average Number of days worked per week.	Of the 10 years, Number showing in each month.			Average Number of days worked per week.	Of the 10 years, Number showing in each month.			Average Number of days worked per week.	Of the 10 years, Number showing in each month.					
		In- crease.	De- crease.	No change		In- crease.	De- crease.	No change		In- crease.	De- crease.	No change			
January - - -	5·08	-	10	-	4·99	-	10	-	5·23	-	10	-			
February - - -	5·38	10	-	-	5·12	6	4	-	5·41	9	1	-			
March - - -	5·34	3	7	-	5·15	5	5	-	5·40	4	5	1			
April - - -	4·98	-	10	-	5·02	4	6	-	5·12	-	10	-			
May - - -	5·26	8	2	-	5·36	9	-	1	5·46	10	-	-			
June - - -	4·93	1	9	-	5·18	1	9	-	5·31	1	9	-			
July - - -	4·98	7	3	-	5·25	8	2	-	5·37	6	4	-			
August - - -	5·00	5	5	-	5·19	1	9	-	5·39	5	5	-			
September - - -	5·33	10	-	-	5·39	10	-	-	5·54	10	-	-			
October - - -	5·41	6	3	1	5·39	4	3	3	5·48	-	9	1			
November - - -	5·39	4	6	-	5·34	4	4	2	5·52	7	3	-			
December - - -	5·46	8	1	1	5·35	4	4	2	5·54	8	2	-			
	5·21				5·23				5·40						

Month.	Yorkshire.					Lancashire and Cheshire.					Derbyshire.				
	Average Number of days worked per week.	Of the 10 years, Number showing in each month.			Average Number of days worked per week.	Of the 10 years, Number showing in each month.			Average Number of days worked per week.	Of the 10 years, Number showing in each month.					
		In- crease.	De- crease.	No change		In- crease.	De- crease.	No change		In- crease.	De- crease.	No change			
January - - -	5·06	1	9	-	4·97	-	10	-	5·07	1	9	-			
February - - -	5·38	9	1	-	5·40	10	-	-	5·23	7	3	-			
March - - -	5·34	3	6	1	5·33	4	6	-	5·22	4	6	-			
April - - -	4·88	-	10	-	4·89	-	10	-	4·70	-	10	-			
May - - -	5·25	8	2	-	5·07	9	1	-	4·87	7	3	-			
June - - -	4·69	1	9	-	4·62	1	9	-	4·38	1	9	-			
July - - -	4·88	8	2	-	4·71	6	4	-	4·45	6	4	-			
August - - -	4·94	4	3	3	4·66	2	7	1	4·59	7	3	-			
September - - -	5·24	9	1	-	4·93	9	-	1	5·07	10	-	-			
October - - -	5·49	10	-	-	5·18	9	1	-	5·25	8	2	-			
November - - -	5·33	-	9	-	5·30	8	2	-	5·20	4	6	-			
December - - -	5·48	7	3	-	5·43	10	-	-	5·34	8	2	-			
	5·16				5·04				4·95						

APPENDIX No. XXI. (D).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

SEASONAL FLUCTUATIONS IN EMPLOYMENT.

TABLE III.—AVERAGE WEEKLY NUMBER of Days Worked in Coal Mines 1897-1906—continued.

Month.	Staffordshire.				South Wales and Monmouth.				West Scotland.			
	Average Number of days worked per week.	Of the 10 years, Number showing in each month.			Average Number of days worked per week.	Of the 10 years, Number showing in each month.			Average Number of days worked per week.	Of the 10 years, Number showing in each month.		
		In crease.	De- crease.	No change		In- crease.	De- crease.	No change		In- crease.	De- crease.	No change
January - - -	5·06	5	5	—	5·48	4	6	—	4·69	—	10	—
February - - -	5·32	8	2	—	5·72	6	4	—	5·40	10	—	—
March - - -	5·29	4	5	1	5·66	5	5	—	5·38	5	5	—
April - - -	4·73	—	10	—	5·22*	5	4	—	5·24	2	7	1
May - - -	4·97	9	1	—	5·64*	5	4	—	5·27	6	4	—
June - - -	4·45	1	9	—	5·43*	4	5	—	5·23	3	7	—
July - - -	4·36	5	5	—	5·61*	5	3	1	4·58	—	10	—
August - - -	4·20	2	8	—	5·25*	4	5	—	5·25	10	—	—
September - - -	5·04	10	—	—	5·67*	4	5	—	5·32	9	1	—
October - - -	5·26	7	3	—	5·64	6	4	—	5·34	5	3	2
November - - -	5·40	6	4	—	5·59	4	6	—	5·37	8	1	1
December - - -	5·50	10	—	—	5·62	7	3	—	5·41	9	1	—
	4·97	—	—	—	5·55	—	—	—	5·21	—	—	—

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE WEEKLY NUMBER of Days Worked in Coal Mines, 1905-1907, classified according to the Principal kinds of Coal obtained.

Month							Anthracite.	Coking.	Gas.	House.	Manufacturing and Steam.
January - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	5·27	5·36	5·18	4·92	5·24
February - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	5·48	5·62	5·41	5·31	5·32
March - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	5·12	5·62	5·39	5·19	5·50
April - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	4·99	5·34	5·04	4·71	5·17
May - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	5·22	5·54	5·26	4·85	5·45
June - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	5·04	5·50	5·11	4·35	5·15
July - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	5·41	5·51	5·10	4·35	5·21
August - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	5·08	5·43	5·21	4·44	5·11
September - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	5·68	5·61	5·33	4·99	5·50
October - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	5·78	5·57	5·41	5·15	5·63
November - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	5·57	5·59	5·47	5·19	5·52
December - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	5·56	5·61	5·45	5·20	5·66

* Average for 9 years only.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (D).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

Table V. gives for other industries figures similar to those given for coal mines. Iron mining shows definite though limited seasonal fluctuations. The last four months of the year and May are busy times ; January, April, and June-August are times of comparative slackness.

For iron and steel works the figures relate to shifts not to days worked, and only to the last week of each month. The three months June-August and January are marked out as periods of comparative slackness.

The Tinplate industry, as is indicated by the number of mills at work has apparently a similar fluctuation.

TABLE V.—DAYS WORKED in Iron Mines, Shifts Worked in Iron and Steel Works, and number of Tinplate and Sheet Mills Working.

Month.	Iron Mines (1897-1906).					Iron and Steel Works (1898-1906).					Tinplate and Steel Sheet Mills (1897-1906).				
	Average days worked per week.	Of the 10 years, Number showing in each month.			Average Number of shifts in last week of month.	Of the 9 years (1898- 1906) Number show- ing in each month.			Number of mills working at end of month.	Of the 10 years, Number showing in each month.			In- crease.	De- crease.	No. change
		In- crease.	De- crease.	No change		In- crease.	De- crease.	No change		In- crease.	De- crease.	No. change			
January - - -	5.46	2	8	-	5.44	4	5	-	373	8	2	-			
February - - -	5.75	10	-	-	5.47	5	2	2	374	5	5	-			
March - - - -	5.80	6	3	1	5.47	4	2	3	374	5	5	-			
April - - - - -	5.62	-	10	-	5.48	4	4	1	372	6	4	-			
May - - - - -	5.79	10	-	-	5.48	3	5	1	379	6	3	1			
June - - - - -	5.72	2	8	-	5.44	-	9	-	371	1	6	3			
July - - - - -	5.69	5	4	1	5.35	1	8	-	361	2	7	1			
August - - - -	5.70	9	1	-	5.40	7	2	-	368	8	2	-			
September - - -	5.82	10	-	-	5.49	8	1	-	376	7	3	-			
October - - - -	5.81	3	7	-	5.49	6	2	1	385	9	-	1			
November - - -	5.80	3	7	-	5.47	1	7	1	390	6	3	1			
December - - -	5.80	6	4	-	5.48	5	3	1	383	5	5	-			

III.—ACTUAL NUMBERS EMPLOYED IN CERTAIN INDUSTRIES.

Except for dock labour these cannot be given for any considerable period, and such figures as are available must therefore be taken with some caution as indications of seasonal fluctuation.

Table VI. shows the comparative numbers employed at the end of each month from October, 1906, to September, 1907, by employers making returns in certain industries, the average for the whole period being taken = 100.

In regard to Building it may be noticed that the statistics obtained from employers and those obtained from trade unions are in general agreement as to the period of the seasonal fluctuation shown. The range of the fluctuations shown by the employers' returns is however considerably greater than that shown by the Trade Union returns. Whether this in any way reflects a difference in the class of men covered or is simply due to the forms of returns is uncertain. A further point of interest is that the range of fluctuation appears to be slightly greater for skilled than for unskilled men.

The Clothing Trades here represented are quite different from those covered by the Trade Union returns in Table I. Some of them show, as might be expected, extreme fluctuation in dependence upon social habits.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (D).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827)

TABLE VI.—PERCENTAGE PROPORTION of the Numbers Employed in the undermentioned Trades at the end of each Month, from October, 1906, to September, 1907.
(Mean of the numbers employed in Twelve Months = 100).

Month.	Building Trades.				Clothing Trades.				
	Skilled Men.	Labourers.	Lads and Boys.	All Branches.	Dress-making.	Court Dress-making.	Mantles, Costumes etc.	Corset.	Shirt and Collar.
1906.									
October - - -	102.3	105.4	101.3	103.4	107.1	113.1	101.6	97.2	98.8
November - - -	98.9	100.5	100.5	98.7	103.6	105.3	93.0	98.0	99.0
December - - -	89.5	91.6	97.6	91.0	96.3	98.5	89.7	97.7	98.5
1907.									
January - - -	91.0	92.9	98.0	92.3	96.1	92.6	101.3	100.7	99.2
February - - -	95.3	94.5	98.2	95.3	95.8	98.1	105.6	101.4	99.8
March - - -	103.3	101.7	100.6	102.4	105.6	111.4	110.3	103.3	101.0
April - - -	105.5	104.6	102.5	104.9	110.6	118.7	107.2	103.6	101.5
May - - -	104.4	103.8	101.3	104.0	112.3	119.3	104.0	103.4	101.5
June - - -	101.8	103.2	99.6	102.1	112.0	119.3	97.9	100.0	101.3
July - - -	102.6	100.8	99.6	101.8	104.3	89.3	91.4	100.5	99.2
August - - -	105.6	102.7	100.4	104.2	64.7	43.6	95.4	96.3	99.4
September - - -	100.0	98.5	99.7	99.4	92.0	90.6	102.3	97.4	100.1

Month.	Cotton.	Woollen.	Worsted.	Flax.	Jute.	Lace.	Hosiery.	Glass.
1906.								
October - - -	99.5	99.2	97.8	98.9	98.3	97.1	98.0	92.9
November - - -	99.8	99.1	97.9	99.2	98.6	98.5	98.4	92.6
December - - -	99.9	99.3	98.5	99.5	97.8	99.3	98.5	94.1
1907.								
January - - -	99.8	99.0	98.9	99.0	97.2	100.5	98.6	96.4
February - - -	99.8	99.2	100.0	98.6	97.5	100.3	99.3	101.4
March - - -	99.9	99.7	100.8	100.6	100.9	101.6	100.7	101.5
April - - -	100.4	100.1	101.6	100.9	101.7	100.5	101.5	104.5
May - - -	100.1	100.3	101.6	100.8	101.7	101.1	101.2	103.8
June - - -	100.3	100.8	101.5	100.9	101.1	99.7	101.1	105.1
July - - -	100.2	101.0	100.8	100.4	101.6	100.1	100.4	103.6
August - - -	100.3	100.9	100.4	100.5	101.5	100.3	101.0	103.5
September - - -	100.4	100.9	100.6	100.9	102.1	101.3	101.8	100.7

Tables VII. shows for certain other industries both the actual numbers employed as given in the returns from January to December, 1906, and the same figures expressed as a percentage of the average number employed during the twelve months.

Table VIII. shows the actual and comparative figures for London Dock and wharf labour over a period of ten years 1897-1906.

TABLE VII.

—	London Docks and Wharves.		Gasworks.		Waterworks.		Tramways.	
	Average No. employed daily in each month.	Daily average for each month as per cent. of mean for all months.	Number employed at end of month.	Per cent. of mean for year.	Number employed at end of month.	Per cent. of mean for year.	Number employed at end of Month.	Per cent. of mean for year.
1906.								
January - -	12,336	103.3	24,377	108.8	4,750	105.4	17,554	95.2
February - -	11,327	94.8	23,478	104.8	4,576	101.5	17,754	96.2
March - - -	11,637	97.4	22,222	99.2	4,511	100.1	18,034	97.7
April - - -	11,543	96.6	21,275	94.9	4,490	99.6	18,306	99.2
May - - -	11,971	100.2	20,864	93.1	4,523	100.4	18,737	101.6
June - - -	11,464	96.0	20,557	91.7	4,752	105.4	19,112	103.6
July - - -	11,908	99.7	20,592	91.9	4,676	103.7	18,956	102.8
August - - -	11,772	98.6	20,688	92.3	4,416	98.0	18,885	102.4
September - -	11,847	99.2	21,559	96.2	4,386	97.3	18,857	102.2
October - - -	12,251	102.6	23,030	102.8	4,290	95.2	18,530	100.4
November - -	13,060	109.3	24,755	110.5	4,400	97.6	18,418	99.8
December - -	12,210	102.2	25,482	113.7	4,314	95.7	18,223	98.8

APPENDIX No. XXI. (D).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827)*

Gasworks show a marked fluctuation, the winter maximum (December) being not far short of 20 per cent. in excess of the minimum (June). Tramways, on the other hand, show a steady, though much smaller, fluctuation, taking exactly the opposite course of a rise in summer and a fall in winter. In regard to waterworks it is hardly possible to base any very certain conclusions on the figures at present available.

In the following Table some more detailed figures are given with regard to dock labour in London, showing the amount of fluctuations from year to year in the numbers employed.

TABLE VIII.—DAILY AVERAGE NUMBER of Labourers employed at London Docks and 108 Wharves in each of the Years 1897–1906.

Year.	Dock Companies.				Ship-owners.	108 Wharves.	Total (4) + (5) + (6)
	London and India.	Millwall.	Surrey Commercial.	Total (1) + (2) + (3)			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1897 - - -	4,644	855	1,729	7,228	2,316	5,761	15,305
1898 - - -	3,867	839	1,653	6,359	2,399	5,975	14,733
1899 - - -	3,772	839	1,691	6,302	2,640	5,968	14,910
1900 - - -	4,094	923	2,023	7,040	2,452	6,043	15,535
1901 - - -	4,303	1,044	2,397	7,744	2,659	6,085	16,488
1902 - - -	3,625	869	2,118	6,612	2,300	5,843	14,755
1903 - - -	3,054	794	1,794	5,642	2,113	5,694	13,449
1904 - - -	2,812	713	1,569	5,094	2,130	5,688	12,912
1905 - - -	2,643	661	1,561	4,865	2,008	5,627	12,500
1906* - - -	2,703	710	1,523	4,936	1,982	5,574	12,492

* The figures for 1906 differ from those shown in Tables VII. and XI., as they have been adjusted to make them exactly comparable with the figures for 1897–1905.

CASUAL FLUCTUATIONS OF EMPLOYMENT IN LONDON DOCK AND WHARF LABOUR.

Tables IX. to XII. are intended to throw light on the extent of what may be called casual fluctuations other than those of a strictly seasonal character in the numbers employed at the London docks and wharves.

Table IX. shows for each month of the year 1906 the maximum number of men employed on any one day by each of the five main groups of employers from whom returns are received, and in the port as a whole, together with the date in the month on which that maximum was reached. The “months” are periods of four (or five) weeks, not calendar months.

Table X. shows for each month of the year 1906 the average number employed daily by each of the five main groups of employers and in the port as a whole.

Table XI. shows for each month of the year 1906 the sum of the maximum and of the minimum numbers employed in that month by each of the 115 wharves making returns, as compared with the maximum for the whole set of wharves on any one day and the minimum on any one day.

Table XII. shows for each month of the year 1906 the sum of the maximum and of the minimum numbers employed in that month by each of the 15 shipowners or contractors making returns in the Royal Albert and Victoria Docks as compared with the maximum for the whole set of shipowners and contractors in those docks on any one day and the minimum on any one day.

Throughout Tilbury Dock is excluded, as also are stevedores and men employed upon export work.

These Tables make it possible to go beyond the strictly seasonal fluctuations and indicate the character and extent of casual fluctuations in two ways :

1. By comparing for any one period the average number employed daily throughout that period with the maximum number required on the busiest days of that period.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (D).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827)*

2. By comparing the fluctuations in the aggregate employment of a number of firms with the separate fluctuations of each firm, showing how far these latter correspond and how far they counteract one another.

The first of these comparisons may be made for each of certain groups of riverside employers and for all the groups together by means of Tables IX. and X.

Taking the year 1906 as a whole the maximum number employed at all the docks and wharves on the busiest day is 14,482 or 121·3 per cent. of the average number (11,935) employed daily throughout the year. The same thing may be put in another way by saying that if the working week be put at six days the total number of days work available was equivalent to 4·95 days a week throughout the year for each of the maximum number required on the busiest day. This, however, combines the effects of seasonal (monthly) fluctuation, with casual (daily) fluctuation within the monthly period. If each month be taken separately so as to show the casual fluctuation within it alone, the maximum number required on the busiest day of the month is 104·5 per cent. of the average required in April, and 111·8 per cent. in September. Or, putting the matter otherwise, the amount of work available throughout April is equivalent to 5·74 days per week for each of the maximum number required in that month, while the corresponding figure for September is 5·37. As April and September are the months of steadiest and most irregular employment respectively, the others all lying between those extremes, it will be seen that the amount of daily fluctuation within each month is much the same throughout the year.

Similar comparisons may be made taking each of the main employing groups separately. The London and India Docks, for instance, show a proportion of maximum to average number varying from 115·8 per cent. in April to 138·3 per cent. in November. The wharves have relatively steadier employment, the proportion of maximum to average number required ranging from 104·2 per cent. in January to 109·5 per cent. in September.

The second comparison is best made by comparing the sum of the separate maxima of many different business within a group with the maximum on any one day for the group as a whole. In 1906, for instance, the highest number employed on any one day in the year at all the docks and wharves making returns was 14,482, on November 20th. But this was not necessarily the busiest day for each of the five main groups into which the employers are divided. The London and India Docks were busiest on November 30th, with 4,020 men; the Millwall Docks on November 16th, with 1,182; the Surrey Commercial, on November 20th, with 1,760; the Shipowners, on April 3rd, with 3,195; the wharves on September 14th, with 6,650. The sum of these separate maxima is 16,807, or 17 per cent. above the maximum of the whole port on the one busiest day. If each month be taken separately a similar though less marked result is apparent, the sum of the maxima exceeding the maximum for the whole port by amounts ranging from 6 per cent. in August to 13 per cent. in November and April. It will be noticed that only rarely do the busiest days of any two groups for any month coincide.

Each of the five big groups is, however, itself composed of many separate businesses or employing centres. How far do the fluctuations at each of these centres within a group coincide and how far do they neutralise one another? Tables XI. and XII. show the effect of splitting up into their component parts two of the groups, viz., the wharves and the shipowners in the Royal Albert and Victoria Docks. The second and third columns in each case give the maximum and minimum numbers employed on any one day of the month by the group as a whole. The fourth and fifth columns give the sums of the maxima and of the minima recorded for the separate businesses within each group during the month. The sixth column gives the average numbers employed in the group as a whole. The main interest of the tables lies in the comparison of the second and the fourth columns. The separate maxima fall generally on different days for different businesses so that their sum considerably exceeds the largest number at work on one and the same day in the group as a whole. For the 115 wharves the sum of the maxima exceeds the maximum for the whole group by numbers varying from 242 or 4 per cent. in July to 1,085 or 16 per cent. in November. The average difference is 632 or 9·7 per cent. In the case of the shipowners the excess is still greater, ranging from 974 or 27 per cent. in May to 2,216 or 74 per cent. in January and averaging 1,695 or 56 per cent.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (B).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

LONDON DOCK AND

TABLE IX.—MAXIMUM NUMBER

—	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.
London and India - -	3,480 ²²	2,744 ¹	3,364 ¹⁴	2,801 ²⁷	3,753 ¹⁸	3,034	3,552 ²⁰
2. Millwall - - -	1,047 ¹¹	904 ²⁰	788 ¹⁰	786 ¹⁹	1,075 ⁵	1,095 ⁸	921 ¹³
3. Surrey Commercial -	1,124 ⁹	1,291 ²⁰	966 ²	939 ²⁰	899 ⁸	1,265 ²³	1,518 ²⁸
4. Shipowners - - -	2,649 ²	2,715 ¹²	2,979 ⁸	3,195 ³	2,535 ⁵	2,504 ²¹	2,420 ¹⁵
5. 108 Wharves - - -	6,070 ²⁷	5,795 ⁶	6,101 ¹⁹	5,863 ⁶	5,665 ¹⁹	5,578 ¹¹	5,553 ²
Total of above maxima -	14,370	13,638	14,198	13,584	13,961	13,476	13,964
Maximum on any one day for all groups	13,186 ¹⁹	12,099 ¹²	12,918 ¹⁴	12,059 ²	12,784 ¹⁰	12,147 ¹⁹	12,687 ²⁷

NOTE.—The small figures at the right hand corner of the numbers employed

TABLE X.—AVERAGE

—	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.
1. London and India - -	2,896	2,363	2,557	2,420	3,095	2,547	3,091
2. Millwall - - -	567	654	592	597	683	735	674
3. Surrey Commercial -	843	792	738	761	790	982	1,163
4. Shipowners - - -	2,204	1,968	2,154	2,334	2,035	2,086	1,894
5. 108 Wharves - - -	5,826	5,550	5,596	5,431	5,368	5,114	5,086
	12,336	11,327	11,637	11,543	11,971	11,464	11,908

APPENDIX No. XXI. (D).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

WHARF LABOUR IN 1906.*

employed on any One Day, with Date.

August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Year as a whole.	—
2,916 ³	3,381 ²⁷	3,383	4,020 ³⁰	3,702 ⁴	Nov. 30 4,020	1. London and India.
1,118 ¹	1,094 ¹⁴	1,015 ²³	1,182 ¹⁶	1,102 ¹²	Nov. 16 1,182	2. Millwall.
1,540 ¹⁷	1,310 ²⁹	1,604 ²⁷	1,760	1,247 ⁵	Nov. 20 1,760	3. Surrey Commercial.
2,612 ²	2,294 ¹⁹	1,986 ¹⁰	2,850 ¹	2,507	Apr. 3 3,195	4. Shipowners.
5,537	6,122 ¹⁴	6,650 ²²	6,498 ²⁰	6,105 ¹⁷	Sep. 14 6,650	5. Wharves.
13,671	14,201	14,638	16,310	14,663	16,807	Total of above maxima.
12,930 ³	13,245 ¹⁴	13,074	14,482 ²⁰	13,088 ⁴	Nov. 30 14,482	Maximum on any one day for all groups.

show the day of the month in which the maximum numbers were employed.

NUMBER employed daily.

August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Mean for Year.	—
2,472	2,612	2,588	2,908	2,885	2,703	London and India.
751	810	757	904	799	710	Millwall.
1,205	1,129	1,258	1,334	983	998	Surrey Commercial.
2,064	1,707	1,491	1,842	1,727	1,951	Shipowners.
5,280	5,589	6,157	6,072	5,818	5,573	Wharves.
11,772	11,847	12,251	13,060	12,210	11,935	

* Exclusive of Tilbury Dock.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (D).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

TABLE XI.—Employment at 115 Wharves during 1906.

Month.	Maximum number employed on any one day in month.	Minimum number employed on any one day in month.	Sum of maximum numbers employed by separate wharves during month	Sum of minimum numbers employed by separate wharves during month.	Average number employed daily at all wharves.
January - - -	6,536	6,000	7,348	5,060	6,281
February - - -	6,309	5,608	7,011	4,928	6,047
March - - -	6,763	5,623	7,180	4,604	6,119
April - - -	6,467	5,386	7,007	4,452	5,990
May - - -	6,226	5,480	6,679	4,383	5,866
June - - -	6,148	5,183	6,675	4,227	5,571
July - - -	6,114	5,183	6,356	4,144	5,528
August - - -	6,073	5,295	6,772	4,266	5,724
September - - -	6,572	5,702	7,181	4,577	6,054
October - - -	7,239	6,265	8,009	4,997	6,660
November - - -	6,950	6,113	8,025	4,947	6,536
December - - -	6,777	5,582	7,511	4,362	6,329

TABLE XII.—Employment by 15 Shipowners and Contractors at Royal Albert and Victoria Docks during 1906.

Month.	Maximum number employed on any one day in month.	Minimum number employed on any one day in month.	Sum of maximum numbers employed by each shipowner during month.	Sum of minimum numbers employed by each shipowner during month.	Average number employed daily by all shipowners.
January - - -	2,982	966	5,198	261	2,146
February - - -	3,166	960	4,896	259	2,057
March - - -	3,356	1,056	5,388	212	2,127
April - - -	3,730	1,231	5,224	381	2,324
May - - -	3,566	1,068	4,540	272	2,037
June - - -	2,927	1,234	4,800	261	2,088
July - - -	2,743	1,082	4,497	237	1,930
August - - -	3,046	1,077	5,134	268	2,060
September - - -	2,454	1,052	4,399	169	1,714
October - - -	2,814	833	4,200	196	1,579
November - - -	2,850	1,009	4,337	166	1,809
December - - -	2,740	918	4,101	129	1,718

APPENDIX No. XXI. (D).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

RAILWAY SERVICE.

No information is available as to seasonal fluctuations of employment by railway companies, but Table XIII. gives the numbers employed in certain years.

TABLE XIII.—NUMBER EMPLOYED in Railway Service in certain Years.

(Extracted from the Annual Returns of Railway Accidents).

—	1889.	1895.	1898.	1901.	1904.
Capstan, Men and Lads - - -	768	947	1,194	1,256	1,509
Carmen and Vanguarders - - -	11,342	18,101	22,342	23,530	22,914
Carriage Cleaners - - - -	2,696	3,410	4,441	5,381	6,193
Checkers - - - - -	3,765	6,120	7,015	7,971	8,382
Checkers, Chain Boys and Slippers -	447	916	704	736	606
Clerks - - - - -	32,941	45,773	53,821	61,810	65,093
Engine Cleaners - - - - -	13,715	17,420	20,793	19,243	18,851
„ Drivers - - - - -	15,180	19,281	22,237	25,556	25,042
Firemen - - - - -	14,804	19,264	21,821	24,083	23,242
Gatekeepers - - - - -	3,070	3,292	3,531	3,507	3,485
Greasers - - - - -	1,500	1,661	1,618	1,805	1,806
Guards (Goods) and Brakesmen - -	10,038	11,881	14,720	15,708	15,122
„ Passenger - - - - -	5,033	6,357	6,826	7,291	7,601
Horse Drivers - - - - -	3,660	2,299	2,082	2,272	2,192
Inspectors - - - - -	5,226	6,805	8,610	6,772	8,799
Labourers - - - - -	28,904	45,882	52,900	53,282	55,001
Lampmen and Lamp Lads - - -	1,660	2,005	2,147	2,285	2,233
Loaders and Sheetters - - - -	3,040	2,983	4,130	4,430	4,023
Mechanics - - - - -	64,802	69,227	77,270	81,440	84,433
Permanent Way Men - - - -	54,273	58,781	63,360	66,621	66,812
Porters - - - - -	38,808	45,696	50,844	55,276	52,977
Shunters - - - - -	5,922	7,092	9,244	10,841	11,856
Signal Fitters and Telegraph Wiremen	2,493	1,960	2,273	3,843	4,437
Signalmen - - - - -	18,789	23,684	25,543	27,723	27,971
Station Masters - - - - -	6,953	7,410	7,868	8,103	8,526
Watchmen - - - - -	898	867	983	993	1,113
Yardsmen - - - - -	1,512	1,837	1,816	1,717	1,813
Miscellaneous - - - - -	29,387	34,161	44,008	52,359	49,630
	381,626	465,112	534,141	575,834	581,664

APPENDIX No. XXI. (D).—*Continued.*

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

CONCLUSIONS.

(1.) Seasonal fluctuation is found to a more or less marked degree in nearly every industry.

(2.) The seasonal fluctuations of different industries are by no means simultaneous.

Both these points are illustrated by Table XIV., which forms a calendar of busy and slack times in various trades. Only those trades are taken for which it is possible to take an average over a sufficient period of years to eliminate chance variations. The bracketed figures give the unemployed percentages, the other figures are from the sources named above. It will be seen that the busiest seasons of the twenty-three industrial groups entered in the Table are distributed over eleven of the twelve months in the year, the only month unrepresented being July. The slackest seasons of the said groups are distributed over ten months, the only months which escape being April and May. The greatest number of busy seasons is to be found in May, but November is also strongly represented. The greatest number of slack seasons is shown by the Table in December, but this is a result to be taken with a little caution. The unemployed percentage being made up at the end of the month is liable to be affected unduly by the Christmas holidays. It does not necessarily represent the conditions throughout the month. Of the groups shown in the Table as having their maximum unemployment in December, carpenters and joiners, engineers, millsawyers and coachbuilders have their next slackest time in January ; hat makers and leather workers in November ; brushmakers in August.

(3.) The importance of seasonal fluctuation varies greatly as between different trades. The seasons on the whole are least marked and least regular in industries connected with the manufacture and use of metals—engineering, shipbuilding, miscellaneous metal trades, iron and steel working, tin plate and steel sheet milling. Seasonal fluctuation is not so much absent here as liable to be overridden by other movements, in particular cyclical fluctuation. In other trades—printing, building, furnishing, clothing, and at gasworks, tramways and the London Docks—seasonal fluctuation is a prominent and regular phenomenon.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (D).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

TABLE XIV.—SHOWING the Slackest and Busiest Months in the Year in Certain Industries.

Month.	Busiest Season.	Slackest Season.
January - - -	London Docks. 15,236 employed daily -	Furnishing (7·88) Iron Mining 5·46 days per week.
February - - -	Paper making (2·74) - - -	Plumbers (7·26).
March - - -	Steel Smelting (2·71), Textiles - - -	Coopers.
April - - -	Brushmaking (2·42), Furnishing (2·38)	
May - - -	Engineering (3·59), Shipbuilding (5·94), Hat making (2·51), Leather (4·23), Coachbuilding (1·64), Clothing (1·19)	
June - - -	Millsawyers (3·63) - - -	London Docks, 13,560 employed daily. Coal Mining 4·93 days per week.
July - - -	—	Steel Smelting (5·28). Iron and Steel Works, 5·35 shifts per week, Tinplates, 361 mills.
August - - -	Carpenters and Joiners (2·87), Coopers -	Printing and Bookbinding (5·69), Paper- making (3·64), Tobacco (9·41).
September - - -	Plumbers (5·92), Iron Mining 5·02 days per week	Metals, Various (2·51), Textiles.
October - - -	Iron and Steel Works 5·49 shifts per week	Clothing (3·01)
November - - -	Metals Various (2·06), Printing and Bookbinding (2·82), Tobacco (3·15), Tinplates 390 mills	Shipbuilding (9·86).
December - - -	Coal Mining, 5·46 days per week - - -	Carpenters and Joiners (5·93), Engi- neering (5·33), Hatmaking (4·65), Leather (5·81), Millsawyers (5·17), Coachbuilding (5·84), Brushmaking (12·14).

NOTE.—The figures in brackets after the trade represent the mean percentage unemployed in Trade Unions.

[APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).]

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

ESTIMATE OF NUMBERS OF WAGE-EARNERS GROUPED ACCORDING TO
WAGES EARNED (DISTINGUISHING BETWEEN MALE AND FEMALE,
JUVENILE AND ADULT), AND AN ACCOUNT OF THE MOVEMENTS IN
THE WAGES IN CERTAIN GROUPS OF INDUSTRIES AND IN THE COST
OF LIVING OVER A PERIOD OF TWENTY YEARS.

CHIEF SOURCES OF INFORMATION.

No body of information is available enabling the Board of Trade to estimate the number of wage-earners working at various wage-levels, or to measure directly the general movements of wages during recent years. The only census of wages yet taken in this country was in 1886, and even this was necessarily very incomplete, being confined mainly to chief manufacturing and other organised industries, and being based wholly upon voluntary returns.

A more extended inquiry by the Board into the earnings of the manual labour classes has been in progress for some time and when the results have been published more complete information will be available as to the earnings and economic position of the workpeople than has hitherto been the case.

Since 1893 changes in rates of wages have been officially recorded so far as reported to the Board of Trade, but for those trades in which the rates of pay are of an individual rather than a collective character the information is necessarily not complete. Besides the changes in the rates of wages, there are changes in the relative numbers employed in the various occupations and trades, and on this point evidence afforded by the censuses enables some conclusions to be reached upon the general trend of wage movements.

In the principal trades the Board of Trade receives from trade unions or employers' associations information regarding standard rates of wages for the several classes of labour employed. Where time-rates are paid, the standard rate is given for a normal week, or it can be readily computed, but where piece-rates are used it is not always possible to connect the piece-rate with a normal week's earnings.

The numbers actually employed at the various time or piece wages are not always reported, but estimates are given of the numbers believed to be affected by the various changes. During the last three years the monthly publication in the Board of Trade Labour Gazette of the aggregate wages paid and the number of workers employed by a number of textile firms and boot and shoe manufacturers affords for these industries the beginnings of a direct wage-measurement.

The census of wages of 1886, however, the classified results of which are given in the General Report on the Wages of the Manual Labour Classes in the United Kingdom [C. 6889 of 1893], deserves mention here as containing the largest volume of direct evidence on wages, and several Tables taken from the Report will be found in Appendices to this Memorandum.

COMPUTATION OF WAGE-MOVEMENTS AFTER 1886.

While the Board possess no later figures exactly comparable with those resulting from the enquiry of 1886, the records given by the successive censuses of the number engaged in various occupations when combined with the records of changes in rates of wages in these or related occupations throw some light upon the general tendency of wages in large sections of the working classes.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

With regard to the proportion of employment afforded by certain industries, the following table, compiled from the population census of 1901, shows the total number and the rate per 10,000 of the population in the undermentioned classes of occupations:—

CLASS.	TOTAL.			Rate per 10,000 of Total Population.		
	1881.	1891.	1901.	1881.	1891.	1901.
General or Local Government of the Country - - - - -	145,560	192,396	253,865	42	51	61
Defence of the Country (excluding Army, Royal Navy, and Marines abroad) -	146,177	165,354	203,993	42	44	49
Professional Occupations and their Subordinate Services - - - - -	515,469	617,472	733,582	148	164	177
Domestic Offices or Services (excluding Domestic or Out-door Service) - -	2,022,102	2,238,746	2,199,517	580	593	531
Commercial Occupations - - - - -	386,101	504,143	712,165	117	134	172
Conveyance of Men, Goods, and Messages (excluding Merchant Seamen abroad) -	951,179	1,194,691	1,497,629	273	317	361
Agriculture - - - - -	2,574,031	2,420,926	2,262,454	738	642	546
Fishing - - - - -	71,956	65,642	61,925	21	18	15
In and about, and dealing in the Products of Mines and Quarries - - - - -	618,629	760,730	943,880	177	202	228
Metals, Machines, Implements and Conveyances - - - - -	978,102	1,145,386	1,475,410	280	304	356
Precious Metals, Jewels, Watches, Instruments and Games (including Electricity Supply) - - - - -	84,745	104,463	168,344	24	28	41
Building and Works of Construction -	926,135	955,573	1,335,820	265	253	322
Wood, Furniture, Fittings and Decorations - - - - -	218,645	242,887	307,632	63	64	74
Brick, Cement, Pottery and Glass - -	138,775	152,123	189,856	40	40	46
Chemicals, Oil, Grease, Soap, &c. - -	82,060	107,119	149,675	24	28	36
Skins, Leather, Hair, and Feathers -	94,088	105,068	117,866	27	28	28
Paper, Prints, Books, and Stationery -	195,983	266,870	334,261	56	71	81
Textile Fabrics - - - - -	1,430,785	1,519,861	1,462,001	410	403	353
Workers and Dealers in Dress - - -	1,228,397	1,354,836	1,395,795	352	359	337
Food, Tobacco, Drink and Lodging -	877,827	1,113,441	1,301,076	252	295	314
Gas, Water, and Sanitary Service - -	29,679	47,285	78,686	9	13	19
Other General and Undefined Workers and Dealers - - - - -	1,181,359	1,269,887	1,075,414	339	337	259
	14,897,884	16,554,899	18,261,146	4,271	4,385	4,405

The census figures show that during the period 1881–1901 a large increase has taken place in the proportion of employment afforded by the building, mining, iron and steel trades among the great industries, and by chemicals and paper among those of secondary importance, while the textile and leather trades show, particularly in the decade 1891–1901, a large decline.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

The bearing of these changes in the relative numbers employed in various trades upon the question of movements in the general level of wages will be seen by turning to the Index Numbers below, showing the general course of wages in the United Kingdom, which measure the wage-movements of some principal groups during the period 1877–1907.

CHANGES IN RATES OF WAGES.

GENERAL COURSE OF WAGES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM, 1877–1907.

NOTE.—In the following Table the wages at the end of 1900 are represented as 100. Years in which wages were higher or lower than in 1900 are represented by percentages correspondingly above or below 1900.

End of Year.	BUILDING TRADES (Bricklayers, Carpenters & Joiners, and Masons). (Mean of 74 Rates.)	COAL MINING (Hewers). (Weighted Percentage changes in Principal Districts.)	ENGINEERING (Fitters, Turners, Iron-founders & Pattern Makers.) (Mean of 36 Rates.)	TEXTILE (Cotton Spinners, and Weavers, and Linen and Jute Operatives.)	AGRICULTURE (Ordinary Labourers). (Mean of 115 Rates.)	Unweighted Mean of preceding Groups of Trades.	
						Including Agriculture.	Excluding Agriculture.
1877	90.00	65.65	88.86	102.22	94.92	88.33	86.68
1878	88.89	61.98	88.05	92.45	94.35	85.14	82.84
1879	86.67	62.11	87.86	88.01	92.09	83.35	81.16
1880	85.55	61.45	88.05	89.78	91.53	83.27	81.21
1881	85.55	63.23	89.36	94.23	91.53	84.78	83.09
1882	85.55	67.91	89.94	94.23	91.53	85.83	84.41
1883	84.45	69.24	90.09	93.33	92.09	85.84	84.28
1884	84.45	65.67	89.99	93.56	91.53	85.04	83.42
1885	84.45	63.10	89.96	90.22	90.40	83.63	81.93
1886	84.45	61.09	89.60	89.34	89.83	82.86	81.12
1887	84.45	60.85	90.29	90.22	89.27	83.02	81.45
1888	84.45	64.80	91.29	93.78	89.27	84.72	83.58
1889	85.55	75.79	91.72	94.67	89.83	87.51	86.93
1890	86.67	85.85	92.68	95.12	90.96	90.26	90.08
1891	87.78	86.52	93.31	96.89	93.22	91.54	91.13
1892	88.89	78.88	93.31	96.00	93.22	90.06	89.27
1893	90.00	80.44	92.60	94.97	92.66	90.13	89.50
1894	91.11	76.13	92.56	94.97	92.66	89.49	88.69
1895	92.22	72.54	93.18	94.97	92.66	89.11	88.23
1896	93.33	71.90	96.75	94.97	92.66	89.92	89.24
1897	94.45	72.60	98.18	94.97	93.79	90.80	90.05
1898	97.78	78.60	99.19	94.97	95.48	93.20	92.64
1899	98.89	83.53	99.61	98.22	96.61	95.37	95.06
1900*	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
1901	100.00	93.95	100.29	100.00	101.13	99.07	98.56
1902	100.00	87.53	100.29	100.00	101.13	97.78	96.96
1903	100.00	84.92	99.93	100.00	101.13	97.20	96.21
1904	100.00	82.31	99.93	100.00	101.33	96.71	95.56
1905	100.00	81.02	100.05	102.67	101.22	96.99	95.94
1906	100.00	83.36	100.83	106.22	101.25	98.33	97.60
1907	100.00	96.25	102.00	108.89	101.25†	101.68	101.79

By comparing this table of changes in wages with the table of changes in the number occupied in varied industries it will be perceived that those groups of industries (building, mining, engineering) which among the great industries show a large increase in the proportion of employment they afford, also show in general a rise of wages considerably exceeding the rise in the textile trades and in agriculture, industries which afford a diminishing proportion of employment. If the year 1877 be taken as the starting point it will be seen that the rise in the level of wages during the last thirty years has been greater in those groups of industry which show an increase in the proportion of employment.

To this register of changes in wages in principal industries may be added the following table, stating the average earnings for the rapidly growing class of railway servants, now about 500,000 in number, during the ten years 1897–1906.

* Base year. † Estimated.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

WEEKLY EARNINGS OF RAILWAY SERVANTS.

[Compiled from the Annual Reports of the Board of Trade on Changes in Wages and Hours.]

Year.	England and Wales (15 Companies).		Scotland (5 Companies).		Ireland (7 Companies).		United Kingdom (27 Companies).	
	Number Employed.*	Average Wages per Head.	Number Employed.*	Average Wages per Head.	Number Employed.*	Average Wages per Head.	Number Employed.*	Average Wages per Head.
1897	339,883	s. d. 24 10½	40,871	s. d. 22 5¼	17,354	s. d. 19 5	398,108	s. d. 24 4¾
1898	353,785	25 1½	41,148	22 7½	17,371	19 4¾	412,304	24 7¾
1899	371,490	25 9¾	42,660	22 10¾	17,708	19 4½	431,858	25 3
1900	379,750	25 7	42,461	22 11	18,136	19 5¾	440,347	25 0¾
1901	378,121	25 6¼	43,710	23 1½	18,726	19 5	440,557	25 0¼
1902	383,883	25 5¼	45,240	23 1¼	19,306	19 3¼	448,429	24 11¼
1903	384,465	25 4½	44,922	22 11½	18,934	19 5	448,321	24 10½
1904	380,610	25 7	45,216	23 1¼	19,751	19 1½	445,577	25 0½
1905	384,321	25 10¼	45,399	23 3¾	19,531	19 2¾	449,251	25 3½
1906	391,661	25 11½	46,407	23 4¼	19,874	19 9½	457,942	25 5¼

* The workpeople included in the Table are those employed in the coaching, goods, locomotive, and engineers' departments of the railway companies. The numbers given relate to those employed in the first week in December, except in 1903, when the figures relate to those employed in the second week in December. The twenty-seven companies included employ over 90 per cent. of the total number of railway servants.

Since 1904 monthly statistics as to the wages paid in certain industries have been published in the Board of Trade Labour Gazette and the following Table compares the average weekly amount earned per employee in the years 1904–7 with that earned in one week in October 1886 according to the census of wages taken in 1886* :—

	1886.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Cotton Manufacture - -	15 2	17 7	18 10	19 2	19 5
Woollen „ - -	15 6	17 5	18 2	18 0	18 2
Worsted „ - -	12 2	14 1	14 6	14 4	14 7
Linen „ - -	9 10	11 2	11 3	11 7	12 0
Jute „ - -	10 1	13 5	13 5	13 9	14 4
Silk „ - -	11 9	—	13 1	13 2	13 5
Hosiery „ - -	15 2	14 7	14 9	15 4	15 7
Boot and Shoe „ - -	18 4	18 0	18 11	19 1	19 2

In comparing the figures for 1886 with those for the years 1904–7 due regard must be had to possible changes between the two periods, in the proportion of men, lads, women and girls employed in the trades. The apparent absence of change for instance of the weekly earnings in the hosiery and boot and shoe industries is most probably due to the increased proportion of female workers included in the Returns in these two industries.

The Board of Trade also receives information as to changes in the wages of individual workers in a number of the principal industries.

The following is a Summary of such changes for the period 1897–1907.

* The 1886 figures represent the wages for a full ordinary week; those for each of the years 1904–7 the mean of the earnings in twelve ordinary weeks when some of the workpeople were probably employed less than full time and others more than full time. The two sets of figures are thus not strictly comparable, but the difference between them is believed to be slight.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

CHANGES IN WAGES CLASSIFIED BY INDUSTRIES.

[Compiled from the Annual Reports of the Board of Trade on Changes in Wages and Hours.]

Year.	No. of Changes.	Number of Separate Individuals Affected.			Amount of Change in Weekly Wages.		
		By Increase.	By Decrease.	Total.*	Increase.	Decrease.	Net incr. (+) or decr. (-).
ALL TRADES.†							
1897	1,518	560,707	13,855	597,444	£ 32,861	£ 1,354	+ 31,507
1898	1,403	1,000,240	11,865	1,012,119	81,500	787	+ 80,713
1899	1,588	1,170,937	1,132	1,172,069	90,418	104	+ 90,314
1900	1,413	1,109,284	23,010	1,132,386	211,412	2,822	+ 208,590
1901	966	429,715	489,318	928,926	40,790	117,377	- 76,587
1902	470	91,812	789,891	887,206	5,326	77,921	- 72,595
1903	443	21,327	874,721	896,598	1,541	39,868	- 38,327
1904	412	16,054	784,604	800,658	1,202	40,432	- 39,230
1905	386	319,304	249,586	688,889	16,334	18,503	- 2,169
1906	794	1,097,984	5,140	1,115,160	58,410	513	+ 57,897
1907	687	1,238,862	876	1,239,738	199,732	127	+ 199,605
PRINCIPAL TRADES.							
Building Trades.							
1897	483	83,219	—	83,219	8,833	—	+ 8,833
1898	503	74,725	—	74,725	7,739	—	+ 7,739
1899	471	66,242	—	66,242	6,640	—	+ 6,640
1900	350	69,863	8,697	78,600	7,542	901	+ 6,641
1901	158	29,598	10,089	39,687	2,984	1,041	+ 1,943
1902	72	12,401	3,089	15,575	1,219	294	+ 925
1903	36	4,106	282	4,638	352	48	+ 304
1904	37	1,225	9,604	10,829	69	953	- 884
1905	32	421	11,326	11,747	30	1,068	- 1,038
1906	26	1,053	2,212	3,265	73	230	- 157
1907	20	9,845	18	9,863	250	2	+ 248
Coal Mining.							
1897	19	239,917	414	240,331	6,579	26	+ 6,553
1898	55	659,919	—	659,919	56,595	—	+ 56,595
1899	85	652,654	—	652,654	51,164	—	+ 51,164
1900	130	680,518	—	680,518	164,474	—	+ 164,474
1901	95	322,237	373,966	704,681	31,719	88,800	- 57,081
1902	68	144	735,380	735,524	16	73,889	- 73,873
1903	38	—	752,190	752,190	—	32,488	- 32,488
1904	25	2,500	655,890	658,390	115	31,409	- 31,294
1905	18	—	194,156	200,746	—	13,471	- 13,471
1906	43	418,576	80	427,156	27,202	14	+ 27,188
1907	89	804,497	—	804,497	172,812	—	+ 172,812
Other Mining and Quarrying.							
1897	20	9,353	905	10,258	461	105	+ 356
1898	31	13,986	—	13,986	1,085	—	+ 1,085
1899	57	13,934	—	13,934	2,987	—	+ 2,987
1900	45	20,901	4,018	24,919	4,152	264	+ 3,888
1901	58	3,012	18,057	21,069	235	5,789	- 5,554
1902	28	12,244	1,610	13,854	697	140	+ 557
1903	25	173	12,348	12,521	9	660	- 651
1904	25	184	13,270	13,454	22	645	- 623
1905	29	9,622	7,190	16,812	471	1,243	- 772
1906	39	14,276	2,424	16,700	1,355	235	+ 1,120
1907	29	17,795	766	18,561	2,761	109	+ 2,652

* Workpeople whose wages were changed during any year, but at the end of that year stood at the same level as at the beginning, are included in these totals.

† Exclusive of agricultural labourers, seamen, and railway servants.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

CHANGES IN WAGES CLASSIFIED BY INDUSTRIES—continued.

Year.	No. of Changes.	Number of Separate Individuals Affected.			Amount of Change in Weekly Wages.		
		By Increase.	By Decrease.	Total.*	Increase.	Decrease.	Net incr. (+) or decr. (-).
Pig Iron and Iron and Steel Manufacture.							
1897	65	22,428	55	43,255	£ 904	£ 5	+ 899
1898	157	49,405	618	50,037	2,427	7	+ 2,420
1899	248	73,861	—	73,861	13,198	—	+ 13,198
1900	221	63,815	3,827	67,694	14,208	225	+ 13,983
1901	199	455	65,074	66,809	33	19,621	- 19,588
1902	90	37,988	6,937	50,343	1,198	363	+ 835
1903	69	769	22,723	23,492	51	1,126	- 1,075
1904	108	125	59,972	60,097	13	3,455	- 3,442
1905	117	37,365	242	63,836	2,435	5	+ 2,430
1906	170	68,927	—	68,927	5,407	—	+ 5,407
1907	144	69,765	3	69,768	6,665	5	+ 6,660
Engineering and Shipbuilding.							
1897	392	138,708	19	138,727	9,757	6	+ 9,751
1898	284	157,197	—	157,197	9,904	—	+ 9,904
1899	241	55,038	—	55,038	2,974	—	+ 2,974
1900	115	9,169	10	9,179	754	1	+ 753
1901	29	12,478	8,766	21,244	846	504	+ 342
1902	21	140	32,682	32,822	11	2,429	- 2,418
1903	97	26	74,354	74,680	2	4,283	- 4,281
1904	38	437	30,657	31,094	49	2,663	- 2,614
1905	37	13,719	34,400	48,119	775	2,510	- 1,735
1906	242	152,125	—	152,161	8,740	—	+ 8,740
1907	91	45,106	—	45,106	2,320	—	+ 2,320
Textile.							
1897	57	3,894	4,115	9,315	266	190	+ 76
1898	46	3,376	5,602	8,978	180	339	- 159
1899	79	232,423	231	232,654	5,882	11	+ 5,871
1900	68	125,089	—	125,089	6,010	—	+ 6,010
1901	32	2,911	187	3,098	313	22	+ 291
1902	22	2,086	21	2,107	146	4	+ 142
1903	13	556	445	1,001	28	10	+ 18
1904	14	340	3,599	3,939	19	128	- 109
1905	14	224,165	272	311,437	9,920	6	+ 9,914
1906	71	402,497	—	402,497	12,943	—	+ 12,943
1907	97	254,432	40	254,472	11,650	4	+ 11,646
Employees of Public Authorities.							
1897	120	20,977	5	20,982	1,515	1	+ 1,514
1898	142	12,139	—	12,139	857	—	+ 857
1899	140	19,524	—	19,524	1,148	—	+ 1,148
1900	189	31,734	9	31,743	2,596	4	+ 2,592
1901	187	27,615	13	27,628	1,836	3	+ 1,833
1902	72	7,871	—	7,871	602	—	+ 602
1903	74	8,650	—	8,650	512	—	+ 512
1904	86	8,245	—	8,245	657	—	+ 657
1905	76	29,745	14	29,759	2,334	1	+ 2,333
1906	118	29,151	139	29,290	1,630	1	+ 1,629
1907†	71	6,827	6	6,833	553	1	+ 552

* Workpeople whose wages were changed during any year, but at the end of that year stood at the same level as at the beginning, are included in these totals.

† Exclusive of Government Departments and Police.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).*

In some respects these reports of actual changes in wages form a better index of the actual condition of the several trades in relation to aggregate earnings than the percentages in the table "General Course of Wages." For while a comparison of the period 1897-1906 in the two tables shows in each case a steady considerable improvement of general trade up to the year 1900, followed by a decided decline down to 1904, and a distinct recovery beginning in 1905, the nature of the changes and probably their extent and date are more accurately indicated (at any rate in those trades which report fully) by the figures of increase or decrease of wages. For the percentages in the "General Course of Wages" are formed by taking the mean of standard rates, which are apt to reflect somewhat tardily the actual changes in wages of trades as a whole. On the other hand the table of changes in wages tends to fix attention too exclusively on the comparatively small fraction of persons employed whose wages undergo these changes, ignoring the great mass whose wages remain stable.

This difference between the two tables is of course more noticeable in some groups than in others. Comparing, for example, the changes in wages in the building trades with the percentages given in the Table on p. 658, it is found that in the latter the standard rate of 1900 is accurately maintained during the whole period 1900-1906, whereas in the former the increases of wages, reaching a high figure in the period 1897-1900, begin to fall off in 1901 and to pass from increases into decreases after 1903. There can be no question that this latter record is a truer register of the actual changes though for the reasons given above, it tends to give an exaggerated impression of them.

The table of changes in wages of public employees seems to indicate that the general upward tendency of wages in these employments is not appreciably affected by the general conditions of the outside labour market.

Tables of changes in rates of wages during recent years for carpenters, bricklayers, labourers, coal hewers, fitters, iron founders, compositors, cotton operatives, flax and jute trade, agricultural labourers, seamen (furnished in Appendix XIX of Cd. 1761), will be found in Table C, brought up to the beginning of 1908. †

WAGE MOVEMENTS IN AGRICULTURAL LABOUR.

The statistics of wages in agriculture are deserving of some special attention. While the percentages given in the Table on p. 3 indicate that during the whole period thus taken under survey, 1874-1906, the rise in the rate of wages of agricultural labour has fully kept pace with that of the aggregate of the other groups, the distribution of this rise over the period is abnormal.

The level of wages between 1874 and 1897 shows comparatively slight fluctuations and no general tendency to rise, the most marked feature being a depression in the later eighties. After 1897 a steady considerable rise is indicated until 1901, the subsequent years maintaining the higher level reached in that year.

The accuracy of these conclusions is corroborated by the separate computation from returns of agricultural labourers' wages in England and Wales, and in Ireland, presented in the Returns of "Wages and Earnings of Agricultural Labourers" to the Board of Trade, and brought up to date in the 11th Abstract of Labour Statistics, p. 67.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98327).

WAGES AND EARNINGS OF AGRICULTURAL LABOURERS.

ORDINARY AGRICULTURAL LABOURERS, ENGLAND AND WALES, AND IRELAND—1874–1906.*

[Compiled from Returns furnished to the Department.]

Year.	England and Wales.		Ireland.	
	Average Cash Wages per week of Ordinary Labourers employed on certain farms in England and Wales.†	Percentage Fluctuations in Wages compared with Standard Year 1900.	Average Cash Wages per week of Ordinary Labourers employed on certain farms in Ireland.†	Percentage Fluctuations in Wages compared with Standard Year 1900.
	1874–1906. (128 farms.)	1874–1906. (128 farms.)	1874–1906. (22 farms.)	1874–1906. (22 farms.)
	s. d.		s. d.	
1874 - -	13 11½	94·1	7 6½	79·7
1875 - -	14 0	94·4	7 7½	80·6
1876 - -	14 1½	95·2	7 10	82·8
1877 - -	14 1½	95·2	7 11	83·7
1878 - -	14 0½	94·7	8 0	84·6
1879 - -	13 8½	92·4	8 0	84·6
1880 - -	13 7½	91·9	8 1	85·5
1881 - -	13 7½	91·9	8 1	85·5
1882 - -	13 7½	91·9	8 2	86·3
1883 - -	13 8	92·4	8 3	87·2
1884 - -	13 7½	91·9	8 4½	88·6
1885 - -	13 5½	90·7	8 4½	88·6
1886 - -	13 4	89·9	8 6	89·9
1887 - -	13 2½	89·0	8 7	90·8
1888 - -	13 2½	89·0	8 7½	91·2
1889 - -	13 4	89·9	8 8	91·6
1890 - -	13 6	91·0	8 9½	93·0
1891 - -	13 9½	93·0	8 9½	93·0
1892 - -	13 10	93·3	8 10½	93·8
1893 - -	13 9	92·7	8 10	93·4
1894 - -	13 8	92·1	8 11	94·3
1895 - -	13 8½	92·4	9 0	95·2
1896 - -	13 9	92·7	9 1½	96·5
1897 - -	13 10½	93·5	9 2	96·9
1898 - -	14 1½	95·2	9 2½	97·4
1899 - -	14 4	96·6	9 5	99·6
1900 - -	14 10	100·0	9 5½	100·0
1901 - -	14 11	100·6	9 6½	100·9
1902 - -	14 11½	100·8	9 10	103·1
1903 - -	14 11½	100·8	9 11	104·9
1904 - -	14 11½	100·8	10 0	105·7
1905 - -	14 11½	100·8	10 3	108·6
1906 - -	15 0½	101·4	10 4½	109·7

The local diversity in rates of wages is more marked in agriculture than in any other large department of industry, except in certain of the building trades. The average money wages for ordinary agricultural labourers, based on returns from 128 farms in England and Wales, reached their highest point, 15s. 0½d., in 1906, and represents the mean of differences as wide as 20s. for Durham and 11s. 11d. for Dorset [see Table on p. 664]. The greater part of the difference appears to be due to the relative proximity of remunerative employment in other occupations with expanding labour markets, chiefly large manufacturing or commercial centres, and the great coal fields.

This is seen clearly in the following Table from which it appears that the group of northern counties yields a money wage much higher than that of any other group, that the industrial midlands come next, and that the rural counties of the east and south show the lowest rates of all. To some small extent, however, the lower wages of the east and south are counterbalanced by allowances in kind which are frequently larger than in the districts where higher money wages are paid.

* The Returns received from Scotland were insufficient for computation of satisfactory averages. These Returns, however, will be found in the Report on Wages, Earnings, and Conditions of Employment of Agricultural Labourers, Cd. 2376 of 1905.

† The Cash Wages are exclusive of extra payments for piecework, hay and corn harvests, overtime, etc., and also of the value of allowances in kind.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

WAGES AND EARNINGS OF AGRICULTURAL LABOURERS.

AGRICULTURAL LABOURERS, ENGLAND.*

[Compiled from the Report on *Wages, Earnings and Conditions of Employment of Agricultural Labourers in the United Kingdom. Cd. 2376 of 1905.*]

County.	Ordinary Labourers.		
	Average Weekly Rates of Cash Wages.	Average Weekly Earnings (including the Value of Allowances in Kind).	Excess of Earnings over Cash Wages.
NORTHERN COUNTIES.			
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Northumberland - - - - -	19 4†	21 7†	2 3
Durham - - - - -	20 0†	22 2†	2 2
Cumberland and Westmorland - - - - -	18 4	20 0	1 8
Lancashire - - - - -	18 10	20 7	1 9
Yorkshire, East Riding - - - - -	16 9	19 2	2 5
„ North Riding - - - - -	16 9	18 10	2 1
„ West Riding - - - - -	17 3	19 10	2 7
MIDLAND COUNTIES.			
Derbyshire - - - - -	18 8	20 7	1 11
Cheshire - - - - -	17 0	18 9	1 9
Nottinghamshire - - - - -	17 3	19 9	2 6
Leicestershire and Rutland - - - - -	15 9	17 4	1 7
Staffordshire - - - - -	15 11	18 4	2 5
Shropshire - - - - -	14 8	18 0	3 4
Worcestershire - - - - -	14 2	16 5	2 3
Warwickshire - - - - -	14 4	16 4	2 0
Oxfordshire - - - - -	12 0	14 6	2 6
Northamptonshire - - - - -	14 1	16 2	2 1
Buckinghamshire - - - - -	14 8	16 4	1 8
Middlesex - - - - -	17 10	20 4	2 6
Hertfordshire - - - - -	14 8	17 2	2 6
Bedfordshire - - - - -	13 6	16 6	3 0
EASTERN COUNTIES.			
Huntingdonshire - - - - -	13 8	16 2	2 6
Cambridgeshire - - - - -	12 8	16 1	3 5
Lincolnshire - - - - -	15 6	18 8	3 2
Norfolk - - - - -	12 4	15 3	2 11
Suffolk - - - - -	12 9	15 6	2 9
Essex - - - - -	13 9	16 11	3 2
SOUTHERN AND SOUTH-WESTERN COUNTIES.			
Kent - - - - -	16 4	19 7	3 3
Surrey - - - - -	16 4	20 0	3 8
Sussex - - - - -	14 10	17 7	2 9
Hampshire - - - - -	13 9	17 9	4 0
Berkshire - - - - -	13 2	15 11	2 9
Wiltshire - - - - -	12 9	15 8	2 11
Dorsetshire - - - - -	11 11	15 6	3 7
Somerset - - - - -	13 6	16 11	3 5
Herefordshire - - - - -	13 3	16 3	3 0
Monmouthshire - - - - -	16 6	18 10	2 4
Gloucestershire - - - - -	12 11	15 5	2 6
Devonshire - - - - -	13 9	17 1	3 4
Cornwall - - - - -	14 6	17 4	2 10

* The figures in the Table relate to the year 1902, but other returns furnished annually to the Department show that there has been little change in rates of wages since 1902, up to the end of 1906.

† These figures relate to ploughmen or hinds,

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

For a full examination of the wage conditions of agricultural labour, see Mr. Wilson Fox's Second Report [Cd. 2376 of 1905].

MR. BOWLEY'S TABLE OF INCREASE OF WAGES.

The following table gives "The Increase of Wages," compiled by Mr. A. L. Bowley, and published by him on p. 13 of "Statistical Studies of National Progress in Wealth and Trade."

THE INCREASE OF WAGES.

	Average Weekly Wages (Men).				Numbers to which the Rates of Wages may be Estimated to Apply.* (0,000's omitted.)		
	1881.	1886.	1891.	1902.	1881.	1891.	1901.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.			
Agriculture - - - - -	15 0	—	15 0	16 6	103	99	96
Building - - - - -	27 0	27 0	28 0	31 0	58	61	80
Cotton - - - - -	24 9	25 3	26 0	27 3	15	16	17
Wool - - - - -	24 3	23 3	23 3	23 3	8	8	8
Machinery - - - - -	25 6	25 9	26 9	28 6	23	28	44
Shipbuilding - - - - -	—	29 3	33 6	36 6	5	6	7
Coal - - - - -	23 0	23 0	30 0	33 6	29	39	51
Sailors - - - - -	25 0	25 0	31 0	30 0	12	12	11
Printers† - - - - -	31 0	—	32 0	33 0	4	5	7

Mr. Bowley comments on the figures as follows :—

"The wage statistics for 1886 are from the Board of Trade Returns, and include all classes of labour; the figures for other years are obtained from the 1886 basis by estimating the rates of increase.

"The average weekly rates of wages in the above groups together are, when we make allowances, for the change of numbers employed :—1881, 21s. 6d. ; 1891, 23s. 6d. ; 1901, 27s. 6d., an increase of 29 per cent. ; but if the proportion of people in 1881 had remained unchanged throughout the period, the figures would be : 1881, 21s. 6d. ; 1891, 23s. ; 1901, 25s., an increase of 16 per cent. only."

"This conclusion is supported by such wage-statistics as we have for other industries."

MOVEMENT IN WOMEN'S WAGES.

The body of statistical evidence relating to changes in the money and real wages of women and of children is smaller than that relating to men's wages ; a small number of distinctively female occupations came within the scope of the wages census of 1886, and a far smaller proportion of women and of children find employment in industries for which returns of wages or changes in wages are made to the Board of Trade.

The following table [from Cd. 6889, p. 474] gives the average rate of money wages per head for adult women in certain trades at the time of the 1886 census.

	Average Wages.			Average Wages.	
	s.	d.		s.	d.
Cotton Manufacture - - -	15	3	Coal, Iron-ore, and Iron-stone Mines	8	2
Woollen Manufacture - - -	13	3	Metalliferous Mines - - -	5	10
Worsted and Stuff Manufacture - -	11	11	China, Clay, &c., Works - - -	6	9
Linen Manufacture - - -	8	11	Roads, Pavements, Sewers - - -	9	0
Jute - - - - -	9	7	Tin Plate Works - - -	10	4
Hemp - - - - -	9	8	Brass Works and Metal Wares	12	11
Silk - - - - -	10	1	Boot and Shoe Making† - - -	12	6
Carpet - - - - -	11	1	Distilleries - - - - -	9	5
Hosiery - - - - -	11	6	Brick and Tile, &c., Making - - -	9	4
Lace - - - - -	12	8	Chemical Manure Works - - -	8	9
Small Wares - - - - -	10	9	Railway Carriages, &c. - - -	13	3
Flock and Shoddy Manufacture -	9	9	Average - - - - -	12	8

* The numbers are for England and Wales. The wages would apply for the most part to Scotland also.
† Mean of recognised Trade Union time-rates ‡ Factory workers only.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

The figures for domestic service indicate a decline of proportionate employment in an occupation the real wages of which even in 1886 must have been much above the average, and which have certainly shown a considerable rise in the last twenty years. The decline in the textile trades, so far as it relates to factory work, must also appreciably affect the general average of women's wages. On the other hand there has been a large increase in the number of females employed in the comparatively well-paid professional occupations (teaching, &c.).

EFFECT OF CHANGES OF PRICES UPON WAGES.

Though movements of wholesale prices do not furnish so precise an indication of the variations of the purchasing power of wages as in the case of retail prices of certain commodities, the relation between the two is close enough to demand recognition. In endeavouring to ascertain the recent changes in the purchasing power of money wages the estimated changes in wholesale prices may first be considered.

INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES, 1871-1907.

1900=100.

NOTE.—These Index Numbers have been obtained by weighting the percentages for the 45 articles used in accordance with the estimated value of the quantities consumed.

Groups into which the 45 selected articles have been classified.								
Year.	Index No. for all the 45 Articles.	I. Coal and Metals.	II. Textiles (Raw Materials).	III. Food and Drink.				Group IV. Miscel- laneous.
				III. A. Corn, &c.	III. B. Meat, Fish and Dairy Produce.	III. C. Sugar, Tea, Wine and Tobacco, &c.	Total Group III.	
1871	136.0	68.3	146.4	163.5	111.5	220.0	144.6	145.1
1872	145.8	102.8	166.5	169.9	113.1	222.6	148.3	151.5
1873	152.7	128.3	161.9	179.0	120.9	212.1	154.5	156.8
1874	148.1	104.8	151.1	179.2	123.3	201.0	154.4	154.5
1875	141.4	84.6	147.3	161.3	130.3	198.5	150.4	140.3
1876	138.0	72.4	137.9	159.9	130.7	192.5	149.4	141.1
1877	141.6	67.5	135.2	175.9	128.5	209.6	156.7	139.3
1878	132.6	62.8	131.4	160.6	125.1	188.0	146.4	125.1
1879	126.6	58.7	123.0	157.9	119.2	178.5	141.4	113.8
1880	129.6	64.8	130.0	159.1	117.9	183.6	141.8	124.4
1881	127.3	61.9	127.6	154.3	118.0	179.8	139.5	123.0
1882	128.4	62.2	123.4	153.7	124.0	178.6	142.1	123.7
1883	126.8	60.7	119.1	150.7	126.2	171.8	141.2	121.6
1884	114.7	57.5	115.2	130.4	115.9	144.0	124.9	114.5
1885	107.7	54.6	108.9	123.7	106.8	133.0	116.5	111.4
1886	101.6	52.6	99.9	116.3	102.9	125.8	110.9	101.7
1887	99.6	53.9	102.7	115.7	98.6	119.3	107.8	95.3
1888	102.7	56.6	101.2	115.9	104.8	128.6	111.9	98.0
1889	104.0	62.7	105.1	114.1	102.9	137.1	111.3	103.1
1890	104.0	74.9	105.4	115.7	101.1	123.8	109.5	99.4
1891	107.4	70.1	101.4	134.3	101.0	125.4	117.0	95.0
1892	101.8	65.2	95.6	117.6	102.1	125.1	110.9	92.5
1893	100.0	59.0	96.4	108.7	105.8	129.1	109.7	89.3
1894	94.2	60.0	88.6	100.8	101.5	116.0	102.9	84.5
1895	91.0	56.8	84.3	100.3	97.2	106.4	99.5	84.9
1896	88.2	55.5	92.9	93.0	90.2	107.8	93.3	86.5
1897	90.1	56.3	86.8	101.6	92.8	102.5	97.4	86.9
1898	93.2	61.7	80.0	117.6	90.0	101.5	102.3	89.7
1899	92.3	72.4	82.9	101.9	94.6	99.7	98.1	91.3
1900*	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1901	96.9	82.2	93.3	102.5	100.0	95.0	100.4	96.3
1902	96.5	76.1	92.3	101.9	105.2	86.0	101.7	92.5
1903	96.9	74.1	101.7	102.0	102.6	88.0	100.7	91.7
1904	98.3	70.9	112.9	106.8	99.0	92.6	101.4	88.3
1905	97.6	71.3	106.7	104.3	98.2	103.6	101.2	91.1
1906	100.5	78.3	121.1	102.2	101.5	90.4	100.5	95.6
1907	105.8	86.9	127.3	109.0	104.7	94.4	105.2	99.7

Though the abnormal elevation of prices in the early seventies gives an exaggerated impression of the fall in the index numbers of this table, the decline, as measured from the period of depression which succeeded, *i.e.*, 1878, etc., is seen to be very considerable, a decline visible in each of the four groups with the exception of coal and metals. The

* Base year.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).*

fall, rapid and almost continuous to 1887, afterwards ceased ; and though some fluctuation took place, the general level did not greatly alter during the period 1888–1903. Since then a steady rise seems to have set in.

In order to trace the effect of these changes in wholesale prices upon the purchasing power of wages, inquiry must be made as to how far the commodities referred to are consumed in retail quantities by the working classes, and to what extent the movements in retail prices compare with those in wholesale prices.

No general index number of retail prices is available, and recourse must be had to the statistics of such prices in special localities and for special classes of commodities given in the Return of Wholesale and Retail Prices in the United Kingdom in 1902 (321 of 1903) brought up to date in the Eleventh Abstract of Labour Statistics. (Cd. 3690 p. 88).

The following estimate of percentage fluctuations of retail food prices for London is based upon certain selected articles in common use, weighted according to the ascertained part they played in the budget of a number of households.

PERCENTAGE VARIATIONS OF RETAIL PRICES OF FOOD IN LONDON, 1877–1906.

NOTE.—The figures for the several articles are based on prices given in Report on Wholesale and Retail Prices (H.C. 321 of 1903) and from more recent supplementary information. The figures in the last column relate to all the articles in the preceding columns. They are extracted from the Memoranda on British and Foreign Trade and Industry (Cd. 1761 of 1903), supplemented by more recent information.

Year.	Flour.	Potatoes.	Bread.	Beef.	Mutton.	Bacon.	Butter.	Tea.	Sugar.	Index Number.
1877	206·6	197·9	147·2	145·1	155·1	108·4	97·6	120·0	200·0	150·7
1878	185·3	185·6	113·0	145·1	150·4	106·7	94·9	120·0	175·0	141·1
1879	135·3	203·9	127·3	131·7	152·7	106·7	82·4	120·0	150·0	134·8
1880	164·7	194·8	141·9	145·1	155·1	106·7	90·1	120·0	162·5	142·3
1881	152·9	179·0	138·0	142·4	159·8	115·6	80·8	120·0	162·5	140·2
1882	152·9	169·9	126·4	139·7	171·6	115·6	85·8	120·0	162·5	140·1
1883	152·9	181·9	114·8	139·7	173·9	106·7	96·5	120·0	162·5	139·9
1884	129·4	147·4	105·6	131·7	155·1	106·7	95·1	120·0	150·0	127·9
1885	105·9	146·4	110·0	126·3	126·9	106·7	85·8	120·0	100·0	116·2
1886	105·9	141·4	110·0	104·8	117·5	97·8	87·2	120·0	112·5	110·3
1887	111·8	147·6	100·7	98·8	107·9	80·0	96·3	120·0	100·0	104·9
1888	102·9	136·1	104·2	98·8	115·9	75·6	92·7	120·0	112·5	104·6
1889	114·7	136·1	121·5	97·6	120·6	80·0	87·2	120·0	112·5	108·3
1890	102·9	125·4	121·5	96·4	115·9	95·6	92·7	110·0	100·0	106·3
1891	108·8	160·0	121·5	97·6	107·9	97·8	98·2	95·0	100·0	108·8
1892	120·6	134·0	119·9	98·8	104·8	102·2	101·8	95·0	112·5	108·9
1893	88·2	131·1	97·2	95·2	96·8	117·8	103·7	95·0	100·0	103·1
1894	88·2	136·5	91·4	96·4	101·6	100·0	95·4	90·0	100·0	100·0
1895	79·4	146·2	85·4	96·4	96·8	91·1	88·1	90·0	75·0	95·0
1896	88·2	104·1	88·7	94·0	90·5	77·8	95·4	90·0	100·0	91·0
1897	105·9	107·4	107·2	97·6	93·7	100·0	95·4	90·0	75·0	97·6
1898	126·5	136·9	121·5	96·4	92·1	102·2	96·3	90·0	75·0	103·9
1899	94·1	111·3	92·4	101·2	96·8	91·1	100·9	90·0	100·0	97·4
1900*	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0
1901	102·9	109·3	93·1	101·2	104·8	111·1	100·0	100·0	125·0	105·1
1902	102·9	94·8	101·9	107·2	100·8	108·9	99·3	100·0	100·0	102·6
1903	105·9	109·8	111·1	101·2	106·3	104·4	97·4	100·0	100·0	104·3
1904	108·8	124·7	110·9	100·5	103·7	108·9	96·3	110·0	106·2	107·4
1905	111·8	104·1	113·0	98·5	103·7	111·1	98·2	110·0	137·5	108·4
1906	108·8	101·0	104·2	98·5	102·2	117·8	102·8	100·0	100·0	104·6

To eliminate accidental variations in particular years, the Index Numbers have been reduced to averages for the quinquennial periods, of which 1880, 1885, 1890, 1895 and 1900 are the middle years. The result is as follows :—

Period.	Index Number.
Average of quinquennial period of which middle year is 1880	139·7
" " " " " " " " " " " " 1885	119·8
" " " " " " " " " " " " 1890	107·4
" " " " " " " " " " " " 1895	97·3
" " " " " " " " " " " " 1900	101·8

* Base year.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

In the tables upon "Consumption and Cost of Food in Workmen's Families in Urban Districts of the United Kingdom," in the Second Series of Memoranda, entitled "British and Foreign Trade and Industry" [Cd. 2337], the amount and proportions of expenditure upon the several items of food are given for groups of families in the several urban districts of England.

The following general table will be of service as indicating the proportionate part played by expenditure on food at the several levels of income :—

AVERAGE WEEKLY COST AND QUANTITY OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF FOOD CONSUMED BY
URBAN WORKMEN'S FAMILIES IN 1904.

Limits of Weekly Income	Under 25s.	25s. and under 30s.	30s. and under 35s.	35s. and under 40s.	40s. and above.	All Incomes.
Number of returns	261	289	416	382	596	1,944
Average weekly family income	s. d. 21 4½	s. d. 26 11¾	s. d. 31 11¼	s. d. 36 6¼	s. d. 52 0½	s. d. 36 10
Average number of children living at home.	3·1	3·3	3·2	3·4	4·4	3·6
COST.						
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Bread and flour	3 0½	3 3¾	3 3½	3 4½	4 3¾	3 7
Meat (bought by weight)	2 8	3 4¾	4 3½	4 5½	5 10½	4 5½
Other meat* (including fish)	0 7½	0 8¾	0 10	1 0	1 4	0 11¾
Bacon	0 6¾	0 9	0 10¼	0 11½	1 3¾	0 11½
Eggs	0 5¾	0 8½	0 11	1 0	1 4¾	1 0
Fresh milk	0 8	0 11¾	1 3¼	1 4¼	1 7¾	1 3¼
Cheese	0 4¾	0 5½	0 6	0 6	0 8	0 6½
Butter	1 2	1 7	1 10¼	2 0	3 0½	2 1½
Potatoes	0 8¾	0 9¾	0 10½	0 10¼	1 1¾	0 11
Vegetables and fruit	0 4¾	0 7	0 10	0 11¾	1 3¾	0 11
Currants and raisins	0 1½	0 1¾	0 2¼	0 3	0 3¾	0 2¾
Rice, tapioca, and oatmeal	0 4½	0 5	0 6	0 5¾	0 7	0 6
Tea	0 9¼	0 11¼	1 0¾	1 1¼	1 5	1 1½
Coffee and cocoa	0 2	0 3¼	0 3½	0 4¼	0 5½	0 3¾
Sugar	0 8	0 10	0 10¾	0 11¼	1 3	0 11¾
Jam, marmalade, treacle and syrup	0 4¼	0 5¼	0 6	0 6½	0 8¾	0 6½
Pickles and condiments	0 2	0 2¼	0 3¼	0 3½	0 4¼	0 3¼
Other items†	1 0½	1 3¾	1 6½	1 10½	2 6¼	1 9½
Total expenditure on food	14 4¾	17 10¼	20 9¼	22 3½	29 8	22 6
QUANTITIES.						
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
Bread and flour	28·44	29·97	29·44	29·99	37·76	32·04
Meat (bought by weight)	4·44	5·33	6·26	6·43	8·19	6·50
Bacon	0·94	1·11	1·19	1·38	1·82	1·38
Fresh milk	pts. 5·54	pts. 7·72	pts. 9·85	pts. 10·34	pts. 12·63	pts. 9·91
Cheese	lbs. 0·67	lbs. 0·70	lbs. 0·79	lbs. 0·77	lbs. 1·02	lbs. 0·83
Butter	1·10	1·50	1·69	1·89	2·78	1·96
Potatoes	14·05	15·84	16·11	15·87	19·93	16·92
Currants and raisins	0·42	0·50	0·62	0·80	0·91	0·70
Rice, tapioca, and oatmeal	2·54	2·64	2·93	2·55	3·38	2·95
Tea	0·48	0·55	0·57	0·59	0·72	0·60
Coffee and cocoa	0·15	0·18	0·20	0·23	0·29	0·22
Sugar	3·87	4·62	4·79	5·21	6·70	5·31

* *e.g.*, Sheep's heads, tripe, heart, liver, pig's fry, tinned meats, rabbits.

† Not including intoxicating drinks and tobacco.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).*

It will be seen that whilst for the incomes below 30s. two-thirds of the total income is spent on food, in the case of incomes of 40s. and above, about 57 per cent. is so spent.

The amount spent on bread and flour together does not show much variation in the different ranges of income, except in the case of incomes above £2 where the family income is augmented to a greater extent than in the other groups by the earnings of children and in which the children included are older.

In the case of incomes below 25s. the expenditure on bread and flour forms about 21 per cent. of the total spent on food ; for incomes between 35s. and 40s. the proportion is 15·0 per cent. The quantity of bread and flour purchased varies from 28½ to 37¾ lbs. per week, the average being 32 lbs. The average cost is 3s. 7d.

The average expenditure on meat and fish of all kinds is seen from the Table to be 6s. 4¾d. per week. In London the expenditure on meat and fish is somewhat above the average, *i.e.*, 6s. 11¼d. per week.

The expenditure on meat, bacon and fish is seen from the Table to vary fairly in proportion to the income, in this respect contrasting with the almost stationary expenditure on bread.

Weekly Income.	Percentage of Income spent on Meat, Bacon, and Fish
Under 25s. - - - - -	18·0
25s. and under 30s. - - - - -	18·1
30s. „ „ 35s. - - - - -	18·7
35s. „ „ 40s. - - - - -	17·6
40s. „ over - - - - -	16·4

Turning to other articles of consumption it is found that fresh milk accounts for 8d. a week in the families with incomes below 25s., but the expenditure on fresh milk rises rapidly with the income. The average expenditure for all families is 1s. 3¼d.

Exclusive of the group of highest incomes, where supplementary wage-earners are most numerous, the average amount spent on cheese varies from 4¾d. to 6d. a week, the quantity consumed being about ¾ lb. per week.

Butter accounts for 1s. 2d. in the group of incomes below 25s., the average quantity being just over a pound. In the next group (incomes between 25s. and 30s.) the cost rises to 1s. 7d. and the average quantity consumed to 1½ lbs. For incomes between 30s. and 35s. the cost averages 1s. 10¼d. and the quantity rather less than 1¾ lbs.

The amount spent on potatoes shows little variation, ranging from 8¾d. in the lowest groups to 1s. 1¾d. in the highest group. From 14 to nearly 20 lbs. is the quantity consumed.

Currants and raisins account for 1½d. in incomes below 25s., rising to 3¾d. in the highest group, the average for all incomes being 2¾d.

Rice, tapioca and oatmeal account for an expenditure of from 4½d. to 7d. a week, a considerable portion of this amount being accounted for by the expenditure on oatmeal in Scotland which amounts on an average to 8¼d. per week.

In the case of incomes below 25s. tea accounts for 9¼d. a week, the average amount consumed being rather less than ½ lb. In families with incomes above 25s. the average expenditure varies from 11¼d. to 1s. 5d. and between ½ and ¾ lb. is consumed. The expenditure on coffee and cocoa is small, varying from 2d. to 5½d. per week.

Rather more than 3¾ lbs. of sugar are consumed at a cost of 8d. in the case of incomes below 25s., while for incomes between 25s. and 40s. the quantity ranges from over 4½ to nearly 5¼ lbs., and the cost from 10d. to 11¼d. In incomes of 40s. and over, about 6¾ lbs. are consumed at a cost of 1s. 3d. per week.

On p. 7 of the same series of Memoranda a table is given showing the average prices paid by families with various incomes. As might be expected, those families whose incomes are lowest, not only consume less of the various articles, but also have to be content with a lower quality of food. Thus, families with less than 25s. pay 1d. per lb. less than the

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

average for butcher's meat and for bacon the difference is even greater. For cheese the average price paid by all the families included in the returns exceeds that paid by the lowest group by $\frac{3}{4}$ d. per lb. ; for tea, by over 3d. ; and for sugar by nearly one farthing. These differences of price, however, by no means represent the whole difference of quality, since the poorest consumers buy in the smallest quantities and generally at the least advantage.

The fullest general account of the influence of retail prices upon wages is given in the following General Summary dealing with the effects of changes of prices in food, rent, clothing, fuel and lighting for workmen in London and large towns.

CHANGES IN THE COST OF LIVING OF THE WORKING CLASSES IN LARGE TOWNS.

A.—STATEMENT showing CHANGES in COST of the under-mentioned Items of WORKMEN'S EXPENDITURE in LONDON and large Towns in Great Britain in a series of averages for quinquennial periods. (Cost in the year 1900 = 100.)

Period.	Food.	Rent.*	Clothing.	Fuel and Light.
Average of Quinquennial Period of which middle Year is 1880 - -	139·7	86·6	108·5†	77·3
" " 1885 - -	119·8	90·1	102·9	74·1
" " 1890 - -	107·4	89·9	101·2	76·5
" " 1895 - -	97·3	96·3	98·8	74·8
" " 1900 - -	101·8	100·0	98·7	86·0

In order to combine the above results so as to show the estimated change in the total cost of living to the working classes so far as indicated by changes in these four principal items to each item must be attributed its appropriate "weight" or relative degree of importance.

After consideration of the available statistics of working-class expenditure, the following proportionate "weights" have been adopted :—

Food - - - - -	7
Rent - - - - -	2
Clothing - - - - -	2
Fuel and light - - - - -	1
Total expenditure on the above objects - - - - -	<u>12</u>

It is to be understood that these weights are only approximate, and are not intended to represent exactly the proportional expenditure of the working classes on each of the above items.

If the figures in Table A. are weighted in the above proportions, the following final "Index Numbers" are obtained :—

B.—STATEMENT SHOWING ESTIMATED CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING OF THE WORKING CLASSES, BASED ON COST OF FOOD, RENT, CLOTHING, FUEL, AND LIGHT, IN A SERIES OF AVERAGES FOR QUINQUENNIAL PERIODS. (COST IN THE YEAR 1900 = 100.)

Period.	Index Number of Cost of Living.
Average of quinquennial period of which middle year is 1880 - - - - -	120·5
" " 1885 - - - - -	108·2
" " 1890 - - - - -	100·9
" " 1895 - - - - -	95·5
" " 1900 - - - - -	99·7

These figures show that in the twenty-year period 1880–1900 the cost of living of the working classes, as shown by the price they have to pay for the four principal items of necessary expenditure, has fallen, so that roughly 100 shillings in 1900 would do the work of 120 at the beginning of the period. In the first fifteen years of the period the fall was somewhat greater, but since that time there has been a rise of about 4 per cent.

* The figures for rent apply to the years 1880, 1885, 1890, 1895 and 1900 respectively. Figure for the year 1881 (the first for which figures are available).

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).*

Much the greatest decline has been in the cost of food, which has fallen about twice as much proportionately as the total cost of living. The price of clothing has also declined, but at a much slower rate, while the cost of fuel and light has somewhat increased, and rents have risen considerably.

SUMMARY OF EVIDENCE.

Reviewing the evidence available for estimating the level of wages in various years, it is found that no direct measure exists of the proportions of wage-earners at the various rates of wages, and that no records exist of the actual average weekly earnings of any considerable body of wage-earners, except in the earnings inquiry now being carried out by the Board of Trade, the results of which are not at present available. Such evidence as is available relates to rates of piece wages or time wages for workers in important industries, and to the number of workers employed in these industries. The general results of records in several trades, covering some thirty years, and of comparative statistics based upon the census of wages of 1886, are that in all these groups of industries, allowing for trade cycles, a general tendency of wages to rise is perceptible through the last thirty years. Further, it would appear that the number of persons employed in those trades in which the advance has, on the whole, been the greatest, has increased more rapidly than the occupied population as a whole.

Though a rise in rates of wages does not necessarily imply a corresponding rise of average weekly or yearly earnings, since it might be accompanied by shorter hours or a larger quantity of unemployment, there is no evidence that the actual shortening of hours, which has taken place, entails a reduction of earnings at all commensurate with the rise of rates of wages, or that the average amount of unemployment is increasing.

The rise of nominal wages has been accompanied by such a fall of wholesale and of retail prices as implies a rise of "real" wages, or wages as measured in commodities, considerably greater than the rise of money wages. The fall of prices does not, however, benefit the various grades of wage-earners in direct ratio to their wages. Rent and certain other necessary elements of expenditure, such as fuel, which have risen in amount for the large majority of workers, play a relatively larger part in the budget of the lower grades of workers, reducing to that extent the gain from the general fall of prices. The poorest classes whose retail purchases are made in very small quantities, also gain least from the lower prices of other commodities than housing and fuel.

Although, except in agriculture, no exact measurement of recent movements in actual earnings expressed in money or in commodities is possible, there is ample evidence for concluding that every grade of skilled or unskilled male labour, in regular employment, enjoys a higher income than in 1886 when the census of wages was taken, and that upon the whole this rise has been steady and of general application.

It is mainly as regards labour in organised industries, and especially skilled workers, that any exact data with regard to wages are available. While there is reason to believe that unskilled and even casual labour is generally remunerated at a higher rate than formerly, it is possible that the large mass of casual time labour is not making any substantial advance in weekly or yearly earnings.

Of women's employment and wages it is even more difficult to speak with any confidence than of men's, because of the much smaller proportionate part they take in the large staple industries respecting which reliable statistics are available. Domestic service, still by far the largest occupation of women wage-earners, certainly has afforded a general rise of wages to the 39 per cent. of women who in 1901 were engaged in this work, while the increased proportion of women in the public services, and probably in the lower branches of the professions and of commerce, indicates an increase of wage-earning power and a wider choice of occupation. Though the proportion engaged in the textile trades and in dressmaking shows a falling off, the absolute amount of this employment remains very large; and the tendency of wages in the factories and large workshops which have absorbed a greater proportion of these trades, has been upwards, though probably the advance has not been so large as in the case of the more skilled and better organised male industries.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

TABLE A.

AVERAGE RATE OF WEEKLY WAGES PER HEAD IN 1886 IN THE UNDERMENTIONED TRADES, AS SHOWN BY THE WAGES CENSUS OF 1886.

Name of Industry or Trade.	Men.		Lads and Boys.		Women.		Girls.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Cotton Manufacture - - - -	25	3	9	4	15	3	6	10
Woollen " - - - -	23	2	8	6	13	3	7	5
Worsted and Stuff Manufacture - -	23	4	6	6	11	11	6	2
Linen Manufacture - - - -	19	9	6	3	8	11	4	11
Jute " - - - -	19	4	6	8	9	7	4	8
Hemp, &c. " - - - -	23	6	6	0	9	8	5	1
Silk " - - - -	22	3	7	2	10	1	5	8
Carpet " - - - -	26	7	8	4	11	1	6	11
Hosiery " - - - -	24	5	9	6	11	6	8	3
Lace " - - - -	27	3	9	4	12	8	6	2
Small Wares Manufacture - - - -	20	2	6	9	10	9	5	9
Flock and Shoddy " - - - -	21	2	10	5	9	9	4	6
Coal Ironstone and Iron Ore Mines -	22	11	10	9	8	2	5	7
Metalliferous Mines - - - -	16	6	7	0	5	10	4	9
Shale Mines and Paraffin Oil Works -	25	0	10	6	—	—	—	—
Slate Mines and Quarries - - - -	22	1	8	0	—	—	—	—
Granite Quarries and Works - - - -	21	11	8	3	—	—	—	—
Stone Quarries - - - -	23	10	9	10	—	—	—	—
China Clay, &c., Works - - - -	18	8	8	9	6	9	—	—
Police - - - -	27	5	—	—	—	—	—	—
Roads, Pavements, Sewers - - - -	20	9	9	6	9	0	—	—
Gas Works - - - -	27	2	12	3	—	—	—	—
Water Works - - - -	24	9	11	1	—	—	—	—
Pig Iron (Blast Furnaces) - - - -	24	6	10	8	—	—	—	—
General Engineering, Iron and Brass Foundries, and Machinery Trades.	25	9	9	1	—	—	—	—
Shipbuilding, Iron and Steel - - - -	29	3	12	2	—	—	—	—
Tin Plate Works - - - -	33	5	11	3	10	4	6	11
Saw Mills - - - -	24	3	8	10	—	—	—	—
Brass Works and Metal Wares - - - -	29	7	8	5	12	11	6	2
Shipbuilding, Wood - - - -	28	4	6	5	—	—	—	—
Cooperage Works - - - -	30	5	7	9	—	—	—	—
Coach and Carriage Building - - - -	26	6	6	8	—	—	—	—
Boot and Shoe Making* - - - -	24	3	8	4	12	6	5	6
Breweries - - - -	24	3	9	9	—	—	—	—
Distilleries - - - -	20	4	9	10	9	5	—	—
Brick and Tile Making - - - -	22	10	9	0	9	4	7	7
Chemical Manure Works - - - -	23	0	9	10	8	9	—	—
Railway Carriage and Wagon Building -	25	2	10	6	13	3	7	0
Total Average per Head -	24	7	8	11	12	8	6	4

PROPORTIONS OF WAGE-EARNERS AT VARIOUS LEVELS.

SUMMARY SHOWING THE PROPORTION OF MEN, WOMEN, LADS AND BOYS, AND GIRLS, AT DIFFERENT RATES OF WAGES, ACCORDING TO THE AGGREGATE NUMBERS DEALT WITH IN THE TABLES OF CENSUS OF WAGES.

	Men.	Lads and Boys.	Women.	Girls.
Half timers - - - -	—	11·9	—	27·2
Under 10s. - - - -	0·1	49·7	26·0	62·5
Of 10s. and under 15s. - - - -	2·4	32·5	50·0	8·9
Of 15s. " 20s. - - - -	21·5	5·8	18·5	1·4
Of 20s. " 25s. - - - -	33·6	0·1	5·4	—
Of 25s. " 30s. - - - -	24·2	—	0·1	—
Of 30s. " 35s. - - - -	11·6	—	—	—
Of 35s. " 40s. - - - -	4·2	—	—	—
Above 40s. - - - -	2·4	—	—	—
Total - - - -	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0

* Factory workers only.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 93827).*

TABLE B.

PERCENTAGE OF **MEN** EMPLOYED AT VARIOUS RATES OF WAGES AT OCTOBER, 1886,
IN THE UNDER-MENTIONED INDUSTRIES.

[BASED ON THE CENSUS OF WAGES OF 1886.]

Trade or Industry.	Under 10s.	Of 10s. and under 15s.	Of 15s. and under 20s.	Of 20s. and under 25s.	Of 25s. and under 30s.	Of 30s. and under 35s.	Of 35s. and under 40s.	Above 40s.	Total.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Cotton Manufacture - - - -	—	1·2	27·3	27·4	14·1	22·6	4·9	2·5	100·0
Woollen Manufacture - - - -	—	1·2	27·6	45·4	14·1	5·7	3·2	2·8	100·0
Worsted and Stuff Manufacture - -	—	11·9	24·3	13·0	37·6	12·6	0·4	0·2	100·0
Linen Manufacture - - - -	2·8	11·4	43·4	30·4	6·1	4·3	0·6	1·0	100·0
Jute „ - - - -	—	20·2	37·1	34·4	4·5	1·9	1·9	—	100·0
Hemp, &c. „ - - - -	—	2·0	24·4	47·2	13·6	3·2	7·6	2·0	100·0
Silk „ - - - -	—	14·4	39·2	16·3	12·4	5·4	12·1	0·2	100·0
Carpet „ - - - -	—	—	10·1	14·2	64·5	7·7	1·2	2·3	100·0
Hosiery „ - - - -	—	—	27·7	42·8	4·8	17·7	7·0	—	100·0
Lace „ - - - -	—	—	6·4	23·9	51·6	10·5	0·7	6·9	100·0
Small wares - - - -	—	18·0	32·2	29·5	15·3	3·6	0·6	0·8	100·0
Flock and Shoddy Manufacture - -	—	7·0	31·2	43·3	12·7	1·2	4·6	—	100·0
Coal, Iron Ore, and Ironstone Mines -	—	0·6	19·5	48·8	29·4	1·3	0·2	0·2	100·0
Metalliferous Mines - - - -	—	11·1	82·6	6·2	0·1	—	—	—	100·0
Shale Mines and Paraffin Oil Works -	—	—	14·1	29·1	54·4	1·7	0·1	0·6	100·0
Slate Mines and Quarries - - - -	—	1·2	25·9	71·5	0·5	0·6	0·3	—	100·0
Granite Quarries and Works - -	0·4	1·5	32·0	40·2	23·1	2·5	0·3	—	100·0
Stone Quarries - - - -	—	2·9	15·5	36·6	34·3	10·5	0·2	—	100·0
China Clay, &c., Works - - - -	—	—	88·6	11·4	—	—	—	—	100·0
Police - - - -	—	—	0·9	30·7	43·4	18·8	3·6	2·6	100·0
Roads, Pavements and Sewers - -	1·0	7·9	39·7	36·9	6·5	5·8	1·6	0·6	100·0
Gasworks - - - -	0·2	1·3	8·4	36·4	17·4	16·4	16·5	3·4	100·0
Waterworks - - - -	—	0·2	11·1	51·3	19·9	11·9	4·0	1·6	100·0
Pig Iron (Blast Furnaces) - - -	—	5·2	28·3	23·1	22·5	15·0	2·1	3·8	100·0
General Engineering, Iron and Brass Foundries, and Machinery Trades -	—	1·0	28·5	16·9	28·9	15·2	5·9	3·6	100·0
Shipbuilding, Iron and Steel - -	—	0·2	18·7	14·2	20·5	21·9	11·4	13·1	100·0
Tin Plate Works - - - -	—	—	16·1	13·3	7·1	8·8	21·5	33·2	100·0
Saw Mills - - - -	—	2·8	23·2	31·4	19·3	15·8	4·9	2·6	100·0
Brass Works and Metal Wares - -	—	1·0	7·2	18·1	23·6	28·4	10·8	10·9	100·0
Shipbuilding, Wood - - - -	—	0·5	11·0	18·5	14·5	43·6	9·9	2·0	100·0
Cooperage Works - - - -	—	0·3	6·1	14·1	23·2	27·2	19·0	10·1	100·0
Coach and Carriage Building - -	—	4·1	10·9	26·3	23·9	22·6	6·3	5·9	100·0
Boot and Shoe Making* - - -	—	1·2	10·7	49·0	22·9	10·9	3·3	2·0	100·0
Breweries - - - -	—	1·4	24·8	37·0	18·9	8·2	4·4	5·3	100·0
Distilleries - - - -	—	7·6	45·0	30·4	7·9	4·8	3·1	1·2	100·0
Brick and Tile, &c. Making - - -	—	3·0	24·8	39·6	18·4	11·5	1·6	1·1	100·0
Chemical Manure Works - - -	—	4·3	29·1	27·7	25·7	8·6	2·9	1·7	100·0
Railway Carriage and Wagon Building -	—	1·6	22·5	24·5	22·6	25·9	1·6	1·3	100·0
Mean of Percentages - - - -	0·1	3·9	25·7	30·3	20·5	11·4	4·8	3·3	100·0

* Factory workers only.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

TABLE B—(continued.)

PERCENTAGE OF **LADS AND BOYS** EMPLOYED AT VARIOUS RATES OF WAGES AT OCTOBER, 1886, IN THE UNDER-MENTIONED INDUSTRIES.

[BASED ON THE CENSUS OF WAGES OF 1886.]

	Half- timers.	Under 10s.	Of 10s. and under 15s.	Of 15s. and under 20s.	Of 20s. and under 25s.	Total.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Cotton Manufacture - - - - -	22·8	29·1	38·4	9·6	0·1	100·0
Woollen „ - - - - -	8·6	60·7	30·5	0·2	—	100·0
Worsted and Stuff Manufacture - - -	37·2	54·4	8·4	—	—	100·0
Linen Manufacture - - - - -	16·0	81·6	2·4	—	—	100·0
Jute „ - - - - -	24·3	68·8	6·9	—	—	100·0
Hemp, &c. „ - - - - -	13·9	81·4	4·7	—	—	100·0
Silk „ - - - - -	18·2	53·3	28·5	—	—	100·0
Carpet „ - - - - -	2·9	53·8	40·8	2·5	—	100·0
Hosiery „ - - - - -	—	64·0	36·0	—	—	100·0
Lace „ - - - - -	—	61·6	24·3	14·1	—	100·0
Smallwares - - - - -	7·9	84·2	7·9	—	—	100·0
Flock and Shoddy Manufacture - - -	—	33·3	66·7	—	—	100·0
Coal, Iron Ore, and Ironstone Mines -	—	36·5	58·3	5·2	—	100·0
Metalliferous Mines - - - - -	—	91·5	8·5	—	—	100·0
Shale Mines and Paraffin Oil Works -	—	61·4	31·4	7·2	—	100·0
Slate Mines and Quarries - - - - -	—	80·3	19·7	—	—	100·0
Granite Quarries and Works - - - - -	—	92·1	7·9	—	—	100·0
Stone Quarries - - - - -	—	49·3	50·7	—	—	100·0
China Clay, &c. Works - - - - -	—	70·6	29·4	—	—	100·0
Roads, Pavements, and Sewers - - -	—	58·9	31·2	9·9	—	100·0
Gasworks - - - - -	—	24·8	45·5	29·4	0·3	100·0
Waterworks - - - - -	—	43·2	44·3	10·2	2·3	100·0
Pig Iron (Blast Furnaces) - - - - -	—	36·7	50·2	13·1	—	100·0
General Engineering, Iron and Brass Foundries, and Machinery Trades.	—	66·4	28·4	5·2	—	100·0
Shipbuilding, Iron and Steel - - - - -	—	28·0	53·5	15·5	3·0	100·0
Tin Plate Works - - - - -	—	35·7	41·8	22·5	—	100·0
Saw Mills - - - - -	—	61·9	31·7	6·4	—	100·0
Brass Works and Metal Wares - - - - -	—	69·8	26·4	3·6	0·2	100·0
Shipbuilding, Wood - - - - -	—	88·5	10·7	0·8	—	100·0
Cooperage Works - - - - -	—	72·6	23·5	3·9	—	100·0
Coach and Carriage Building - - - - -	—	82·5	16·9	0·6	—	100·0
Boot and Shoe Making* - - - - -	—	68·4	25·5	6·1	—	100·0
Breweries - - - - -	—	53·7	41·6	4·7	—	100·0
Distilleries - - - - -	—	50·0	50·0	—	—	100·0
Brick and Tile, &c. Making - - - - -	—	66·1	30·6	3·3	—	100·0
Chemical Manure Works - - - - -	—	53·5	35·6	10·9	—	100·0
Railway Carriage and Wagon Building -	—	42·7	49·4	7·9	—	100·0
Mean of Percentages - - - - -	4·1	59·8	30·8	5·2	0·1	100·0

* Factory workers only.

TABLE B—(continued).

PERCENTAGE OF **WOMEN AND GIRLS** EMPLOYED AT VARIOUS RATES OF WAGES AT OCTOBER, 1886, IN THE UNDER-MENTIONED INDUSTRIES.
[BASED ON THE CENSUS OF WAGES OF 1886.]

A.—WOMEN.

	Under 10s.	Of 10s. and under 15s.	Of 15s. and under 20s.	Of 20s. and under 25s.	Of 25s. and under 30s.	Total.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Cotton Manufacture - - - - -	1·2	49·7	35·9	12·9	0·3	100·0
Woollen " - - - - -	8·2	67·2	24·5	0·1	—	100·0
Worsted and Stuff Manufacture - - - - -	24·2	75·1	0·7	—	—	100·0
Linen Manufacture - - - - -	78·0	21·4	0·6	—	—	100·0
Jute " - - - - -	73·5	26·5	—	—	—	100·0
Hemp, &c. " - - - - -	50·6	48·9	0·5	—	—	100·0
Silk " - - - - -	54·9	42·2	2·9	—	—	100·0
Carpet " - - - - -	18·1	75·2	6·7	—	—	100·0
Hosiery " - - - - -	25·4	61·9	12·7	—	—	100·0
Lace " - - - - -	19·3	64·2	16·5	—	—	100·0
Smallwares - - - - -	24·1	75·8	0·1	—	—	100·0
Flock and Shoddy Manufacture - - - - -	59·7	40·3	—	—	—	100·0
Coal, Iron Ore, and Ironstone Mines - - - - -	98·9	1·1	—	—	—	100·0
Metalliferous Mines - - - - -	100·0	—	—	—	—	100·0
China, Clay, &c., Works - - - - -	100·0	—	—	—	—	100·0
Roads, Pavements, and Sewers - - - - -	100·0	—	—	—	—	100·0
Tin Plate Works - - - - -	39·8	60·2	—	—	—	100·0
Brass Works and Metal Wares - - - - -	34·5	37·3	10·0	16·4	1·8	100·0
Boot and Shoe Making* - - - - -	18·9	54·7	24·5	1·5	0·4	100·0
Distilleries - - - - -	18·2	81·8	—	—	—	100·0
Brick and Tile, &c., Making - - - - -	63·9	26·9	9·2	—	—	100·0
Chemical Manure Works - - - - -	87·9	12·1	—	—	—	100·0
Railway Carriage and Wagon Building - - - - -	—	66·7	33·3	—	—	100·0
Mean of Percentages - - - - -	47·8	43·0	7·7	1·4	0·1	100·0

B.—GIRLS.

	Half- timers.	Under 10s.	Of 10s. and under 15s.	Of 15s. and under 20s.	Of 20s. and under 25s.	Total.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Cotton Manufacture - - - - -	31·9	49·3	15·8	3·0	—	100·0
Woollen " - - - - -	9·7	73·3	17·0	—	—	100·0
Worsted and Stuff Manufacture - - - - -	36·9	63·1	—	—	—	100·0
Linen Manufacture - - - - -	19·0	81·0	—	—	—	100·0
Jute " - - - - -	41·8	58·2	—	—	—	100·0
Hemp, &c. " - - - - -	19·7	80·3	—	—	—	100·0
Silk " - - - - -	18·9	81·1	—	—	—	100·0
Carpet " - - - - -	7·2	92·8	—	—	—	100·0
Hosiery " - - - - -	—	77·3	22·7	—	—	100·0
Lace " - - - - -	3·3	96·7	—	—	—	100·0
Smallwares - - - - -	9·8	90·2	—	—	—	100·0
Flock and Shoddy Manufacture - - - - -	—	100·0	—	—	—	100·0
Coal, Iron Ore, and Ironstone Mines - - - - -	—	100·0	—	—	—	100·0
Metalliferous Mines - - - - -	—	100·0	—	—	—	100·0
Tin Plate Works - - - - -	—	100·0	—	—	—	100·0
Brass Works and Metal Wares - - - - -	—	90·2	9·8	—	—	100·0
Boot and Shoe Making* - - - - -	—	95·8	3·9	0·3	—	100·0
Brick and Tile, &c., Making - - - - -	—	80·4	19·6	—	—	100·0
Railway Carriage and Wagon Building - - - - -	—	100·0	—	—	—	100·0
Mean of Percentages - - - - -	10·4	84·7	4·7	0·2	—	100·0

* Factory workers only.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

TABLE B—(continued.)

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF PERSONS EMPLOYED AT VARIOUS RATES OF WAGES.

SUMMARY of preceding Tables.

	Half-timers	Under 10s.	Of 10s. and under 15s.	Of 15s. and under 20s.	Of 20s. and under 25s.	Of 25s. and under 30s.	Of 30s. and under 35s.	Of 35s. and under 40s.	Above 40s.	Total.	Average Rate of Wages.*
MEN.											
Total numbers - - -	—	498	8,456	76,392	119,402	86,137	41,121	15,120	8,712	355,838	24s. 9d.
Proportions of total numbers paid at different rates :—	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	
Mean of percentages given in Table No. 1.	—	0·1	3·9	25·7	30·3	20·5	11·4	4·8	3·3	100·0	24s. 5d.
Percentage of aggregate numbers dealt with.	—	0·1	2·4	21·5	33·6	24·2	11·6	4·2	2·4	100·0	24s. 9d.
LADS AND BOYS.											
Total Numbers - - -	9,581	39,861	26,059	4,655	97	—	—	—	—	80,253	9s. 2d.
Proportions of total numbers paid at different rates :—	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	
Mean of percentages given in Table No. 2	4·1	59·8	30·8	5·2	0·1	—	—	—	—	100·0	9s. 5d.
Percentage of aggregate numbers dealt with.	11·9	49·7	32·5	5·8	0·1	—	—	—	—	100·0	9s. 2d.
WOMEN.											
Total Numbers - - -	—	39,235	75,646	27,969	8,215	198	—	—	—	151,263	12s. 11d.
Proportions of total numbers paid at different rates :—	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	
Mean of percentages given in Table No. 3.	—	47·8	43·0	7·7	1·4	0·1	—	—	—	100·0	11s. 1d.
Percentage of aggregate numbers dealt with.	—	26·0	50·0	18·5	5·4	0·1	—	—	—	100·0	12s. 11d.
GIRLS.											
Total Numbers - - -	13,238	30,500	4,321	698	15	—	—	—	—	48,772	6s. 5d.
Proportions of total numbers paid at different rates :—	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	
Mean of percentages given in Table No. 4.	10·4	84·7	4·7	0·2	—	—	—	—	—	100·0	6s. 9d.
Percentage of aggregate numbers dealt with.	27·2	62·5	8·9	1·4	—	—	—	—	—	100·0	6s. 5d.

* These rates are based on the figures in the preceding columns, the mean rate in each group being taken for the purpose of the calculation. In the case of Men, the group under 10s. has been taken at 8s. 7d., and that above 40s. at 45s. 1d. For Women, the group under 10s. has been taken at 8s. 5d., and that above 25s. at 26s. 3d. The group under 10s. has been taken at 7s. 6d. for Lads and Boys, and at 6s. 11d. for Girls. Half-timers have been taken at 2s. 11d. for Boys and at 2s. 8d. for Girls.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

TABLE C.—COURSE OF MONEY WAGES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM FOR CERTAIN SPECIFIED TRADES.

CARPENTERS, 1872–1908.

HOURLY RATES of WAGES of CARPENTERS in the under-mentioned TOWNS as RECOGNISED by TRADE UNIONS.

Year (at 1st January).	London.	Manchester.	Birmi'ham.	Newcastle.	Belfast.	Glasgow.
	d.	d.	d.	d.	d.	d.
1872 - - - - -	8	7 $\frac{1}{4}$	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	6 $\frac{3}{4}$	5s. per day	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
1873 - - - - -	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{4}$	7	6 $\frac{3}{4}$	7
1874 - - - - -	9	8	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	7	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
1875 - - - - -	9	8	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	7	8
1876 - - - - -	9	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	7	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
1877 - - - - -	9	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	8	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	9
1878 - - - - -	9	9	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	9
1879 - - - - -	9	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	9
1880 - - - - -	9	8	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	7
1881 - - - - -	9	8	7 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{4}$	6 $\frac{3}{4}$	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
1882 - - - - -	9	8	7 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{4}$	6 $\frac{3}{4}$	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
1883 - - - - -	9	8	7 $\frac{3}{4}$	8	7 $\frac{1}{4}$	7
1884 - - - - -	9	8	8	8	7	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
1885 - - - - -	9	8	8	8	7	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
1886 - - - - -	9	8	8	8	7	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
1887 - - - - -	9	8	8	8	7	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
1888 - - - - -	9	8	8	8	7	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
1889 - - - - -	9	8	8	8	7	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
1890 - - - - -	9	8	8	8	7	8
1891 - - - - -	9	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	8
1892 - - - - -	9	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
1893 - - - - -	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{3}{4}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
1894 - - - - -	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	9	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{3}{4}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
1895 - - - - -	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	9	9	7 $\frac{3}{4}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
1896 - - - - -	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9	9	9	7 $\frac{3}{4}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
1897 - - - - -	10	9	9	9	7 $\frac{3}{4}$	9
1898 - - - - -	10	9	9	9	8 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$
1899 - - - - -	10	9	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$
1900 - - - - -	10	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	10	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	10
1901 - - - - -	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	10	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	10
1902 - - - - -	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	10	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	10
1903 - - - - -	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	10	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	10
1904 - - - - -	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	10	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	10
1905 - - - - -	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	10	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	10
1906 - - - - -	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$
1907 - - - - -	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$
1908 - - - - -	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$

BRICKLAYERS' LABOURERS, 1883–1908.

HOURLY RATES of WAGES of BRICKLAYERS' LABOURERS in the under-mentioned TOWNS.

(Extracted from the Master Builders' Association Statements of Rates of Wages.)

Year (at 1st January).	London.	Manchester.	Birmingham.	Glasgow.*
	d.	d.	d.	d.
1883 - - - - -	6	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	5	5
1884 - - - - -	6	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	5	5
1885 - - - - -	6	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	5	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
1886 - - - - -	6	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	5	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
1887 - - - - -	5 $\frac{3}{4}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	5	4 $\frac{1}{2}$ 4 $\frac{3}{4}$
1888 - - - - -	5 $\frac{3}{4}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	5	4 $\frac{1}{2}$ 4 $\frac{3}{4}$
1889 - - - - -	5 $\frac{3}{4}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	5	4 $\frac{1}{2}$ 4 $\frac{3}{4}$
1890 - - - - -	6	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	5
1891 - - - - -	6	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	5
1892 - - - - -	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
1893 - - - - -	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	6	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
1894 - - - - -	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	6	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
1895 - - - - -	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	6	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
1896 - - - - -	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	6	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
1897 - - - - -	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	6	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
1898 - - - - -	7	6	6	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
1899 - - - - -	7	6	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
1900 - - - - -	7	6	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
1901 - - - - -	7	6	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
1902 - - - - -	7	6	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
1903 - - - - -	7	6	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
1904 - - - - -	7	6	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
1905 - - - - -	7	6	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
1906 - - - - -	7	6	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
1907 - - - - -	7	6	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
1908 - - - - -	7	6	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$

* The rates given for Glasgow are for masons' labourers.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

TABLE C—(continued).

COAL HEWERS, 1872-1908.

RATES of WAGES of COAL HEWERS in the under-mentioned DISTRICTS.

(The Rates given are the Nominal Daily Rates, not the Actual Earnings.)

Year (at 1st January).	Northumberland (Steam Coal Pits) Per Day (6 hours)	Durham Per Day (6 hours).	S. Staffordshire and E. Worcester- shire (Thick Coal) Per Day.	W. Scotland Per Day.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
1872 - - - - -	6 1	—	5 0	—
1873 - - - - -	8 0½	6 6½	5 0	—
1874 - - - - -	9 1½	7 6½	5 6	—
1875 - - - - -	7 8	6 2¼	4 0	—
1876 - - - - -	7 0½	5 10½	4 0	—
1877 - - - - -	6 1	5 0¾	3 6	—
1878 - - - - -	5 3·88	4 8¼	3 0	—
1879 - - - - -	4 9·50	4 8¼	3 0	3 6
1880 - - - - -	4 9·50	4 2	3 3	4 9
1881 - - - - -	4 9·50	4 3¼	3 0	4 3
1882 - - - - -	4 9·50	4 3¼	3 3	4 3
1883 - - - - -	4 9·50	4 5	3 8	4 9
1884 - - - - -	5 0·37	4 6½	3 8	5 3
1885 - - - - -	4 11·65	4 5¾	3 4	4 3
1886 - - - - -	4 10·22	4 5	3 4	4 3
1887 - - - - -	4 9·50	4 4¼	3 4	3 9
1888 - - - - -	4 2·31	4 4¼	3 4	3 11
1889 - - - - -	4 5·19	4 4¼	3 8	4 4
1890 - - - - -	5 9	5 5	4 4	6 0
1891 - - - - -	6 3·47	5 8	4 8	6 0
1892 - - - - -	6 2·75	5 11	4 8	6 0
1893 - - - - -	5 9	5 5	4 8	5 0
1894 - - - - -	5 9	5 5	4 8	6 0
1895 - - - - -	5 7·56	5 5	4 4	5 0
1896 - - - - -	5 1·81	4 11	4 4	4 6
1897 - - - - -	4 11·65	4 11	4 4	4 6
1898 - - - - -	5 1·09	5 0	4 4	4 6
1899 - - - - -	5 8·28	5 5	4 5	6 0
1900 - - - - -	5 11·87	5 10¼	4 8	6 3
1901 - - - - -	7 8·84	7 5	5 0	8 0
1902 - - - - -	6 7·78	6 2	5 4	6 0
1903 - - - - -	6 0·59	5 10¼	5 0	5 9
1904 - - - - -	5 11·16	5 9½	4 10	5 6
1905 - - - - -	5 8·28	5 6½	4 8	5 6
1906 - - - - -	5 6·13	5 6½	4 8	5 6
1907 - - - - -	5 11·16	5 9½	4 8	5 9
1908 - - - - -	7 0·82	6 10¼	5 2	7 6

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).*

TABLE C—(continued.)

FITTERS, 1851-1908.

WEEKLY RATES of WAGES of FITTERS as RECOGNISED in the under-mentioned TOWNS by TRADE UNIONS.

Year (At 1st January).	London.	Manchester.	Birmingham.	Newcastle.	Glasgow.
	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>
1851 to 1861 - -	34 0	—	—	—	—
1862 to 1865 - -	35 0	—	—	—	—
1866 to 1874 - -	36 0	—	—	—	—
1875 - - - -	36 0	34 0	32 0	31 0	27 0
1876 - - - -	36 0	34 0	32 0	31 0	27 0
1877 - - - -	36 0	34 0	32 0	30 0	27 0
1878 - - - -	36 0	34 0	32 0	30 0	27 0
1879 - - - -	36 0	34 0	32 0	29 0	27 0
1880 - - - -	36 0	32 0	32 0	28 0	27 0
1881 - - - -	36 0	32 0	32 0	29 0	27 0
1882 - - - -	36 0	34 0	32 0	29 9	28 1½
1883 - - - -	38 0	34 0	32 0	30 0	28 1½
1884 - - - -	38 0	34 0	32 0	32 0	28 1½
1885 - - - -	38 0	34 0	32 0	32 0	28 1½
1886 - - - -	38 0	34 0	32 0	32 0	28 1½
1887 - - - -	38 0	32 0	32 0	30 0	29 3
1888 - - - -	38 0	32 0	32 0	30 0	29 3
1889 - - - -	38 0	34 0	32 0	33 6	29 3
1890 - - - -	38 0	34 0	32 0	34 0	30 4½
1891 - - - -	38 0	34 0	32 0	34 0	30 4½
1892 - - - -	38 0	34 0	34 0	35 0	30 4½
1893 - - - -	38 0	34 0	34 0	35 0	30 4½
1894 - - - -	38 0	34 0	34 0	31 6	30 4½
1895 - - - -	38 0	34 0	34 0	31 6	30 4½
1896 - - - -	38 0	34 0	34 0	31 6	30 4½
1897 - - - -	38 0	36 0	34 0	33 6	33 9
1898 - - - -	38 0	36 0	34 0	35 0	34 10½
1899 - - - -	38 0	36 0	36 0	36 0	36 0
1900 - - - -	38 0	36 0	36 0	36 0	36 0
1901 - - - -	38 0	36 0	36 0	36 0	36 0
1902 - - - -	39 0	36 0	36 0	36 0	36 0
1903 - - - -	39 0	36 0	36 0	36 0	36 0
1904 - - - -	39 0	36 0	36 0	35 0	35 0
1905 - - - -	39 0	36 0	36 0	35 0	35 0
1906 - - - -	39 0	36 0	36 0	35 0	36 0
1907 - - - -	40 0	37 0	36 0	36 0	36 0
1908 - - - -	40 0	38 0	37 0	36 0	36 0

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

TABLE C—(continued).

IRON FOUNDERS, 1874–1908.

WEEKLY RATES of WAGES of IRON FOUNDERS as RECOGNISED in the under-mentioned TOWNS
by TRADE UNIONS.

Year (at 1st January).	London.	Manchester.	Birmingham.	Belfast.
	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>
1874	38 0	38 0	36 0	31 0
1875	38 0	38 0	36 0	34 0
1876	38 0	38 0	36 0	34 0
1877	38 0	38 0	36 0	34 0
1878	38 0	38 0	36 0	34 0
1879	38 0	36 0	36 0	34 0
1880	38 0	36 0	36 0	31 0
1881	38 0	36 0	36 0	31 0
1882	38 0	38 0	36 0	34 0
1883	38 0	38 0	36 0	34 0
1884	38 0	38 0	36 0	33 0
1885	38 0	38 0	36 0	32 0
1886	38 0	36 0	36 0	31 0
1887	38 0	36 0	36 0	31 0
1888	38 0	38 0	36 0	31 0
1889	38 0	38 0	36 0	34 0
1890	38 0	38 0	36 0	34 0
1891	38 0	38 0	36 0	34 0
1892	38 0	38 0	36 0	34 0
1893	38 0	38 0	36 0	33 0
1894	38 0	38 0	36 0	32 0
1895	38 0	38 0	36 0	32 0
	<i>s. s.</i>			
1896	38 to 40	38 0	36 0	32 0
			<i>s. s.</i>	<i>s. s.</i>
1897	40 to 42	39 0	36 to 38	36 to 38
1898	40 to 42	40 0	38 to 40	37 to 39
1899	40 to 42	40 0	38 to 40	38 to 40
1900	40 to 42	40 0	38 to 40	38 to 40
1901	40 to 42	40 0	38 to 40	38 to 40
1902	40 to 42	40 0	38 to 40	38 to 40
1903	40 to 42	40 0	38 to 40	38 to 40
1904	40 to 42	40 0	38 to 40	38 to 40
1905	40 to 42	40 0	38 to 40	38 to 40
1906	40 to 42	40 0	38 to 40	38 to 40
1907	40 to 42	41 0	38 to 40	38 to 40
1908	41 to 43	42 0	38 to 40	39 to 41

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).*

TABLE C—(continued).

COMPOSITORS, 1848-1908.

WEEKLY RATES of WAGES of COMPOSITORS as RECOGNISED in the under-mentioned TOWNS by
TRADE UNIONS.

Year (At 1st January).	London.		Manchester.		Birmingham.		Newcastle.		Belfast.		Glasgow.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
1848 to 1871	33	0	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1872 to 1879	36	0	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1880	36	0	35	0	30	0	32	0	30	0	32	6
1881	36	0	35	0	30	0	32	0	30	0	32	6
1882	36	0	35	0	30	0	32	0	30	0	32	6
1883	36	0	35	0	30	0	32	0	30	0	32	6
1884	36	0	35	0	30	0	32	0	30	0	32	6
1885	36	0	35	0	30	0	32	0	30	0	32	6
1886	36	0	35	0	30	0	32	0	30	0	32	6
1887	36	0	35	0	30	0	32	0	30	0	32	6
1888	36	0	35	0	30	0	32	0	30	0	32	6
1889	36	0	35	0	30	0	32	0	30	0	32	6
1890	36	0	35	0	30	0	32	0	30	0	32	6
1891	38	0	35	0	33	0	33	6	32	6	32	6
1892	38	0	35	0	33	0	33	6	32	6	34	0
1893	38	0	35	0	33	0	33	6	32	6	34	0
1894	38	0	35	0	33	0	33	6	32	6	34	0
1895	38	0	35	0	33	0	33	6	32	6	34	0
1896	38	0	35	0	33	0	33	6	32	6	34	0
1897	38	0	35	0	33	0	33	6	32	6	34	0
1898	38	0	35	0	33	0	33	6	32	6	34	0
1899	38	0	35	0	34	6	33	6	32	6	34	0
1900	38	0	35	0	34	6	33	6	32	6	34	0
1901	38	0	35	0	34	6	35	0	32	6	34	0
1902	39	0	35	0	34	6	35	0	34	0	34	0
1903	39	0	35	0	34	6	35	0	34	0	34	0
1904	39	0	35	0	34	6	35	0	34	0	34	0
1905	39	0	35	0	34	6	35	0	34	0	34	0
1906	39	0	35	0	34	6	35	0	34	0	34	0
1907	39	0	35	0	34	6	35	0	34	0	34	0
1908	39	0	36	6	36	0	35	0	35	0	35	6

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

TABLE C—(continued).

WAGES OF COTTON OPERATIVES.

[The Statement shows the percentage that wages were above (+) or below (−) List Prices at the end of each year.]

END OF YEAR.	COTTON SPINNING.		COTTON WEAVING.
	Bolton List.	Oldham List.	Blackburn and Uniform Lists.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
1853	No list.		Blackburn list adopted + 10
1854			List prices
1855			List prices
1856			List prices
1857			List prices
1858	List adopted	No List.	List prices
1859	List prices		List prices
1860	+ 5		+ 5
1861	List prices		List prices
1862	List prices		List prices
1863	List prices		List prices
1864	List prices		List prices
1865	List prices		List prices
1866	+ 5		List prices
1867	List prices		List revised
1868	List prices		List prices
1869	− 5		− 5
1870	− 5		List prices
1871	List prices		List prices
1872	+ 5		List prices
1873	+ 5		List prices
1874	List prices		List prices
1875	+ 5		List prices
1876	+ 5	List adopted	List prices
1877	List prices	− 5	List prices
1878	List prices	− 15	− 10
1879	− 10	− 20	− 15
1880	− 5	− 15	− 15
1881	− 5	− 10	− 10
1882	− 5	− 10	− 10
1883	− 5	− 10	− 15
1884	− 5	− 10	− 10
1885	− 10	− 15	10
1886	− 10	− 15	10
1887	− 10	− 15	− 10
1888	− 5	− 10	− 10
1889	− 5	− 10	− 10
1890	List prices	− 10	− 10
1891	List prices	− 5	− 10
1892	List prices	− 5	Uniform list adopted − 10
1893	List prices	− 7·91	
1894	List prices	− 7·91	
1895	List prices	− 7·91	
1896	List prices	− 7·91	
1897	List prices	− 7·91	
1898	List prices	− 7·91	
1899	List prices	− 5	
1900–1904	+ 5	List prices	
1905	+ 5	List prices	
1906	+ 5	+ 5	
1907	+ 10	+ 10	List prices

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E.)—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

TABLE C.—(continued).

PERCENTAGE CHANGES IN RATES OF WAGES IN THE FLAX AND JUTE TRADES
IN DUNDEE.

Date of Change.	Amount of Change.		Date of Change.	Amount of Change.	
	Increases.	Decreases.		Increases.	Decreases.
1871.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	1885.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.
February - - -	5	—	March - - -	—	5
September - - -	5	—	September - - -	—	2½ to 5
1872.			1886.		
January - - -	5	—	June - - -	—	5
March - - -	5	—			
1873.			1887.		
July - - -	5	—	January - - -	5	—
1875.			1888.		
May - - -	—	10	September - - -	5	—
July - - -	—	5	December - - -	5	—
November - - -	5	—	1889.		
			September - - -	5	—
1877.			1890.		
August - - -	—	5	February - - -	5†	—
1878.			1892.		
November - - -	—	5	May - - -	—	5
1879.			1899.		
February - - -	—	5	December - - -	5	—
December - - -	5	—	1900-1905.	No general changes.	
1883.*			1906.		
January - - -	5	—	March - - -	5§	—
August - - -	5	—	1907.		
1884.			February - - -	5	—
March - - -	—	5			
July - - -	—	5			
November - - -	—	5†			

* In September, 1882, mechanics' wages were advanced 5 per cent., but no alteration was made in the wages of other workpeople.

† This reduction affected the wages of piece-workers and mechanics only; the mill hands on set wages were not reduced.

‡ This advance was to the spinning mill workers, including reelers and winders, and did not affect weaving factory workers and mechanics.

§ This advance affected the wages of jute spinners and preparers only.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (E).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

TABLE C—(continued).

SEAMEN, 1870-1906.

PREDOMINANT MONTHLY RATES of WAGES of ABLE SEAMEN on STEAMSHIPS sailing from under-mentioned PORTS.

Voyage.	1870.	1880.	1890.	1900.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
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I.—LIVERPOOL.

	s.	s.	s.	s.	s.	s.	s.	s.	s.
North America : East Coast.	80	70 to 80	90	80 and 90	80 and 90	80 and 90	80 and 90	80 and 90	80 and 90
South America and West Indies.	60	55 to 60	80	70	70 and 80	70	70	70	70
East Indies and China.	55	55	80	80	80	80	80	80	80
Mediterranean -	60	55	80	70	70	70	70	70	70

II.—LONDON.

	s.	s.	s.	s.	s.	s.	s.	s.	s.
North America : East Coast.	70 to 80	65 to 70	90	90	90	90	90	90	90
South America and West Indies.	60 to 65	65	80 to 85	80	80	80	80	80	80
Australia and New Zealand.	50	60 to 65	80	80	80	80	80	80	80
East Indies and China.	60 to 65	60 to 65	80 to 85	80	80	80 and 85	80 and 85	80 and 85	80 and 85
Mediterranean -	60 to 70	65 to 75	80 to 90	80 and 85	80 and 85	80 and 85	80 and 85	80 and 85	80 and 85

III.—GLASGOW.

	s.	s.	s. d.	s.	s.	s.	s.	s.	s.
North America : East Coast.	80	70	92 6	80	80	80	80	80	80
Mediterranean -	65	60 to 70	80 0	80	80	80	80	80	80

APPENDIX No. XXI. (F).

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

EMIGRATION FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM, 1887-1906.

In considering the subject of emigration from the United Kingdom, it is necessary to bear in mind that no accurate information is available in Great Britain* as to the number of *emigrants*, properly so called, *i.e.*, persons of British origin leaving the country to settle abroad. The annual "Emigration" Reports published by the Board of Trade deal solely with the *movement of passengers* into and from the United Kingdom. They are based on the passenger lists returned by shipping companies under Sections 311 and 336 of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1894, which do not require any statement as to the passenger's intention to settle abroad or otherwise, but only his name, sex, age, nationality, conjugal condition, and occupation, the number of his ticket, and the port of his embarkation and debarkation.

The following Table summarises the passenger movement, inward and outward, between the United Kingdom and countries out of Europe :—

Year.	Outward.			Inward.			Balance Outward.		
	British and Irish.	Foreigners.	Total.†	British and Irish.	Foreigners.	Total.†	British and Irish.	Foreigners.	Total.†
1887	281,487	108,572	396,494	85,475	32,008	119,013	196,012	76,564	277,481
1888	279,928	113,230	398,494	94,133	33,895	128,879	185,795	79,335	269,615
1889	253,795	83,466	342,641	103,070	43,122	147,398	150,725	40,344	195,243
1890	218,116	94,515	315,980	109,470	44,663	155,910	108,646	49,852	160,070
1891	218,507	112,275	334,543	103,037	47,197	151,369	115,470	65,078	183,174
1892	210,042	107,351	321,397	97,780	44,673	143,747	112,262	62,678	177,650
1893	208,814	95,123	307,633	102,119	37,634	141,054	106,695	57,489	166,579
1894	156,030	67,032	226,827	118,309	66,129	185,799	37,721	903	41,028
1895	185,181	82,818	271,772	109,418	64,803	175,674	75,763	18,015	96,098
1896	161,925	76,015	241,952	101,742	56,509	159,913	60,183	19,506	82,039
1897	146,460	62,932	213,280	95,221	57,994	155,114	51,239	4,938	58,166
1898	140,644	60,551	205,171	91,248	46,362	139,346	49,396	14,189	65,825
1899	146,362	90,020	240,696	100,246	59,576	162,111	46,116	30,444	78,585
1900	168,825	124,722	298,561	97,637	74,681	175,747	71,188	50,041	122,814
1901	171,715	124,354	302,575	99,699	60,736	165,018	72,016	63,618	137,557
1902	205,662	174,291	386,779	104,115	62,159	170,874	101,547	112,132	215,905
1903	259,950	181,539	449,006	112,914	82,390	199,685	147,036	99,149	249,321
1904	271,435	174,354	453,877	144,581	92,172	241,896	126,854	82,182	211,981
1905	262,077	188,422	459,662	122,712	77,908	205,193	139,365	110,514	254,469
1906	325,137	229,142	557,737	130,466	95,264	230,165	194,671	133,878	327,572

It will be evident that, if we may assume that the number of passengers travelling on business or for pleasure, and not with the intention of settling abroad, is approximately the same in each direction, the "balance outward," or excess of out-going over in-coming passengers, may be taken as roughly representing the number of actual *emigrants*. Using "emigrants," then, in the sense of the "balance outward" of passengers, we find the emigration from this country to consist of two main streams :—(i) the British and Irish emigrants, and (ii) foreign emigrants. Taking first the foreign emigrants, we notice that their numbers during the last twenty years have varied enormously, from less than

* Ireland has an entirely separate set of emigration statistics, in addition to the Board of Trade statistics which relate to the United Kingdom as a whole. These separate Irish statistics show the number of passengers leaving Irish ports (including a small number going to England or Scotland), and declaring their intention of settling abroad.

† Including passengers whose nationality was not distinguished.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (F).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

1,000 in 1894 to over 100,000 in each of the years 1902, 1905 and 1906. In one year (1902) they actually exceeded the British and Irish emigrants in number. For the first twelve years of the period under review they rarely numbered one half of the native emigrants, but from 1899 onwards they have increased largely both in numbers and in proportion to the native emigrants. These foreign emigrants are mostly transmigrants; many of them being Norwegians, Swedes, and Finns, who enter the country at Hull, and cross to Liverpool, whence they re-embark immediately to the United States or Canada. Thus these foreign emigrants hardly concern this country at all as a social problem; they are only important as a valuable source of income to our shipping companies.

We may now turn to the emigrants of British and Irish origin—using the word “emigrants,” as before, in the sense of the excess of out-going over in-coming passengers. It will be seen that the number of British and Irish emigrants has risen almost continuously from 38,000 in 1894 (the minimum during the twenty years under consideration) to 195,000 in 1906. The years 1887–9 and 1903–5 were also years of high emigration, the total for 1887 exceeding even the high figure attained in 1906; while the other years mentioned show totals varying from 127,000 to 186,000. The entire period from 1894 to 1901, on the other hand, was a period of low emigration, the balance outwards never exceeding 76,000. The following Table shows the distribution of these emigrants, by countries of destination:—

BRITISH AND IRISH EMIGRANTS (BALANCE OUTWARD OF BRITISH AND IRISH PASSENGERS).

YEAR.	To British North America.	To Australia and New Zealand.	To Cape Colony and Natal	To Other British Possessions. *	Total to British Posses- sions. *	To United States.	To Other Foreign Countries	Total to Foreign Countries. *	TOTAL to all Countries
1887	25,177	23,925	1,823	1,904	52,829	143,183	—	143,183	196,012
1888	26,036	20,740	2,985	4,079	53,840	131,955	—	131,955	185,795
1889	19,627	17,856	9,015	6,848	53,346	97,379	—	97,379	150,725
1890	12,995	10,956	3,814	3,208	30,973	77,673	—	77,673	108,646
1891	12,578	9,835	3,337	2,133	27,883	87,587	—	87,587	115,470
1892	13,944	5,344	3,744	1,889	24,921	87,341	—	87,341	112,262
1893	15,573	1,005	6,606	1,990	25,174	81,521	—	81,521	106,695
1894	7,203	1,811	6,311	2,074	17,399	20,478	156†	20,322	37,721
1895	5,951	959	11,930	1,028	19,868	55,443	452	55,895	75,763
1896	5,728	1,006	10,433	2,323	19,490	39,709	984	40,693	60,183
1897	5,631	4,556	6,158	2,627	18,972	31,689	578	32,267	51,239
1898	7,846	3,633	5,664	2,541	19,684	29,766	54†	29,712	49,396
1899	8,015	3,889	6,189†	1,602	7,317	38,839	40†	38,799	46,116
1900	7,803	6,259	7,417	1,959	23,438	47,978	228†	47,750	71,188
1901	7,121	6,570	8,937	2,611	25,239	45,883	894	46,777	72,016
1902	14,730	4,366	28,044	2,552	49,692	51,617	238	51,855	101,547
1903	45,866	3,693	28,017	3,460	81,036	65,392	608	66,000	147,036
1904	51,284	5,240	833†	3,848	59,539	66,790	525	67,315	126,854
1905	62,503	7,251	3,221	4,084	77,059	60,997	1,309	62,306	139,365
1906	91,263	9,920	3,160†	7,155	105,178	85,941	3,552	89,493	194,671

The outstanding features of this Table are the rapid increase in emigration to Canada during the last few years, and the comparative decline in emigration to Australia and New Zealand, and to the United States, as compared with Canada. The decline in emigration to Australia and New Zealand, indeed, becomes even more remarkable if the table be carried back a few more years. Thus, in 1883 the number of emigrants to Australia

* The figures given under these headings are exact for the years 1894 to 1906, but are only approximately correct as regards the earlier years, being based on the assumption that the outward balance of passengers to “All other places out of Europe” was entirely accounted for by places within the British Empire. As regards this assumption, it is to be noted that the great bulk of the balance is accounted for by the British East Indies.

† Balance *inwards*.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (F).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

and New Zealand was no less than 64,000, as compared with only 37,000 to Canada ; and emigration to Australia and New Zealand exceeded 30,000 in each of the years 1882-6. Emigration to the United States reached its maximum in the years 1881-3, with an average of nearly 150,000, as compared with an average of 30,000 to Canada ; whereas in 1905-6 the number of emigrants to Canada actually exceeded the number to the United States.

It should be mentioned, however, that the "destinations" of passengers relate solely to the ports at which they disembark, and not necessarily to the actual country of final destination. Thus it is known, from returns voluntarily furnished by the shipping companies, that 1,903 British and 8,924 foreign passengers who contracted to land at Canadian ports in 1906 were intending to proceed to the United States ; and that 3,945 British and 1,925 foreign passengers who contracted to land in the United States were proceeding to Canada. These voluntary returns cannot be regarded as affording an exhaustive account of such indirect emigration ; but, so far as they go, they suggest that the number of British and Irish passengers to Canada may be somewhat greater than that shown in the table, and the number to the United States somewhat less.

The following Table shows separately the number of English, Scottish, and Irish emigrants (*i.e.*, "balance outward" of passengers), respectively, from the year 1895 onwards, that being the first year for which the particulars can be given :—

Year.	Nationality.	To United States.	To British North America.	To Australia and New Zealand.	To Cape Colony and Natal.	To other countries.	TOTAL to all countries.
1895	English	23,800	5,466	1,366	10,877	1,785	43,294
	Scotch	3,616	270	463*	1,033	227*	4,229
	Irish	28,027	215	56	20	78*	28,240
1896	English	15,868	4,639	1,616	8,833	3,682	34,638
	Scotch	2,836	679	521*	1,289	184*	4,099
	Irish	21,005	410	89*	311	191*	21,446
1897	English	12,681	4,949	4,026	3,642	3,430	28,728
	Scotch	2,437	407	325	1,830	57*	4,942
	Irish	16,571	275	205	686	168*	17,569
1898	English	13,815	6,763	2,970	2,936	1,928	28,412
	Scotch	1,427	734	269	1,938	530	4,898
	Irish	14,524	349	394	790	29	16,086
1899	English	15,071	6,792	2,587	7,306*	532	17,676
	Scotch	1,967	888	415	618	689	4,577
	Irish	21,801	335	887	499	341	23,863
1900	English	18,216	7,220	5,005	4,359	1,293	36,093
	Scotch	5,272	473	420	2,438	266	8,869
	Irish	24,490	110	834	620	172	26,226
1901	English	22,790	5,185	4,982	6,143	3,669	42,769
	Scotch	4,564	1,111	838	2,417	40	8,970
	Irish	18,529	825	750	377	204*	20,277
1902	English	25,903	11,248	2,832	21,982	2,696	64,661
	Scotch	5,808	2,549	849	5,250	227	14,683
	Irish	19,906	933	685	812	133*	22,203
1903	English	35,281	35,257	2,568	21,912	3,819	98,837
	Scotch	8,330	8,647	654	4,938	272	22,841
	Irish	21,781	1,962	471	1,167	23*	25,358
1904	English	32,268	39,051	4,063	1,266*	4,326	78,442
	Scotch	8,093	10,194	701	495	56	19,539
	Irish	26,429	2,039	476	62*	9*	28,873
1905	English	23,410	49,077	5,952	2,031	5,419	85,889
	Scotch	12,230	11,243	908	1,072	28*	25,425
	Irish	25,357	2,183	391	118	2	28,051
1906	English	42,862	69,677	8,308	1,802*	10,047	129,092
	Scotch	15,104	18,428	1,227	1,014*	643	34,388
	Irish	27,975	3,158	385	344*	17	31,191

* Balance inwards.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (F).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

The number of English emigrants has fluctuated between 17,700 and 129,100 during the twelve years shown in the table, and the number of Scottish emigrants between 4,100 and 34,400, while the number of Irish emigrants has only fluctuated between 16,100 and 31,200. Irish emigration is directed almost exclusively to the United States; there has indeed been a certain increase in the Irish emigration to Canada during the last four years, but it is still less than one-eighth of the emigration to the United States. In the case of English and Scottish emigrants, on the other hand, the number emigrating to Canada, which was 23 per cent. of the number emigrating to the United States in 1901, rose to 44½ per cent. in 1902, 101 per cent. in 1903, 82 per cent. in 1904, 169 per cent. in 1905, and 152 per cent. in 1906. Other peculiarities of Irish emigration are that the number of females in most years exceeds the number of males (in the last twelve years the number of males was greater than the number of females in 1905 and 1906 only); and that the proportion of children among the Irish emigrants is abnormally low. These facts are illustrated by the following Table:—

Year.	Nationality.	ADULTS.			Children.	Proportion of Children to Total.
		Males.	Females.	Proportion of Females to Males.		
				Per cent.		Per cent.
1895	English - - -	24,927	14,217	57.0	4,150	9.6
	Scotch - - -	1,878	1,994	106.2	357	8.4
	Irish - - -	10,806	16,325	151.1	1,109	3.9
1896	English - - -	21,608	11,054	51.2	1,976	5.7
	Scotch - - -	2,154	1,615	75.0	330	8.1
	Irish - - -	8,852	11,869	134.1	725	3.4
1897	English - - -	16,817	10,695	63.6	1,216	4.2
	Scotch - - -	2,680	2,128	79.4	134	2.7
	Irish - - -	6,596	10,499	159.2	474	2.7
1898	English - - -	16,947	9,870	58.2	1,595	5.6
	Scotch - - -	2,852	1,896	66.5	150	3.1
	Irish - - -	6,240	9,507	152.4	339	2.1
1899	English - - -	9,686	7,519	77.6	471	2.7
	Scotch - - -	2,045	2,094	102.4	438	9.6
	Irish - - -	10,073	13,072	129.8	718	3.0
1900	English - - -	20,149	12,578	62.4	3,366	9.3
	Scotch - - -	4,896	3,209	65.5	764	8.6
	Irish - - -	12,372	12,714	102.8	1,140	4.3
1901	English - - -	23,060	14,849	64.4	4,860	11.4
	Scotch - - -	4,795	3,085	64.3	1,090	12.2
	Irish - - -	8,502	10,834	127.4	941	4.6
1902	English - - -	35,387	20,049	56.7	9,225	14.3
	Scotch - - -	8,258	4,027	48.8	2,398	16.3
	Irish - - -	10,127	10,964	108.3	1,112	5.0
1903	English - - -	55,204	29,226	52.9	14,407	14.6
	Scotch - - -	12,894	6,010	46.6	3,937	17.2
	Irish - - -	11,759	12,077	102.7	1,522	6.0
1904	English - - -	38,859	26,115	67.2	13,468	17.2
	Scotch - - -	9,566	5,995	62.7	3,978	20.4
	Irish - - -	12,120	15,068	124.3	1,685	5.8
1905	English - - -	46,646	25,515	54.7	13,728	16.0
	Scotch - - -	13,618	7,342	53.9	4,465	17.6
	Irish - - -	13,633	12,405	91.0	2,013	7.2
1906	English - - -	67,506	39,033	57.8	22,553	17.5
	Scotch - - -	19,368	9,312	48.1	5,708	16.6
	Irish - - -	16,128	12,940	80.2	2,123	6.8

Broadly speaking, it may be said that the years 1895-9, which were years of low emigration, show a high proportion of females to males and a low proportion of children to adults; while the years of high emigration (1902-6) show a low proportion of females to males and a high proportion of children. This suggests that the causes that affect the volume of emigration mainly affect the *adult male* section of the people: in low emigration years such persons emigrate in small numbers, and take few children with

APPENDIX No. XXI. (F).—Continued.

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them ; in high emigration years they emigrate in large numbers, and frequently take their families with them. The relatively greater regularity in *female* emigration may possibly be due to the fact that a considerable proportion of the female emigrants are women going out to join their friends already settled abroad.* This class of emigrants would, presumably, be less affected by the ordinary causes that check or promote emigration than the male emigrants.

The low proportion of children among the Irish emigrants is no doubt due to the fact (shown in the Irish Emigration Statistics†) that the great majority of Irish emigrants are unmarried men and women between the ages of fifteen and twenty-five years. It will be noticed, however, that the table given above shows a tendency on the part of Irish emigration, during the last two years, to approximate to English and Scottish emigration, both as regards the proportion of females to males and as regards the proportion of children to adults.

The information with regard to the *occupations* of the emigrants is very incomplete. As published in the Board of Trade's Emigration Reports it relates to passengers generally, and not to emigrants proper ; and in the case of a large number of these passengers the occupation is not stated. The following is a summary of the information regarding the occupations of British and Irish adult out-going passengers given in the Report for 1906 :—

Sex and Occupation.	To British North America.	To United States.	TOTAL to all Countries.
MALES.			
Agricultural - - - - -	12,031	10,868	25,473
Commercial and Professional - - -	3,031	9,044	17,612
Skilled Trades - - - - -	10,200	22,870	39,285
Labourers - - - - -	32,080	17,843	50,844
Miscellaneous, or not stated - - -	7,894	14,252	40,717
Total, Males - - -	65,236	74,877	173,931
FEMALES.			
Domestic and other service - - - -	6,698	14,486	22,617
Other occupations - - - - -	22,722	38,556	82,522
Total, Females - - -	29,420	53,042	105,139

It will be seen that, out of 174,000 adult male passengers, 51,000 were labourers, 39,000 skilled tradesmen, 25,000 farmers, etc., and 18,000 commercial and professional men. Taking the two principal destinations—Canada and the United States—it appears that 49 per cent. of the out-going passengers to Canada were labourers, 18 per cent. farmers, etc., and 16 per cent. skilled tradesmen ; to the United States, 31 per cent. skilled tradesmen, 24 per cent. labourers, 15 per cent. farmers, and 12 per cent. commercial or professional men.

So far as regards Irish emigrants, somewhat more satisfactory particulars are available from the Irish Emigration Statistics,† which give the following numbers of emigrants belonging to each of the principal occupations in 1906 :—

MALES.		FEMALES.	
Professional men, etc. - - -	62	Teachers, etc. - - -	287
Farmers - - - - -	2,950	Dressmakers and other trades - - -	436
Clerks, shop assistants, etc. - - -	1,690	Servants - - - - -	9,914
Artisans and shopkeepers - - -	1,913	Others - - - - -	5,638
Labourers - - - - -	10,444		
Others - - - - -	2,584	Total, Females - - -	16,275
Total, Males - - -	19,643		

It will be seen that 53 per cent. of the male emigrants are described as “ labourers ” and 61 per cent. of the female emigrants as “ servants.” In former years the proportion of “ labourers ” and “ servants ” respectively has generally been even greater than this.

* In this connection it is interesting to note that, according to the Irish Emigration statistics, upwards of 35 per cent. of the Irish emigrants to the United States in 1905 and 1906 had had their passages paid for in America.

† The Irish Emigration Statistics show the number of passengers leaving Irish ports (including a small number going to England or Scotland), and declaring their intention of settling abroad. The figures, therefore, differ from those on pp 3 and 4, which merely show the “ balance outwards ” of Irish passengers.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (G).

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

ALIEN IMMIGRATION.

Statistics of alien immigration are now collected under the Aliens Act, 1905, which came into force on January 1st, 1906. These statistics differ so materially from those previously collected that they cannot be used for comparative purposes with the earlier statistics ; they will be found analysed in an annex to this Memorandum.

The statistics available for earlier years are very unsatisfactory. They fall under two heads : (1) the Census Returns and (2) the Board of Trade statistics. It will be convenient to discuss the latter first.

1.—BOARD OF TRADE STATISTICS.

The Board of Trade statistics have only been collected since 1890 (except for one or two ports). They embody information obtained in two distinct ways :—

(a) Voluntary returns have been obtained from the railway companies, and from the principal shipping companies trading with Continental ports, showing the gross total number of passengers, British and foreign, conveyed between the United Kingdom and European ports. These returns do not distinguish nationality, sex, age, occupation or any other particulars. Assuming that the numbers of *British* in-coming and out-going passengers included in this total were about equal in both directions, it would appear that the “balance inwards” of passengers from the Continent, (*i.e.*, the excess of in-coming over out-going passengers) may be taken to represent, roughly, the number of *foreign* immigrants, including transmigrants passing through the country on their way to the United States or other non-European countries. The number of these transmigrants, however, is known to be large. In order, therefore, to arrive at an estimate of the true immigration of aliens for settlement in this country, the number of foreign *emigrants* (*i.e.*, the “balance outwards” of foreigners to non-European countries) was deducted from the “balance inwards” of *all* passengers from the Continent. The net balance was assumed to represent the actual addition to the alien population of this country in each year. The results of this calculation are shown below :—

Year.	Balance <i>Inwards</i> of <i>All</i> Passengers from the Continent.	Balance <i>Outwards</i> of <i>Foreign</i> Passengers to non-European Countries.	Estimated Net Balance Inwards of Foreigners. *
1891 - - - -	86,442	65,078	21,364
1892 - - - -	84,167	62,678	21,489
1893 - - - -	73,280	57,489	15,791
1894 - - - -	13,012	903	12,109
1895 - - - -	28,503	18,015	10,488
1896 - - - -	38,956	19,506	19,450
1897 - - - -	17,850	4,938	12,912
1898 - - - -	29,897	14,189	15,708
1899 - - - -	56,660	30,444	26,216
1900 - - - -	79,433	50,041	29,392
1901 - - - -	88,712	63,618	25,094
1902 - - - -	137,313	112,132	25,181
1903 - - - -	114,540	99,149	15,391
1904 - - - -	84,389	82,182	2,207
1905 - - - -	107,733	110,514	2,781†
1906 - - - -	134,199	133,878	321

It will be seen that the estimated number of foreign immigrants varied, in the thirteen years 1891–1903, between 10,500 in 1895 and 29,400 in 1900. The figures, so far as they go, appear to show a cyclical variation corresponding to the alternating periods of good and bad trade ; immigration being low, for example, in 1894 and 1895, which were years of bad trade, and high in 1899–1902, which were years of good trade. There was a drop to 2,000 in 1904, and to 300 in 1906 ; while in 1905 the net result of the movement of foreigners seems to have been a slight reduction of the alien population.

* These balances are subject to a deduction for a certain proportion of foreign seamen, who arrived as passengers and left as members of crews of out-going ships, and were thus counted inwards but not outwards.
 † Net balance *outwards*.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (G).—Continued.

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The check to alien immigration in 1904–1906 may possibly be due partly to bad trade, partly to the deterrent effect of the publication of the Alien Immigration Commission's Report in 1903, followed by the passing of the new Aliens Act in 1905.

Attention is drawn in the footnote to the fact that some allowance must be made for foreign seamen coming to British ports to ship as crews of out-going vessels. These seamen are included in the returns among the in-coming passengers, but not, of course, among the out-going passengers. This question will be further discussed in Section (b) below.

It should also be noted that these voluntary returns do not in all cases include the total number of *children* among the passengers. Hence the number both of inward and of outward passengers, and consequently the "balance inwards" of foreigners would appear to be somewhat understated; but it is quite impossible to estimate the extent of this error.

(b) *The Alien Returns.*—These Returns were received under the Registration of Aliens Act, 1836, which required the masters of all ships arriving from foreign ports to furnish a statement of the number of aliens on board, specifying their names, rank, occupation, and description. Such lists were received from 29 ports, viz.:—London (excluding Queenborough); Harwich, the Channel ports (Dover, Folkestone, Newhaven, and Southampton); the Humber and North-East Coast ports (Hull, Goole, and Grimsby, Middlesbrough, West Hartlepool, Sunderland, Newcastle, North and South Shields, and Blyth); the Scottish East Coast ports (Leith, Granton, Grangemouth, Kirkcaldy, and Aberdeen); and from Liverpool, Glasgow and Greenock, Belfast and Dublin, Bristol, Cardiff, and Newport.

The Returns from the Channel ports (Dover, Newhaven, etc.) only showed steerage or deck passengers, and those who after landing proceeded by train as third class passengers.

The following Table summarises the information contained in the Alien Lists :—

Year.	TOTAL Number of Aliens included in the Alien Lists.	NUMBER OF ALIENS			Number of Aliens <i>ascertained</i> to have proceeded to other Countries, though not so described in the Alien Lists.	Net number of Aliens other than Seamen <i>not known</i> to have proceeded to other Countries.
		Described in the Alien Lists as <i>en route</i> to other Countries.	Described in the Alien Lists as Seamen.	Not described in the Alien Lists as <i>en route</i> to other Countries, or as Seamen.		
1891	136,772	98,705	9,797	28,270	No information.	28,270
1892	126,287	93,801	10,349	22,137	"	22,137
1893	120,334	79,518	9,760	31,056	420	30,636
1894	74,015	35,512	9,821	28,682	2,166	26,516
1895	85,059	44,637	9,894	30,528	2,074	28,454
1896	85,945	40,036	10,461	35,448	2,961	32,487
1897	81,834	32,221	10,762	38,851	2,676	36,175
1898	85,261	32,177	12,299	40,785	2,336	38,449
1899	114,193	49,947	13,362	50,884	2,889	47,995
1900	149,137	71,682	14,950	62,505	3,972	58,533
1901	149,750	79,140	15,146	55,464	3,879	51,585
1902	200,011	118,478	15,062	66,471	7,983	58,488
1903	207,191	124,591	13,432	69,168	9,739	59,429
1904	194,986	99,278	12,863	82,845	7,697	75,148
1905	196,587	108,408	13,793	74,386	8,440	65,946

With reference to this Table it is to be observed that the distinction between "aliens stated to be *en route* to other countries," and "aliens not stated to be *en route* to other countries," has reference to an arrangement made by the Board of Trade with the shipping companies which carry a large number of transmigrants to America, in accordance with which such companies were permitted to give the *total number* of such transmigrants only, without the usual particulars as to nationality, age, sex, occupation, etc. The arrangement was practically confined to ports on the Humber and on the North-East Coast, where large numbers of Swedish and Norwegian transmigrants land; all aliens (with insignificant exceptions) entering at London or at the Channel ports being classed as "not stated to be *en route*."

APPENDIX No. XXI. (G).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

Seamen are distinguished in the Table on the ground that they can hardly be regarded as immigrants in the ordinary sense, since most of them presumably join a ship in this country.

The Returns for 1906, collected under the new Aliens Act, show that no less than 8,121 alien seamen out of a total of 11,165 who entered in that year, were actually under contract to join ships in British waters. It is believed that a considerable proportion of these alien seamen are men sent to man ships newly built for foreigners, or sold foreign off the British register.

The heading "*aliens ascertained to have proceeded to other countries*" includes a small number whose names were traced in the passenger lists of out-going passengers to non-European countries; and a larger number, principally at the Port of London, who were ascertained, by personal inquiry of the Customs officer who boards the immigrant ships, to be actually intending to proceed to other countries, though not described in the alien lists as "*en route to other countries.*"

With reference to the residue of aliens not described as *en route*, it is to be observed that the number is subject to deduction, not only for seamen, but also for:—

- (1) Persons travelling on business or for pleasure, and not intending to stay in the country.
- (2) Persons emigrated or repatriated shortly after their arrival by charitable agencies.
- (3) Persons who are *en route*, although not stated to be so.

As regards "persons travelling on business, etc.," it is to be observed that statistics of the number of *out-going* aliens to the Continent have only been collected since the middle of the year 1906 (under the new Aliens Act), and then only at the Channel ports. It is understood that fuller information will be given in future Reports.

As regards "persons emigrated or repatriated, etc.," it appears that the number of "cases" (many "cases" representing several persons) emigrated or repatriated by two agencies in London alone averaged nearly 1,300 a year during the years 1895–1902. In 1906, the (London) Jewish Board of Guardians, one of the above-mentioned agencies, emigrated or repatriated 1,189 "cases," consisting of about 2,500 individuals; while another Jewish charitable agency in London emigrated or repatriated 1,416 persons in the same year.

The following Table shows the nationality of the aliens (other than seamen) not stated in the lists Alien to be *en route* to other countries in each year:—

Year.	Russians and Poles.	Norwegians Swedes, and Danes.	Germans.	French.	Italians.	Other Nationalities. †	TOTAL of all Nationalities.
1891*	12,607	4,647	5,817	1,453*	734*	3,012*	28,270*
1892*	7,538	4,367	5,765	910*	783*	2,774*	22,137*
1893	8,194	4,631	7,075	4,399	2,377	4,380	31,056
1894	7,482	4,174	6,229	4,077	2,452	4,268	28,682
1895	10,204	3,700	5,665	3,849	2,738	4,372	30,528
1896	12,773	4,437	5,557	3,948	3,448	5,285	35,448
1897	14,775	4,617	5,496	4,477	4,061	5,425	38,851
1898	15,248	4,775	5,886	4,367	4,224	6,285	40,785
1899	20,266	5,695	5,926	4,861	5,553	8,583	50,884
1900	25,633	5,796	5,799	4,821	7,707	12,749	62,505
1901	20,914	4,725	6,730	5,816	7,185	10,094	55,464
1902	28,511	5,028	6,965	6,637	7,734	11,596	66,471
1903	30,046	4,702	7,502	6,495	7,045	13,378	69,168
1904	46,095	4,827	7,084	6,564	6,300	11,975	82,845
1905	37,922	4,925	6,932	6,261	6,055	12,291	74,386

* Excluding immigrants at Newhaven and Southampton in 1891, and at Newhaven in 1892.

† Principally Dutch, Austrians and Hungarians, and Roumanians. The number of Dutch was 937 in 1893 and 4,787 in 1905; Austrians and Hungarians, 1,003 in 1893, 4,005 in 1903, and 2,262 in 1905.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (G).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

About half of these immigrants arrived at the Port of London. Taking an average of the years 1903–5 the proportion of the various nationalities who arrived in London was :—Russians and Poles, 77 per cent. ; Germans, 50 per cent. ; Dutch, 86 per cent. ; Austrians and Hungarians, 57 per cent. The French and the Italians mostly entered through Newhaven ; and the Norwegians, Swedes, and Danes, mostly at the Tyne ports or at London.

II.—CENSUS REPORTS.

Before proceeding to examine the Census Returns, it may be well to mention that very special efforts were made at the time of the Census of 1901 to ascertain the number of aliens ; so that it is possible that the increases shown over previous censuses may be partly due to increased vigilance, and not entirely to the actual influx of alien immigrants.

It should also be mentioned that the children of aliens, born in this country, are counted as British, and not as aliens.

The following Table shows the alien population recorded at the Censuses of 1881, 1891, and 1901 :—

	Census of 1881.	Census of 1891.	Census of 1901.	Increase in 1901, as compared with 1881.	
				Total.	Per Cent.
TOTAL for United Kingdom -	135,640	219,523	286,925	151,285	112
Number in—					
London - - - -	60,252	95,053	135,377	75,125	125
(Stepney alone)- -	(15,998)	(32,284)	(54,310)	(38,312)	(239)
Manchester - - -	2,805	8,941	11,737	8,932	318
Liverpool - - -	6,858	7,402	8,974	2,116	31
Leeds - - - -	2,134	5,927	7,426	5,292	248

The percentage of aliens to the whole population in 1901 was 0·69 per cent. But, as will be seen from the above Table, the alien population is very much localised. Thus, the alien population of London as a whole is 3·0 per cent. ; but it varies in the different boroughs from 0·6 per cent. in Camberwell to 18·2 per cent. in Stepney ; and it rises to 28·8 and 31·8 per cent. respectively in the St. George's and Whitechapel districts of Stepney.

The following Table shows the nationalities of the aliens at the Census of 1901 :—

Nationality.	TOTAL in United Kingdom.	London.	Stepney.
Russians and Russian Poles - - -	95,245	53,537	42,032
Germans - - - - -	53,402	27,427	3,576
Americans - - - - -	29,180	6,244	392
Italians - - - - -	24,684	10,889	256
French - - - - -	22,406	11,264	257
Scandinavians - - -	17,762	3,688	478
Austrians - - - - -	10,130	6,189	3,009
Other foreign nationalities - - -	34,116	16,139	4,310
Total aliens - - -	286,925	135,377	54,310

It will be seen that, of the total alien population of the United Kingdom at the Census of 1901, the Russians and Russian Poles accounted for 33 per cent. ; the Germans for 19 per cent. ; and the Italians for 8 per cent. Of the several nationalities, the Russians and Poles were the most localised, 56 per cent. of the total Russian and Polish population in the country being in London, and no less than 44 per cent. of the total, or 78 per cent. of those resident in London, being in the borough of Stepney alone. London had also rather more than half the Germans, French, and Austrians, and 44 per cent. of the Italians

APPENDIX No. XXI. (G).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).*

resident in the whole country; but aliens of these nationalities were more evenly distributed over the various parts of London, the Italians (for example) being mostly in Holborn and in Westminster, and the French in Marylebone, St. Pancras, and Westminster; while the Germans were numerous in all the boroughs, except Deptford and Woolwich, which had very few aliens of any nationality.

The principal occupations of the aliens enumerated in the United Kingdom at the Census of 1901 were as follows:—

Tailors	-	-	-	25,698	Clerks	-	-	-	5,771
Seamen	-	-	-	19,695	Hawkers, etc.	-	-	-	5,372
Domestic servants	-	-	-	18,913	Teachers	-	-	-	4,998
Bakers, etc.	-	-	-	6,334	Cabinet-makers	-	-	-	4,815
Waiters	-	-	-	6,073	Boot and shoemakers	-	-	-	4,770
Musicians, etc.	-	-	-	6,040					

The number of children under ten years of age was 20,993; while 80,907 (15,912 males, and 64,995 females) were of no stated occupation. Excluding these two classes, the number of occupied aliens was 185,025, of whom tailors were 14 per cent.; domestic servants and waiters, 13½ per cent.; and seamen, 11 per cent.

ANNEX.

ALIEN IMMIGRATION STATISTICS FOR 1906.

Since January 1st, 1906, statistics of alien immigration have been collected under the Aliens Act, 1905. This Act, and the orders issued under the Act by the Home Office, require returns as to all alien passengers landed from the Continent. Alien passengers are subject to inspection, with the following exceptions:—

(1) Alien passengers arriving on “non-immigrant” ships, *i.e.*, ships carrying not more than twenty alien steerage passengers [not more than twelve such passengers, up to and including March 9th, 1906];

(2) Cabin passengers;

(3) Exempted second-class passengers, *i.e.*, alien second-class passengers carried by certain shipping companies (principally those engaged in the Channel service), which have given bond not to allow undesirable immigrants from among these passengers to land;

(4) Transmigrants, *i.e.*, passengers holding prepaid through tickets to a destination outside the United Kingdom, in respect of whom the shipping companies which bring them to or carry them from the country have given security that they will not remain in the country except for purposes of transit; or, if rejected in their country of destination, will not re-enter the United Kingdom.

The total number of alien passengers who arrived at ports in the United Kingdom from the Continent during the year 1906 was 465,500; but of these 137,692 were cabin passengers, 93,707 were exempted second-class passengers, and 169,788 were transmigrants.

Of the transmigrants, 74,638 (or 44 per cent.) entered at Hull, and sailed again from Liverpool; while another 63,802 (or 38 per cent.) entered at other ports and left from Liverpool. The great majority of the transmigrants were Russians (including Finns and Poles) or Norwegians, Swedes, and Danes.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (G).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).*

Out of the 64,313 steerage passengers who did not belong to any of the three above-mentioned classes, 25,786 fell under the following heads :—

7,991 were found to be proceeding to a destination outside the United Kingdom, though they did not hold prepaid through tickets, and were not therefore technically “transmigrants.”

6,138 held return tickets to a foreign country.

11,165 were seamen : 8,121 of these were actually under contract to join ships in British waters.

492 were refused leave to land.

As regards the remainder (38,527), nothing is known as to their intentions or movements after arrival in this country ; their nationalities were as follows :—

Russians and Poles	-	-	12,832	Germans -	-	-	-	3,186
French -	-	-	-	10,116	Norwegians, Swedes and Danes	1,295		
Italians -	-	-	-	5,360	Other nationalities -	-	-	5,738

Of this residue of 38,527 alien immigrants, the arrivals in London numbered 10,289, including 7,626 Russians and Poles.

The total number of persons who were refused leave to land by the immigration officers was 935, of whom 733 were refused on account of want of means, etc., and 202 on medical grounds. 796 of these rejected persons appealed, 442 successfully and 354 unsuccessfully. The total number finally rejected was therefore 493, of whom 360 were rejected on account of want of means, etc., and 133 on medical grounds. Of the persons finally rejected 262 were Russians or Poles, 63 Italians, and 54 French.

Transmigrants are liable to be rejected by the shipping companies at the ports of departure in the United Kingdom ; and the companies are under obligation not to allow those so rejected to remain in the United Kingdom. There were 1,432 persons so rejected, and they all left the country. Besides these, 995 other transmigrants were rejected at ports outside the United Kingdom, and re-entered the country *en route* to the Continent. All but thirty-five of these were traced out of the country.

During the year, 448 aliens resident in the country were “recommended for expulsion” on being convicted of various crimes ; and eight others, though not actually convicted, became liable to expulsion for various reasons. Expulsion orders were made in the case of 293 persons, the great majority of whom were convicted in London.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (H).

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ON THE EXTENT TO WHICH FEMALE AND JUVENILE LABOUR HAS
DISPLACED ADULT LABOUR IN THE LAST TWENTY YEARS.

GENERAL CONDITIONS.

Taking the occupied classes as a whole and comparing male and female employment the Reports of the last three Censuses indicate that women are obtaining a smaller, not a larger, proportion of the aggregate employment.

The following Table shows the percentage proportion of males and females over ten years of age returned as occupied and unoccupied in the Censuses of 1881, 1891, and 1901.

	Males.			Females.		
	1881.	1891.	1901.	1881.	1891.	1901.
Occupied -	83·2	83·1	83·7	34·1	34·4	31·6
Without specified occupations or unoccupied -	16·8	16·9	16·3	65·9	65·6	68·4

It has, however, to be borne in mind that the greater part of the decreased proportion of occupied females has occurred in domestic service. In 1881 and 1901, daughters and other female relatives of the head of the family who were described as assisting in household duties were classified as unoccupied, whereas in the Census of 1891 these were reckoned as in domestic service. Excluding, therefore, on this account the numbers employed in domestic service, we find that the percentage of women occupied in occupations other than domestic indoor service, was 21·5 in 1901, as compared with 22·3 per cent. in 1891. Those in domestic service amount to 12·1 in 1891, and 10·1 per cent. in 1901.

The proportion of males over ten years of age occupied was 832, 831, and 837 per 1,000 males in 1881, 1891 and 1901 respectively, as compared with 340, 344 and 316 per 1,000 females in the same three periods.

Certain percentages worked out from Factory and Workshop Returns from the Report to the British Association in 1903 on Women's Labour (p. 17) indicate, however, that women, though taking a diminishing proportion of aggregate employment, take an increasing percentage of the employment in textile and non-textile factories.

The following Table presents these figures :—

PERCENTAGES THAT NUMBER OF FEMALES OVER 14 YEARS OLD FORM OF TOTAL NUMBER OF
MALES AND FEMALES OVER 14 YEARS EMPLOYED IN FACTORIES.

—	1890.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898-9.	1901.	1904.
Textile Factories -	58·9	60·1	60·0	60·6	61·0	63·5	63·0
Non-Textile - -	—	17·2	17·2	17·5	17·4	19·4	20·5

APPENDIX No. XXI. (H).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).*

The reduction of the proportion of children to older persons employed in factories will be shown later. In almost every trade which has been separately examined the decrease of children below fifteen is considerable, and in the case of male children generally as great as in the case of female.

Upon the general question of the proportionate employment of children, young persons and adults, respectively, light is thrown by the following Table relating to textile factories.

NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED IN TEXTILE FACTORIES, 1895-1904.

	Half-timers.			Full-timers.					
	Children under 14 years.			Under 18 years.			Over 18 years.		
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.
1895 -	25,525	30,100	55,625	83,086	157,992	238,078	303,270	478,778	782,048
1896 -	24,302	28,954	53,256	82,383	153,862	236,245	306,156	482,030	788,186
1897 -	22,074	26,963	49,037	78,719	152,583	231,302	296,058	475,167	771,225
1898 -	20,451	24,796	45,247	76,335	151,604	227,939	290,797	472,587	763,384
1901 -	16,898	19,613	36,511	71,707	148,888	220,595	290,606	881,641	772,247
1904 -	14,568	17,176	31,744	70,965	137,038	208,003	297,302	489,329	786,631

When allowance is made for the recent considerable increase of employment of children, accompanied by an increase of adult employment (due principally to the very great activity in the cotton trade), the testimony of these figures to the decline of child-labour is notable. While in the period they cover, 1895-1904, the number of adult operatives remains stationary, the number of half-timers has declined by more than two-fifths, a decline equally applicable to male and female children. The employment of young persons under twenty-five years also shows a not inconsiderable, though a less regular, decline.

The following Table, presents the proportion of females at different age-periods engaged in all occupations. The figures of the 1891 Census are omitted, as in that year by including as occupied considerable numbers of women not so classed in other Censuses, they misrepresent to some extent the measurement of tendencies.

FEMALES OCCUPIED PER 1,000 LIVING OVER 10 YEARS OF AGE.

Age.	1871.	1881.	1901.
10 to 15	212	151	121
15 „ 25	612	621	611
25 „ 45	315	290	271
45 „ 65	293	261	212
65 and over	259	183	132
All occupied	366	340	316

The decline in the proportion of children and of aged women employed in industry during thirty years is seen to be very large. Hardly less noteworthy is the decline of employment between the ages of forty-five and sixty-five during the same period, especially the latter years of that period. The proportion of employed remains most constant in the case of young women (largely unmarried) between the ages of fifteen and twenty-five, and declines but slowly for women between twenty-five and forty-five, the latter decline representing, perhaps, the growing tendency for married women among the better paid and better educated working classes to occupy themselves exclusively with domestic duties.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (H).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

The following Table, based on Table 35 of the General Report of the Census of 1901 (pp. 270–281), shows the proportion of the population, male and female, engaged in the principal groups of occupations in England and Wales according to each of the last three Censuses.

PROPORTION PER MILLION OF MALE POPULATION AND PER MILLION OF FEMALE POPULATION AGED TEN YEARS AND UPWARDS FOR ENGLAND AND WALES.

Occupations.	1881.	1891.	1901.	Occupations.	1881.	1891.	1901.
Total Occu- pied { Male - { Female -	833,067 340,536	831,424 344,235	837,050 316,291	Total Occu- pied { Male - { Female -	833,067 340,536	831,424 344,235	837,050 316,291
Government { Male -	10,373	12,204	14,149	Building { Male -	81,925	75,307	92,811
{ Female -	738	1,312	2,009	{ Female -	189	213	188
Professions { Male -	24,781	25,035	25,681	Wood, etc. { Male -	17,368	17,089	19,202
{ Female -	18,778	21,175	22,339	{ Female -	1,829	1,818	1,865
Domestic { Male -	8,044	8,913	10,241	Brick, { Male -	11,154	10,391	11,732
Offices { Female -	151,991	149,647*	128,183	Pottery { Female -	2,429	2,536	2,513
(including { Male -				Chemicals, { Male -	6,696	7,268	8,401
Outdoor { Female -				etc. { Female -	770	1,248	2,024
Services) { Male -	33,112	37,343	43,734	Skins, { Male -	7,100	6,906	6,599
Commercial { Female -	848	1,817	4,545	Leather, etc. { Female -	1,555	1,662	1,916
{ Male -	83,985	93,209	102,844	Paper, Prints, { Male -	12,499	14,778	15,498
Conveyance { Female -	1,105	1,272	1,427	Books, etc. { Female -	4,181	5,524	6,892
{ Male -	138,327	116,513	95,510	Textiles { Male -	51,762	49,001	40,561
Agriculture { Female -	6,426	4,453	2,956	{ Female -	61,300	57,542	50,284
{ Male -	3,157	2,350	1,955	Dress { Male -	37,185	36,885	34,171
Fishing { Female -	29	29	13	{ Female -	60,695	59,834	53,966
Mines and { Male -	55,926	61,088	65,944	Food, etc. { Male -	59,088	62,178	63,810
Quarries. { Female -	761	556	380	{ Female -	16,121	22,601	22,709
Metals, Ma- { Male -	83,221	85,777	96,196	Gas, Water, { Male -	2,696	3,853	5,637
chines, etc. { Female -	3,785	3,924	4,643	etc. { Female -	18	14	9
Precious { Male -	7,261	7,864	11,012	Other Occu- { Male -	85,913	85,532	57,497
Metals { Female -	970	1,039	1,420	pations. { Female -	6,018	6,019	6,010†

The figures relating to the aggregate of occupied persons, which indicate a slight diminution in the proportion of women described as occupied, accompanied by a slight increase in the proportion of men, does not bear out the suggestion that there is any general tendency for women to displace men in the labour market. This reduction in the proportion of occupied women is more than accounted for by the reduction of employment in textiles and dress and in domestic service, the three largest occupations of women, and the greatly reduced employment in agriculture, which has now become an almost exclusively male occupation.

It will be seen that women are making the largest actual and relative advance in commercial, professional, and public employments and in the chemical and food industries, in each of which groups their rate of increase exceeds that of men, and among manufactures in the paper, book-binding, chemical, food, metal, and leather classes.

There is only one group (skins, leather, etc.), in which an increase in the proportion of women employed has been accompanied by a decline in the proportion of men. In every other group where women show an increase, men likewise show an increase, and where there is a considerable decline of male, there is also a decline of female employment. This, of course, does not exclude the possibility of important displacements of male by female labour within the several groups.

In order to test more closely the question of whether there has been such displacement, we may here insert a Table based on the Census Returns for 1891 and 1901 which shows the proportions of women and girls employed in each year in England and Wales in those trades within the larger groups which employ a considerable quantity of female labour.

* The figures for Domestic Service are overstated in 1891 owing to the inclusion in that year only of relatives assisting in household work.

† Including farmers' daughters or relatives assisting in work of the farm not included in 1881 and 1891.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (H).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

PROPORTION OF WOMEN AND GIRLS EMPLOYED IN CERTAIN OCCUPATIONS IN 1901 AND 1891.

Occupations.	England and Wales.			
	Per 10,000 females of and above 10 years.			
	1901.	1891.	Increase.	Decrease.
Occupations (excluding Domestic Indoor Servants ¶) employing upwards of 1 per cent. of occupied females in each country in 1901 or 1891 :—				
Sick Nurse, Midwife - - - - -	51	46	5	—
Schoolmistress, Teacher - - - - -	130	126	4	—
Charwoman - - - - -	85	92	—	7
Laundry and Washing Service - - - - -	149	162	—	13
Commercial or Business Clerk - - - - -	42	16	26	—
Paper and Stationery (Ord. XVII. 1) - - - - -	41	35	6	—
Cotton Manufacture - - - - -	252	290	—	38*
Woollen and Worsted Manufacture - - - - -	93	118	—	25*
Hosiery, Fancy Goods (textile), Small-ware Manufacture. - - - - -	39	44	—	5
Weaver, Spinner, and Textile Operative (undefined) - - - - -	2	5	—	3*
Draper - - - - -	52	40	12	—
Dress, Tailoring, and Needlework † - - - - -	464	512	—	48
Shoe, Boot, Patten, Clog Maker, Dealer - - - - -	40	40	—	—
Baker, Confectioner, Jam Maker, Sugar Refiner ‡ - - - - -	48	34	14	—
Chocolate, Cocoa Maker, Grocer - - - - -	36	40	—	4
Lodging, Boarding Housekeeper - - - - -	33	39	—	6*
Barmaid, Inn, Hotel, Eating House Servant (not domestic). - - - - -	37	39	—	2
Total for above occupations - - - - -	1,594	1,678	—	84
In occupations employing under 1 per cent. of occupied females in each country in 1901 and 1891.	546	555	—	9
Total occupied (excluding Domestic Indoor Servants ¶) per 10,000 females of and above 10 years of age.	2,140	2,233	—	93
Domestic Indoor Servant - - - - -	1,009	¶	—	—
Total occupied per 10,000 females of and above 10 years of age.	3,149	¶	—	—
Total female population of and above 10 years of age -	13,189,585	11,461,890	1,727,695	—

* An actual decrease in numbers as well as a relative one.

† Including dealers.

|| Excluding farmers' daughters or other relatives assisting in the work of the farm (so returned) and in other respects bringing the Census Returns of 1891 and 1901 into line with each other as far as possible.

¶ In 1891 the English and Scotch Census Returns included daughters and other female relatives of the head of a family described as assisting in household duties as in domestic service. In 1901 it was decided to revert to the method of 1881 when these persons were classified among the unoccupied. The figures for 1891 and 1901 are, therefore, in no way comparable, the great decline being partly due to change in classification. Compared with 1881 the decline in domestic service per 10,000 females of 10 years and upwards in 1901 was 222 in England and Wales, 106 in Scotland, and 216 in Ireland.

Taking this Table as a starting point for an examination of the competition between men and women, we must premise that it excludes, as outside competition, most of the largest manual industries in which men engage. Agriculture, mining and fishing employ no appreciable quantity of female labour, while the building, transport and the staple metal and machine-making trades are virtually male preserves, as indeed are the industries classed in the Census as "Wood," and "Gas and water."

About four-fifths of the occupied male population are engaged in these and other employments where women do not enter at all, or where they are a negligible factor as regards possible competition. Only one-fifth of the males are engaged in trades where women enter to the extent of 1 per cent. of the whole number of occupied females. But the real area of competition is further reduced when we recognise that in several of these

APPENDIX No. XXI. (H).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

occupations in which both women and men engage, the male is either an insignificant quantity, or is definitely severed from competition by specialisation of function within the occupation.

In the largest female occupation, domestic service, where men are also engaged to some considerable extent, the margin of actual competition or possible displacement is not very great, being confined to a comparatively small amount of the indoor service. All grades of millinery and dressmaking are almost exclusively women's work. The same holds of washing, even under new mechanical conditions, while charring, and sick nursing, &c., in which women find a large increase of employment, are not subject to sex competition. The only large occupations in this Table in which there might be a *prima facie* case for supposing the existence of any considerable competition, between men and women, and any consequent displacement of the former by the latter, are the textile trades, tailoring, and a few other "dress" trades, shoe-making, teaching, commerce, and certain large retail trades.

THE TEXTILE TRADES.

The following Table compiled from the Census Reports shows the total numbers, male and female, engaged in the chief textile trades in England and Wales in 1881, 1891, and 1901, respectively.

Year.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Year.	Ma'es.	Females.	Total.
	Cotton.				Silk.		
1881	185,410	302,367	487,777	1881	18,709	41,886	60,595
1891	213,231	332,784	546,015	1891	16,235	32,562	48,797
1901	196,898	332,233	529,131	1901	10,380	24,467	34,847
	Wool and Worsted.				Lace.		
1881	97,638	124,733	222,371	1881	11,359	32,785	44,144
1891	107,237	135,097	242,334	1891	13,030	21,716	34,746
1901	87,671	122,069	209,740	1901	12,632	23,807	36,439
	Linen.				Hosiery.		
1881	4,212	7,853	12,065	1881	18,862	21,510	40,372
1891	2,574	5,592	8,166	1891	18,200	30,887	49,087
1901	1,146	3,317	4,493	1901	13,893	34,481	48,374

The General Table, p. 699, shows that in the textile class, as a whole, the proportionate decline for women was about the same as that for men in the period 1881–1901. We now see that as regards actual numbers employed, the increases or decreases in the several trades included in the group, except hosiery, affect male and female labour in much the same degree.

Taking cotton, the largest trade, first, the increase of employment between 1881 and 1891, and the decrease between 1891 and 1901 are seen to affect both males and females. The general figures for the trade indicate no tendency for female to displace male labour.

The same close correspondence is found in wool and worsted, where 1891 shows an advance of similar proportion for male and female employment as compared with 1881, while 1901 marks a similar decline.

The similarity in direction and proportion of change in the other trades is not less noteworthy, and is equally discernible in the trades where the proportionate change of employment is small, as in cotton and wool, or where it has been very great, as in linen and silk. In each trade female employment appears to vary concurrently with male and to a similar extent. There is no evidence of sex displacement.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (H).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

“ The persons employed in the manufacture of hosiery, who, between 1881 and 1891, had increased by 21·6 per cent., declined from 49,087 to 48,374, or 1·5 per cent., during the past decennium. Taking the sexes separately, there was a falling-off of no less than 23·7 per cent. among the males, while the females advanced 11·6 per cent. The probable explanation of these changes may be stated as follows :—Males were formerly employed in the manufacture of hosiery by hand frames, and females in the finishing processes. The hand frames are now becoming obsolete, being superseded by steam-driven automatic machinery, which not only requires fewer hands, but has gradually led to the substitution of females for males. Females employed in the finishing processes have not, however, been similarly displaced by labour-saving machinery. In 1901 the industry gave employment to 34,481 females as against 13,893 males, or a proportion of 713 females in every 1,000 persons employed ; the corresponding proportions at the four Censuses from 1861 to 1891 had been 468, 468, 533, and 629 in 1,000 respectively.

Of the total of 48,374 persons engaged in hosiery manufacture in 1901, not less than 79 per cent. were returned from the counties of Leicester and Nottingham. The numbers enumerated at the last three Censuses in these and some other counties in which the industry is carried on were as follows ” :—*

Registration County.	1881.			1891.			1901.		
	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
Leicestershire - - -	21,594	9,388	12,206	25,176	9,259	15,917	25,543	7,442	18,101
Nottinghamshire - -	14,155	7,917	6,238	15,377	7,222	8,155	12,912	5,003	7,909
Derbyshire - - - -	2,275	1,187	1,088	2,138	914	1,224	2,716	748	1,968
Lancashire - - - -	216	38	178	2,226	263	1,963	1,829	159	1,670
Yorkshire—W. Riding - -	128	22	106	1,108	168	940	1,233	106	1,127

* General Report of the Census, 1901, p. 121.

“ The number of persons engaged in lace manufacture increased from 34,746 in 1891 to 36,439 in 1901, or 4·9 per cent., which is remarkable considering that the industry, which had employed 61,726 persons in 1851, had shown decline at every successive Census. Between 1881 and 1891 the falling-off was 21·3 per cent., and the opinion was advanced in the Census Report for 1891 that, whilst this decline was presumably due in part to the increased importation of foreign lace, the chief cause was the increasing supersession of pillow-made or bone lace by bobbin net, first made by hand machines, but more recently by water power or steam power.

In the counties of Nottingham and Derby, where lace is principally made by machinery, there has been an increase at each Census since 1871, while in the counties of Bedford, Buckingham and Northampton, the seats of hand-made lace, where the industry is practically limited to females, the numbers have continuously fallen from 23,450 in 1861 to 2,350 in 1901. During the inter-censal period, 1881–1891, the numerical increase in the counties where lace is manufactured by machinery did not nearly counterbalance the great decrease in the counties where it is hand made ; during the period 1891–1901, however, the increase in the former counties was numerically greater than the decrease in the latter. This may be seen from the following Table, which gives the numbers at the last three Censuses in each of the counties mentioned, and in Devonshire and Somersetshire, where the lace is now mainly machine-made.”

Registration County.	1881.†			1891.			1901.		
	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
Nottinghamshire - - -	22,228	8,905	13,323	24,112	9,969	14,143	24,817	8,611	16,206
Derbyshire - - - -	2,233	1,173	1,060	3,386	2,016	1,370	5,024	3,020	2,004
Devonshire - - - -	3,428	355	3,073	1,644	359	1,285	1,852	346	1,506
Somersetshire - - - -	596	256	340	736	306	430	886	412	474
Bedfordshire - - - -	4,792	12	4,780	1,532	8	1,524	1,105	4	1,101
Buckinghamshire - - -	4,456	14	4,442	1,113	5	1,108	758	3	755
Northamptonshire - - -	3,232	11	3,221	731	2	729	487	3	484

† The figures for 1881 include dealers.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (H).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

"Coincidentally with the decline of hand-made lace, the proportion of females in 1,000 persons engaged in lace-making declined progressively from 829 in the year 1861 to 625 in 1891, it, however, rose during the latest decennial period to 653, owing, apparently, to the substitution of female for male workers in the county of Nottingham and in some other counties." *

A somewhat more detailed Table relating to the last decade, compiled from the Annual Reports of the Chief Inspectors of Factories and Workshops for 1896, 1897, 1899, 1900, 1903 and 1906 shows that the tendency of male and female textile employment to vary directly and proportionately continues.

NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED IN TEXTILE FACTORIES, 1895-1904.

Material.	Total Employed.			Material.	Total Employed.		
	Males.	Females.	Total.		Males.	Females.	Total.
Cotton.				Hosiery.			
1895 - -	205,230	333,653	538,883	1895.	9,771	24,427	34,198
1896 - -	203,686	329,234	532,920	1896.	10,260	25,692	35,952
1897 - -	199,576	327,647	527,223	1897.	9,925	26,250	36,175
1898 - -	197,701	328,406	526,107	1898.	9,385	26,079	35,464
1901 - -	193,830	328,793	522,623	1901.	9,587	28,962	38,549
1904 - -	196,421	326,609	523,030	1904.	9,117	27,219	36,336
Wool, Worsted and Shoddy.				Lace.			
1895 - -	120,972	161,429	282,401	1895.	9,118	5,450	14,568
1896 - -	121,451	162,990	284,441	1896.	10,313	6,775	17,088
1897 - -	111,278	154,446	265,744	1897.	10,484	6,963	17,447
1898 - -	106,207	150,218	256,425	1898.	10,486	6,519	17,005
1901 - -	106,598	153,311	259,909	1901.	10,462	7,440	17,902
1904 - -	108,998	152,803	261,801	1904.	11,079	7,509	18,588
Flax, Jute, Hemp, China Grass.				Elastic, Cocoa-nut Fibre and Horse-hair.			
1895 - -	51,206	109,813	161,019	1895.	4,165	4,635	8,800
1896 - -	51,820	110,643	162,463	1896.	4,216	4,757	8,973
1897 - -	50,374	109,057	159,431	1897.	4,326	4,581	8,907
1898 - -	49,102	107,603	156,705	1898.	4,378	5,025	9,403
1901 - -	45,732	104,587	150,319	1901.	4,036	4,460	8,496
1904 - -	44,833	103,135	147,968	1904.	3,796	4,948	8,744
Silk.				Total.			
1895 - -	11,419	24,463	35,882	1895.	411,881	663,870	1,075,751
1896 - -	11,095	24,755	35,850	1896.	412,841	664,846	1,077,687
1897 - -	10,888	25,749	36,637	1897.	396,851	654,713	1,051,564
1898 - -	10,324	25,137	35,461	1898.	387,583	648,987	1,036,570
1901 - -	8,966	22,589	31,555	1901.	279,211	650,142	1,029,353
1904 - -	8,591	21,320	29,911	1904.	382,835	643,543	1,026,378

During the period here under survey all the textile trades, except hosiery and lace, show some actual decline in total employment, and in each instance, except in the elastic, cocoanut fibre, and horse-hair trades, both men and women share in this decline, the drop for women being generally slightly less than for men. In this last-mentioned group and hosiery alone are signs of substitution visible.

JUVENILE LABOUR IN THE TEXTILE TRADES.

Thus far we have not discriminated adults and juveniles in the statistics of male and female employment. But the following Table compiled from the Census figures presents the changes in textile employments according to ages as well as sex.

* General Report of the Census, 1901, p. 121.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

TABLE SHOWING THE PROPORTION OF THE POPULATION OF AND ABOVE TEN YEARS ENGAGED IN THE TEXTILE TRADES, EXCLUDING LACE AND SILK TRADES, IN ENGLAND AND WALES AT CERTAIN AGE PERIODS, PER 10,000 AT EACH AGE.

Age.	Proportion employed per 10,000 Males in 1901.	Increase or Decrease per 10,000 at each age period on 1891.	Age.	Proportion employed per 10,000 Females in 1901.	Increase or Decrease per 10,000 at each age period on 1891.
Males			Females.		
10 to 15	229	- 130*	10 to 15	327	- 142*
15 „ 25	349	- 131*	15 „ 25	810	- 103
25 „ 45	322	- 42	25 „ 45	344	- 61
45 „ 65	267	- 32	45 „ 65	131	- 28*
65 and over	128	- 41*	65 and over	30	- 16*
10 and over	295	- 75*	10 and over	397	- 74
Total Number	358,267	- 33,468	Total Number	523,115	- 16,441

* An actual decrease in numbers as well as a relative one.

This Table shows in the first place a reduction in employment both of children and young persons far greater than that of adult labour, and this both among males and females.

It is also observable that the decline in the proportion of young men under twenty-five is greater on the whole than that in the proportion of girls and young women employed in the trades. This no doubt arises from the fact that young men in the textile districts have in larger numbers a freer choice of residence and work than young women.

The fullest evidence of the large diminution of employment of children and young persons in the textile trades, is however, furnished by the Reports of Factory Inspectors, from which the following Table is compiled :—

APPENDIX No. XXI. (H).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED IN TEXTILE FACTORIES.
[Compiled from the Annual Reports of the Chief Inspectors of Factories.]

Material.	HALF-TIMERS. (Children under 14 years.)			FULL-TIMERS. (Under 18 years.)			Total Employed. (All Ages.)
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	
Cotton.							
1895 - -	14,151	17,359	31,510	42,355	81,815	124,170	538,883
1896 - -	13,185	16,321	29,506	41,355	80,061	121,416	532,920
1897 - -	12,297	15,246	27,543	40,034	79,580	119,614	527,223
1898 - -	11,697	14,334	26,031	39,362	80,187	119,549	526,107
1901 - -	9,780	11,173	20,953	37,002	77,631	114,633	522,623
1904 - -	8,131	9,520	17,651	37,338	71,975	109,313	523,030
Wool, Worsted and Shoddy.							
1895 - -	6,606	6,829	13,435	23,394	36,966	60,360	252,401
1896 - -	6,204	6,532	12,736	23,218	36,820	60,038	284,441
1897 - -	5,123	5,732	10,855	21,250	35,360	56,610	265,744
1898 - -	4,299	4,880	9,179	19,918	34,388	54,306	256,425
1901 - -	3,722	3,753	7,475	19,266	35,117	54,383	259,909
1904 - -	4,230	4,382	8,612	19,014	32,238	51,252	261,801
Flax, Jute, Hemp, China Grass.							
1895 - -	4,029	4,703	8,732	11,826	20,460	32,286	161,019
1896 - -	4,240	4,817	9,057	12,094	19,954	32,048	162,463
1897 - -	4,096	4,840	8,936	11,727	20,142	31,869	159,431
1898 - -	3,936	4,584	8,520	11,438	19,880	31,318	156,708
1901 - -	3,039	4,086	7,125	10,246	19,307	29,553	150,319
1904* - -	1,925	2,712	4,637	9,859	18,083	27,942	147,968
Silk.							
1895 - -	468	812	1,280	2,135	6,121	8,256	35,812
1896 - -	410	833	1,243	2,046	6,292	8,338	35,850
1897 - -	337	801	1,138	1,972	6,685	8,657	36,637
1898 - -	328	633	961	1,927	6,215	8,142	34,461
1901 - -	261	443	704	1,698	5,141	6,839	31,555
1904 - -	205	480	685	1,484	4,747	6,231	29,391
Hosiery.							
1895 - -	129	250	379	1,422	6,836	8,258	34,198
1896 - -	117	303	420	1,494	7,730	9,224	35,952
1897 - -	90	214	304	1,381	7,876	9,257	36,175
1898 - -	62	230	292	1,331	7,764	9,095	35,464
1901 - -	33	97	130	1,299	8,397	9,696	38,549
1904 - -	14	49	63	1,209	6,724	7,933	36,336
Lace.							
1895 - -	101	118	219	1,303	1,554	2,857	14,568
1896 - -	121	117	238	1,446	1,831	3,277	17,088
1897 - -	110	103	213	1,581	1,692	3,273	17,447
1898 - -	100	112	212	1,587	1,780	3,367	17,005
1901 - -	55	56	111	1,520	2,163	3,683	17,902
1904 - -	45	31	76	1,536	2,074	3,610	18,508
Elastic, Cocoa-nut Fibre and Horsehair.							
1895 - -	41	29	70	651	1,240	1,891	8,800
1896 - -	25	31	56	730	1,174	1,904	8,923
1897 - -	21	27	48	774	1,248	2,022	8,907
1898 - -	29	23	52	772	1,390	2,162	9,403
1901 - -	8	5	13	676	1,132	1,808	8,496
1904 - -	18	2	20	525	1,197	1,722	8,744
TOTAL.							
1895 - -	25,525	30,100	55,625	83,086	154,992	238,078	1,075,751
1896 - -	24,302	28,954	53,256	82,383	153,862	236,245	1,077,687
1897 - -	22,074	26,963	49,037	78,719	152,583	231,302	1,051,564
1898 - -	20,451	24,796	45,247	76,335	151,604	227,939	1,036,576
1901 - -	16,898	19,613	36,511	71,707	148,888	220,595	1,029,353
1904 - -	14,568	17,176	31,744	70,965	137,038	208,003	1,026,378

* Exclusive of China Grass.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (H).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

It will be seen that between 1895 and 1904 the number of half-timers has decreased in every branch, and the number of full-timers under eighteen years in every branch except lace, and that in branches in which the total number employed has declined the proportionate decline has been greater among young persons and much greater among half-timers.

This relative and absolute reduction of employment of half-timers and young persons which is traceable to 1904, appears, however, to have met a temporary check. The great expansion of trade, especially in the cotton trade of Lancashire and Scotland, leading to an increased demand for labour of both sexes and all ages, resulted in an increased employment of half-timers and of young persons, especially the latter. The considerable dimensions of this change in the years 1905 and 1906 are indicated in the following Table (Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops, 1907, Cd. 3586, p. ix.), to which the summary figures for 1905 and 1904 have been added for comparison.

I.—CHILDREN AND YOUNG PERSONS EXAMINED FOR CERTIFICATES OF FITNESS FOR
EMPLOYMENT IN FACTORIES, 1906.

Area.	Half-time, under 14.		Full Time.				Total.	
			14 to 16.		13 to 14.			
	Number.	Increase or Decrease Compared with Previous Year.	Number.	Increase or Decrease. Compared with Previous Year.	Number.	Increase or Decrease Compared with Previous Year.	Number.	Increase or Decrease Compared with Previous Year.
Lancashire - - -	23,728	+ 543	33,972	+ 3,238	50,034	+ 3,424	107,734	+ 7,205
Yorkshire - - -	10,063	+ 276	17,593	+ 621	30,534	+ 1,036	58,190	+ 1,933
London - - -	—	— 4	723	— 122	27,942	— 739	28,665	— 865
Warwickshire -	8	— 19	2,123	+ 418	18,431	+ 1,658	20,562	+ 2,057
Staffordshire - -	220	+ 81	5,303	+ 368	13,569	+ 2,364	19,092	+ 2,813
Cheshire - - -	2,650	+ 110	3,959	+ 1,105	6,054	— 370	12,663	+ 845
Rest of England & Wales	896	+ 139	13,189	+ 519	63,427	+ 7,512	78,214	+ 8,171
Lanarkshire - - -	—	—	129	+ 44	17,342	+ 2,702	17,471	+ 2,746
Rest of Scotland - -	611	+ 19	2,005	+ 154	27,770	+ 2,863	30,386	+ 3,036
Antrim - - -	3,488	+ 223	500	+ 169	7,672	+ 788	11,660	+ 1,180
Rest of Ireland - -	949	+ 85	381	+ 9	4,902	+ 76	6,232	+ 170
United Kingdom - -	42,613	+ 1,453	80,579	+ 6,523	267,677	+ 21,315	390,869	+ 29,291
United Kingdom 1905 - -	41,160	+ 1,740	74,056	+ 2,252	246,362	+ 24,396	361,578	+ 28,388
Kingdom 1904 - -	39,420	— 3,354	71,804	— 5,572	221,966	— 17,159	333,190	— 26,085

The statistics in this Table, refer to employment in all factories, non-textile, as well as textile, but though some proportion of the recent increase may be attributable to employment in non-textile factories, so far as half-timers are concerned the total number employed in these is extremely small, amounting in 1901 to 5,033 as compared with 36,511 employed in textile factories. There is every reason to believe that the increase of employment of half-timers and young persons is mainly due to the great development of the cotton and woollen industries which has taken place during the last two years.

TAILORING, DRESSMAKING, ETC.

If we take the larger group of dressmaking trades, including tailoring, dressmaking, millinery, shirt and needlework trades, we find that, though female labour still remains the vastly preponderating element, this group of occupations is so far from showing a tendency for female labour to displace male that the net result of movements in recent years has been rather in the opposite direction.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (H).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

The following Table compiled from the Reports of the Census seems to establish these conclusions :—

TAILORING, DRESSMAKING, MILLINERY, SHIRT AND NEEDLEWORK TRADES.
ENGLAND AND WALES.

Age Period.	Proportion employed per 10,000 Males in 1901.	Increase or Decrease per 10,000 at each Age Period on 1891.	Age Period.	Proportion employed per 10,000 Females in 1901.	Increase or Decrease per 10,000 at each Age Period on 1891.
Males.			Females.		
10 to 15 years	19	- 3*	10 to 15 years	145	- 11*
15 „ 25	137	+ 2	15 „ 25	925	- 53
25 „ 45	157	+ 14	25 „ 45	397	- 61
45 „ 65	138	- 14	45 „ 65	292	- 67*
65 and over	121	- 28*	65 and over	200	- 20
10 and over	127	+ 3	10 and over	464	- 48
Total Number	154,696	+ 22,900	Total Number	611,889	+ 25,479

* An actual decrease in numbers as well as a relative one.

This Table is instructive not only in its bearing upon the distribution of occupation between the sexes, but in relation to the ages of the workers. The proportionate decline of employment of children below fifteen years is somewhat more marked among boys than girls. The period between fifteen and forty-five is that during which a positive increase in the proportion of males is found, and in the same period the decline is proportionately smallest in the case of females. There was, however, an increase in numbers among women. This indicates that a larger demand is taking place for adult workers in the prime of life, a normal result of the stress of modern factory life, in which elderly workers become relatively less valuable with every improvement of mechanical processes.

There can be little doubt that this change in the relative importance of this group of occupations for male and female industry is chiefly attributable to the encroachments of the factory system upon domestic and small workshop industries. A considerable proportion, however, of the increase in the number of male workers at tailoring is accounted for by the increased number of European foreigners in the trade. To some extent this relative decline of the occupation of women may also be imputed to higher male wages operating to diminish the urgency for women undertaking wage work.

If, however, out of this group we turn to the particular set of trades classed as tailoring, we find that women are taking an increasing proportion of those employed in the trades. The following Table, compiled from the Censuses of 1881, 1891, and 1901, makes this fact evident. At the same time the number of males in the trade increased from 1891 to 1901.

TAILORING.

Number of Women Aged 15 and upwards.			Per 10,000 of Total Occupied Women aged 15 and upwards.		
1881	1891	1901	1881	1891	1901
51,360	84,091	111,282	164	228	280

That women in this industry are displacing men, in the sense that they form a larger proportion of the workers in the tailoring trades, is shown by the following Table (from

APPENDIX No. XXI. (H).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

“A Note on the Distribution of Women in Occupations,” by Miss B. L. Hutchins, Journal of the Statistical Society, September, 1904, p. 483):—

TAILORS.

	Females per 100 males occupied.	Number under 15 years of age per 100 females occupied.	Number aged 15 and under 20 per 100 females occupied.	Number aged 20 and under 25 per 100 females occupied.
1881 - -	49·21	3·06	20·95	18·40
1891 - -	74·66	5·75	27·73	20·00
1901*- -	98·41	5·40	29·73	22·71

* In 1901 clothiers' outfitters and dealers are omitted ; these were included in 1881 and 1891. In 1901 mantlemakers were included under tailoring ; to a great extent men who made mantles returned themselves as tailors or ladies' tailors and this change increased the proportion of women in the group, and diminished it in the dressmaking group.

The increased proportion of women to men, and of young women to older women is concomitant with the passage of a large portion of the tailoring trade from a domestic and workshop industry into a factory industry, and is probably due in some measure to this change.

THE BOOT AND SHOE TRADE.

The boot and shoe trade also shows an increasing proportion of female to male labour during the last two decades.

The following Table makes this evident :—

---	Per 10,000 occupied over 10 years.			
	1881.	1891.	1901.	Increase or Decrease 1881-1901.
Females - - - - -	36	40	40	+ 4
Males - - - - -	202	191	163	- 39

Here is the case of a distinctively male industry in which women are obtaining a relatively stronger hold. This is doubtless due in the main to an increasing division of labour in the factories which have displaced the workshops, and which furnish certain lighter processes suitable for women, which were formerly done as part of the general work of male shoe-makers. Certain lighter branches of this trade, *e.g.*, slipper-making, are now passing entirely into female hands. The increase of this factory work here also appears favourable to the increased proportionate employment of young girls and young women, as the following Table signifies :—

BOOTS AND SHOES (INCLUDING DEALERS).

-----	Total employed per 10,000 Females Living.			
	1871	1881	1891	1901
Over 10 years - - - - -	30	36	40	40
From 10 to 15 - - - - -	18	17	28	26
" 15 " 25 - - - - -	51	67	83	90
" 25 " 45 - - - - -	26	33	33	30
" 45 " 65 - - - - -	22	22	17	15
Above 65 - - - - -	18	12	9	7

APPENDIX No. XXI. (H).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

The closer analysis of the figures of the 1891 and 1901 Censuses reinforces these conclusions :—

ENGLAND AND WALES.

Age Period.	Proportion per 10,000 Males employed in 1901.	Increase or Decrease per 10,000 at each Age Period on 1891.	Age Period.	Proportion per 10,000 Females employed in 1901.	Increase or Decrease per 10,000 at each Age Period on 1891.
Males. YEARS.			Female. YEARS.		
10 to 15	42	— 16*	10 to 15	26	— 2*
15 „ 25	166	— 35*	15 „ 25	90	+ 7
25 „ 45	152	— 17	25 „ 45	30	— 3
45 „ 65	201	— 55*	45 „ 65	15	— 2
65 and over	206	— 39*	65 and over	7	— 2*
10 and over.	163	— 28*	10 and over	40	— —
Total Number	198,304	— 4,344	Total Number	52,839	+ 6,698

* An actual decrease in numbers as well as a relative one.

The increased employment of young women between fifteen and twenty-five is largely the result of recent rapid growth in the number of machines for manufacturing uppers which women can work, and young women are naturally introduced into these processes. The rapid decline of boys below fifteen, and even between fifteen and twenty-five, is attributable to new and rigorous restrictions on apprenticeship under the factory system, which have greatly reduced the number and the proportion of boys entering the industry.

RETAIL TRADE.

Over so large a proportion of industry it has hitherto been impossible for the Census to distinguish dealer from maker that it is not feasible to present any estimate of the relative employment of males and females over retail distribution, so as to indicate whether any displacement of male by female labour takes place. But in two large retail trades grocers and drapers, statistics are available, and may be presented in the following form :—

	Per 10,000 occupied over 10 Years.		
	1881.	1891.	1901.
Grocers—Males	111	128	127
„ Females	26	40	36
Drapers—Males	58	57	55
„ Females	29	40	52

In both classes women are seen to be increasing in numbers more rapidly than men. The grocery trade remains predominantly male, and some of the females included under this heading are in a manufacturing branch (cocoa and chocolate making), but in the drapery trade women have made a rapid gain, the proportion per million women occupied having nearly doubled since 1881. In drapery there is a strong *prima facie* case for interpreting the change as a displacement of young men by women workers.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (H).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

The fuller analysis of the last two Censuses for the drapery trade runs as follows :—

ENGLAND AND WALES.

Age.	Proportion per 10,000 Males employed in 1901.	Increase or Decrease per 10,000 at each Age Period on 1891.	Age.	Proportion per 10,000 Females employed in 1901.	Increase or Decrease per 10,000 at each Age Period on 1891.
Males. YEARS.			Females. YEARS.		
10 to 15	9	— 2*	10 to 15	11	+ 3
15 „ 25	81	— 13*	15 „ 25	124	+ 33
25 „ 45	64	—	25 „ 45	42	+ 7
45 „ 65	47	+ 2	45 „ 65	20	+ 1
65 and over	22	+ 3	65 and over	9	—
10 and over	55	— 2	10 and over	52	+ 12
Total Number	67,220	+ 6,549	Total Number	68,437	+ 22,090

* An actual decrease in numbers as well as a relative one.

The most conspicuous feature in this Table is, of course, the large increase in the proportion of young women and the considerable decrease in the proportion of young men. It also deserves attention that while the number of boys in the trade is declining, the number of young girls below fifteen is increasing at a considerable rate.

COMMERCE.

That an increasing number of women are employed in commerce, chiefly as clerks, typewriters, etc., is well known. The statistics of the commercial class in recent Censuses show that the percentage increase of employment for women is far greater than for men.

The following Table shows the numbers engaged in commercial occupations per 10,000 of the population at each of the last three Censuses :—

PROPORTION PER 10,000 OF POPULATION OVER TEN YEARS ENGAGED IN COMMERCIAL OCCUPATIONS.

—	1881.	1891.	1901.
Male - - - - -	331·12	373·43	437·34
Female - - - - -	8·48	18·17	45·45

In 1881 less than 1 per cent. of the females occupied were commercial clerks. In 1891, however, the proportion had risen to 1·6 per cent., and in 1901 to 4·2 per cent. by far the largest increase of any great class of female occupation.

It is probable, however, that women are not to any appreciable extent displacing men in these employments, for an analysis of the comparative statistics of commercial and business clerks in 1891 and 1901 shows that the number of men so employed is rapidly increasing, and that their proportionate advance compared with population is faster than that of women.]

APPENDIX No. XXI. (H).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

ENGLAND AND WALES.—Business and Commercial Clerks.

Age Period.	Proportion per 10,000 Males employed in 1901.	Increase or Decrease per 10,000 at each age period on 1891.	Age Period.	Proportion per 10,000 Females employed in 1901.	Increase or Decrease per 10,000 at each age period on 1891.
Males.			Females.		
10 to 15	59	+ 7	10 to 15	8	+ 5
15 „ 25	461	+ 59	15 „ 25	113	+ 75
25 „ 45	267	+ 36	25 „ 45	33	+ 18
45 „ 65	148	+ 27	45 „ 65	5	+ 2
65 and over	59	+ 10	65 and over	1	+ 1
10 and over	254	+ 37	10 and over	42	+ 26
Total Number	307,889	+ 78,519	Total Number	55,784	+ 37,925

The chief difference seen in male and female employment here is the rapid increase of female employment between fifteen and twenty-five, whereas the increase of male employment is spread more evenly over the whole period fifteen to sixty-five. This implies the recent entrance of large numbers of young women into occupations which are new, *e.g.*, typewriting, or which formerly were virtually confined to males. It should, however, be recognised that the normal for males would be to have kept pace with the increase in population, as there is naturally little room for expansion among males with only 17 per cent. unoccupied compared with females who have 66 per cent. unoccupied.

PROFESSIONS.

The general statistics of this class of occupation given in the Censuses do not indicate the nature of the change in occupations of women. The proportion of women engaged in so-called “professions” has, since 1881, grown a good deal more rapidly than that of men.

PROPORTION PER MILLION OF THE MALE AND THE FEMALE POPULATION RESPECTIVELY ENGAGED IN PROFESSIONS.

	1881.	1891.	1901.
Male - - - - -	24,781	25,035	25,681
Female - - - - -	18,778	21,175	22,339

The large number of women and the rate of their increase are both explained by the rapid development of the subordinate services, especially teaching, acting, music, and sick nursing.

The two branches in which women form a large proportion of the entire sub-class and in which they show the largest absolute and relative advance are teaching and the medical services. The General Report of the Census for 1901 summarises in the following terms the changes during the decade 1891–1901 :—

“The number of schoolmasters and mistresses, teachers, professors and lecturers, employed in education of all grades, exclusive of teachers of music, who are classed with musicians in Sub-order 7 of this Order, was 230,345, and of these 171,670, or 74·5 per cent. were females. In 1891 the number of teachers, professors, etc., had been 195,021, of whom 144,393, or 74·0 per cent., were females. Accordingly in the ten years the male teachers increased by 15·9 per cent., and the female teachers by 18·9 per cent. The total increase in both sexes together was 18·1 per cent.; in the previous intercensal period the rate of increase had not exceeded 15·5 per cent.

According to the returns of the Board of Education there were 36,207 male and 113,597 female teachers in Elementary Day Schools in 1901, the male teachers having increased since 1891 by 15·1 per cent., and the females by no less than 50·5 per cent.; and whereas there were 240 females to 100 male teachers in the earlier year, the ratio had increased to 314 to 100 in 1901.”*

* Cd. 2174, p. 93.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (H).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

The detailed age and sex analysis for the decade 1891–1901 runs as follows :—

ENGLAND AND WALES.—TEACHERS.

Age Period.	Proportion per 10,000 Males employed in 1901.	Increase or Decrease (per 10,000 at each age period) on 1891.	Age Period.	Proportion per 10,000 Females employed in 1901.	Increase or Decrease (per 10,000 at each age period) on 1891.
Males.			Females.		
10 to 15	5	– 5	10 to 15	24	– 13
15 „ 25	55	– 7	15 „ 25	260	+ 15
25 „ 45	69	+ 3	25 „ 45	141	+ 4
45 „ 65	42	+ 5	45 „ 65	52	– 1
65 and over	10	– 2	65 and over	11	– 5
10 and over	48	...	10 and over	130	+ 4
Total Number	58,675	+ 8,047	Total Number	171,670	+ 27,277

Whereas the great increase of women teachers must to some extent be regarded as a substitute of female workers for men, the same cannot be said of the growth of female employment in the medical services, chiefly as sick nurses, midwives or invalid attendants. The proportion of women engaged in these occupations increased between 1891 and 1901 from forty-six per 10,000 to fifty-one, the rate of increase of numbers thus occupied being no less than 26·8 per cent. for the decade.

DOMESTIC SERVICE.

In dealing with this, by far the largest of the wage-earning occupations of women, we have already (p. 1) seen that the tendency is for domestic service to employ a smaller proportion of women, and a larger proportion (though the total number is small) of men.

Though it can hardly be claimed that any direct competition or displacement of one sex by another takes place in this class, the reduced proportion of female employment deserves attention. In measuring this and other changes relating to age distribution, it is, however, necessary to ignore the 1891 Census (in which large numbers of female relatives assisting in household work were for once included in this class), and to make our comparison between 1881 and 1901.

The following account of this change is given in the General Report of the 1901 Census. [Cd. 2174, p. 95] :—

“ In the period of twenty years between 1881 and 1901, we find that female domestic indoor servants increased by only 8·2 per cent., while the entire population advanced 25·2 per cent. It is noteworthy that the increase was limited to women aged twenty years and upwards, among whom it amounted to 23·5 per cent. in the twenty years, while among girls under the age of twenty years there was a decrease during the same period equal to 12·3 per cent. The following Table shows the age distribution of female domestic servants in 1881 and 1901, and also the rates of increase or decrease at each age-group.

Ages.	1881.		1901.		Increase (+) or Decrease (–) per cent. in 20 years.
	Number.	Proportion per 1,000.	Number.	Proportion per 1,000.	
Under 15 - - -	98,190	79·8	64,802	48·7	– 34·0
15 and under 20 - -	430,177	349·7	398,630	299·6	– 7·3
20 and under 25 - -	301,474	245·0	351,242	263·9	+ 16·5
25 and under 45 - -	295,302	240·0	392,973	295·3	+ 33·1
45 and under 65 - -	88,506	71·9	106,186	79·8	+ 20·0
Over 65 - - -	16,757	13·6	16,950	12·7	+ 1·2
Total - - -	1,230,406	1,000·0	1,330,783	1,000·0	+ 8·2

APPENDIX No. XXI. (H).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

There can be no doubt that the administration of the Education Acts in recent years, by raising the "school age," has tended greatly to limit the domestic employment of girls below the age of fifteen years; but this cannot have caused the reduction between fifteen and twenty years, of age. The decrease of 7·3 per cent. in the number of Domestic Servants at ages between 15 and 20 years, notwithstanding an increase of 28·1 per cent. in the number of females living at these ages, suggests the conclusion that young women are preferring other employments."

The more detailed analysis of this change in relation to the age of female domestic service is given in the following Table :—

PROPORTION OF FEMALES OCCUPIED IN DOMESTIC SERVICE PER 10,000 LIVING OVER TEN YEARS.

Ages.	1881.	1901.	Increase or Decrease.
10 to 15	702	388	— 314
15 „ 25	2,933	2,281	— 652
25 „ 45	845	813	— 32
45 „ 65	453	418	— 35
65 and over	257	198	— 59
10 and over	1,231	1,009	— 222

Here, as in many occupations, we find a large reduction proportionately of employment at the lowest and the highest age periods.

SUMMARY OF RESULTS.

There is no body of evidence to support the view that in any considerable trade or process women or juveniles are displacing adult males in the sense that they are being more largely employed to do work identical with that formerly done by men. There is, however, evidence to show that certain mechanical and other changes, lightening or otherwise facilitating certain processes, have tended to place them more largely in the hands of women or young persons. To such changes is doubtless due the larger proportion of employment of women in textile factories, especially in such an industry as hosiery, where direct and considerable substitution of women for men has lately been achieved through the instrumentality of improved machinery. Certain similar improvements of machinery in the clothing factories and in the shoe trade have similarly enabled women to do what was for a time men's work.

But the total amount of such substitution does not appear to be very great. In most cases where women's employment grows faster than men's, or where the decline of employment for men is faster than that for women, the stronger position of women is due to the increased division of labour which has found place for women in new separate processes, or to the creation of new industrial processes suited to women's labour, or else to the more rapid development of certain sorts of work in which women were already engaged.

Improved education of women has assisted them to find a larger occupation in commercial and certain professional employments, especially in teaching and in nursing, and the great expansion of the commercial occupations has furnished large new fields of female work.

It should also be borne in mind that even when women are employed where men used to be employed this is largely due to the men going into more highly paid industries. Mining, machine-making, and building have of late years attracted an abnormal number of men and boys.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (I).

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 18827.)

STATISTICS OF LABOUR BUREAUX FOR 20 YEARS OR SO LONG AS AVAILABLE, DISTINGUISHING BETWEEN THOSE MANAGED BY DISTRESS COMMITTEES UNDER THE UNEMPLOYED WORKMEN ACT AND THOSE NOT SO MANAGED.

I—LABOUR BUREAUX PRIOR TO UNEMPLOYED WORKMEN ACT, 1905.

In the Table below (Table A.) every public labour bureau or registry is included for which the Labour Department has returns for any single complete year prior to the coming into force of the Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905. In the case of bureaux existing before 1894, such as Ipswich and Chelsea, the statistics have, so far as possible, been completed from the Reports of the Labour Commission and other sources. Employment given by the municipality itself, or in the case of the Salvation Army Bureau by the Salvation Army, has been so far as possible excluded. The extent of this excluded employment wherever it reaches any considerable volume is indicated in the notes as to the individual exchanges.

TABLE A.—LABOUR BUREAUX IN EXISTENCE PRIOR TO UNEMPLOYED WORKMEN ACT.
SITUATIONS FILLED WITH PRIVATE EMPLOYERS.

Year.	Plymouth.	Liverpool.	Salford.	Glasgow.	Coventry.	Croydon.	Battersea.	Chelsea.	Hackney.	Hammer-smith.	Hampstead.	Islington.	Kensington.	St. Pancras.	Southwark.	Westminster.	Ipswich.	Salvation Army.
1894	683	[102]	199				567	1021				876		726			332	Returns as to private employment not distinguished.
1895	688	30	118				533					1110		1217		[279]	338	
1896	660	22	125				508		374			904		933		444	319	
1897	925	23	118	839			405		146			691		1120		506	360	
1898	1146	13	133	1276			485		131			840		1117		519	269	
1899	1334	29		1516			424		114			933		1107		682	215	
1900	1505	2		2093			383		124			862		1203		1028	243	
1901	1479	11		2050			454									[483]	225	
1902	1248	7		2029			431										295	
1903	1186	10		2173			334			[104]				382	[57]	594	254	
1904	1132	13		1942			283			109	[49]		544	1000	43	798	213	4585
1905	[1204]	11		1908	829	[160]	61			353	197	455	[434]	1330	40	754	173	6603
1906				2068	963	497				[78]	[99]	[102]		[811]	[5]	[603]	176	6179
1907	Distress Committee.	Distress Committee.		*1850	809	661					Taken over by Central (Unemployed) Body.						Distress Committee.	10044
																607		6797

Bracketed figures represent incomplete years.

* No return for November, 1907.

Returns for less than one complete year prior to the end of 1905 have been received also from the following bureaux :—

- Reading : October to November, 1897 ; June, 1906, to date.
- Southampton : November, 1903 to May, 1904.
- Manchester : January to April, 1904 ; June, 1905, to date.
- Wigan : June, 1904 ; March, 1907.
- Leith : January to August, 1905.
- Eastbourne : February, 1905, to April, 1906.
- Dudley : April, 1905, to date.
- Newcastle : January, 1905, to date.
- Shoreditch : March, 1903.
- Fulham : October, 1904.
- Poplar : October, 1905 to July, 1906.
- Lewisham : November, 1905 to July, 1906.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (I).—Continued.

*Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)**Notes as to Special Bureaux.*

Plymouth.—The figures relate to men (with a few lads and boys) only. Prior to 1900, a few situations were filled with the local authority ; since that year none. The number of situations filled has been 95 per cent. of those offered, during the last five years. At the end of 1905 the registry was taken over by the Distress Committee under the Unemployed Workmen Act, and during the winter months, both in 1905–6, and 1906–7, appears to be amalgamated with the register of the Distress Committee. During the summer months when the Distress Committee register is closed the labour registry is opened as a separate institution, its returns appearing in the Report of the Distress Committee.

The figures given, from returns made to the Labour Department, are different from those appearing in the Report of the Assistant-Commissioner of the Poor Law Commission. (Appendix, p. 395).*

Liverpool.—During the twelve years, 1894 to 1905, the bureau also filled 437 situations under the local authority. At the end of 1905, it was taken over by the Distress Committee which maintained (1905–6), only a single register both for bureau and unemployed registration, and found situations for about eighty applicants from this register with private employers.

Salford.—During the five years 1894–8, the bureau also filled 362 situations under the local authority. No records are to hand since 1898, till the opening of a bureau by the Distress Committee which in the fifteen months, June, 1906 to August, 1907, has filled 100 situations.

Glasgow.—During the ten years 1897 to 1906, the bureau also filled 741 situations under the local authority. The bulk of the situations found are for women and girls—1,602 out of a total of 1,910 in the twelve months, September 1st, 1904, to August 31st, 1905—very largely as domestic servants or charwomen. The bureau has apparently not been taken over by the Distress Committee.

Coventry.—The number of workpeople applying, the total number of situations offered (including those under the municipality) and the number and percentage of those filled has been as follows :—

	Workpeople Applying.	Situations Offered.	Situations Filled.	Percentage Filled of Situations Offered.
1905.	1,837	963	915	95·0
1906.	2,328	1,072	974	90·9
1907.	2,198	915	817	89·3

London Labour Bureaux.

The London Government Act, 1899, made a breach in the history of all the bureaux maintained by the London vestries, and it was held necessary in 1902 to pass the Labour Bureaux (London) Act to confirm the legality of expenditure on the maintenance of such institutions by the newly created borough councils. The Hackney bureau disappeared altogether. The bureau at Islington was not revived till November, 1904.

The institution of the London Unemployed Fund at the end of 1904, and the passage of the Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905, made a fresh breach, most of the existing bureaux being used for the registration of applicants for employment-relief, or at least having their officials diverted from the labour bureau work to the relief work. Finsbury forms almost the only exception to this rule.

The decision of the Central (Unemployed) Body for London in March, 1906, to establish a connected system of employment exchanges, led to the taking over by that body of all the then existing labour bureaux except that at Westminster, and to a consequent reorganisation which makes continuity of statistical records impossible.

* Cd. 4795, 1909.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (I).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

Battersea.—During the twelve years 1894 to 1905 the bureau filled also 801 situations under the local authority. Since January, 1906, no returns have been received, and the bureau is not mentioned by the Central (Unemployed) Body for London as one of those in existence in the middle of 1906.

Chelsea.—No returns are to hand after 1894. In December, 1904, a labour bureau was opened by the borough council in connection with the London Unemployed Fund, and was continued till taken over by the Central (Unemployed) Body.

Hackney, Islington, St. Pancras.—These bureaux served mainly or largely to supply men to the local authority, the numbers supplied being as follows :—

	Hackney.	Islington.	St. Pancras.
1894	—	728	90
1895	—	1,146	1,324
1896	2,054	1,429	768
1897	982	1,248	309
1898	1,173	1,258	117
1899	1,258	1,177	113
1900	995	1,210	543

Egham.—This appears to have been the first labour bureau started in this country preceding that at Ipswich by a few months. It was closed in 1894 on the passing of the Local Government Act. The figures given below are taken from the annual reports of the registry :—

	Applications.	Situations found.	Separate Applicants for whom found.
1888, Oct. 1st—1889, Sept. 30th	280	224	201
1889, Oct. 1st—1890, Sept. 30th	287	224	205
1890, Oct. 1st—1891, Sept. 30th	289	244	214
1891, Oct. 1st—1892, Dec. 31st	382	289	223
1893, Jan. 1st—1893, Dec. 31st	278	182	137
1894, Jan. 1st—1894, Dec. 31st	219	123	102

Salvation Army.—The figures in the table do not include situations under the Salvation Army itself, of which a large number are filled through the bureau, viz. :—

1898	-	-	-	-	2,656	1903	-	-	-	-	1,456
1899	-	-	-	-	2,386	1904	-	-	-	-	1,703
1900	-	-	-	-	2,762	1905	-	-	-	-	1,562
1901	-	-	-	-	2,621	1906	-	-	-	-	3,236
1902	-	-	-	-	2,075	1907	-	-	-	-	2,986

Returns are also available from March, 1895, to December, 1897, but do not always distinguish situations under the Salvation Army from those under private employers.

The bureau appears to deal only with men and boys.

Of the situations found during 1907, 51 per cent. are described as temporary, and 49 per cent. as permanent.

II.—LABOUR EXCHANGES AND EMPLOYMENT REGISTERS UNDER THE UNEMPLOYED WORKMEN ACT.

A.—Provincial Distress Committees in England and Wales.

In the return as to the proceedings of distress committees in England and Wales up to March 31st, 1906, prepared by the Local Government Board, it is stated that nineteen (out of a total of eighty-nine distress committees outside London) established labour exchanges or employment registers, while thirteen more took over existing exchanges.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (I).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

No clear general distinction, however, appears to be drawn between the establishing, assisting, or taking over of labour exchanges or employment registers under Section 1, Sub-section 4, of the Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905, and the registration of applicants for assistance under Section 1, Sub-section 2. Apparently, some of the labour exchanges or employment registers referred to in this return are no more than temporary distress registers. From the detailed notices in the return mentioned, and from the reports of separate distress committees, the following summary has been drawn up of proceedings during the first year of working.

The following distress committees (13) established labour exchanges, employment registers, or labour bureaux :—

Barrow-in-Furness	-	-	-	Closed in spring.
Bolton	-	-	-	Successful.
Grimsby	-	-	-	Closed in spring.
Leicester	-	-	-	
Hanley	-	-	-	Sixty-four men placed up to March.
Stockport	-	-	-	
Sunderland	-	-	-	Little success.
Tynemouth	-	-	-	" "
Walsall	-	-	-	" "
Warrington	-	-	-	Separate registration for labour exchange purposes. Some success.
West Ham	-	-	-	
Smethwick	-	-	-	Little success.
King's Norton	-	-	-	No success.
Northfleet	-	-	-	Labour exchange only. All the thirty-eight applicants placed.

It will be seen that only three of the distress committees speak of their work as successful, while in only two is it clear that the labour exchange was kept distinct from registration for distress purposes.

The following distress committees (12) took over labour bureaux, labour exchanges, or employment registers :—

Birkenhead	-	-	-	-	-	
Burnley	-	-	-	-	No success	
Dudley	-	-	-	-	Satisfactory	
Liverpool	-	-	-	-	No success	
Manchester	-	-	-	-	-	Taken over from corporation or council.
Newcastle	-	-	-	-	-	
Plymouth	-	-	-	-	-	
Southampton	-	-	-	-	-	
Wigan	-	-	-	-	-	
Kettering	-	-	-	-	-	
Kingston-upon-Hull	-	200 placed	-	-	-	Taken over from joint committee of council and guardians.
York	-	-	-	-	No response by employers.	Taken over from "Citizens' Association."

In no case is it clear that the labour exchange was in any way distinct from the distress register. In one or two cases, at least—Plymouth and Liverpool—the effect appears to have been to put an end to the previously separate existence of the labour exchange.

The following distress committees (19) appear to have used their distress register also for exchange purposes, communicating with employers by advertisement, public notice, or circular :—

Blackburn.	Newport.
Bournemouth.	Oldham.
Brighton.	West Bromwich.
Bristol.	Cheltenham.
Bury.	East Ham.
Cardiff.	Scarborough.
Derby.	Stockton-on-Tees.
Great Yarmouth.	Leyton.
Halifax.	Wallasey.
Middlesbrough.	

In ten cases comment is made on the failure of these efforts.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (I).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

Three distress committees—Birmingham, Nottingham, and Bradford—reported that the establishment of a labour exchange was under consideration in June, 1906. In the first two cases, at least, an exchange has been since established.

One distress committee—Croydon—reported that the exchange previously maintained by the corporation without being taken over by the distress committee was being worked in conjunction with it.

The following notes are taken from the Distress Committee Reports :—

Nottingham.—Labour Bureau, opened May 14th, 1906, as a separate department, the distress register being closed. In November, 1906, the distress register was re-opened and men were given the choice of being entered either on the labour bureau register (for ordinary employment) or on the distress register (for direct assistance under the Unemployed Workmen Act), *but not on both*. From May to November, 1906, 440 males and 21 females—461 persons registered at the labour bureau. From November, 1906, to March, 1907, 153 males and 17 females—170 persons registered at the labour bureau, while 236 registered for direct assistance under the Unemployed Workmen Act. From May 14th, 1906, to March 31st, 1907, 104 employers made application for 155 work-people (144 males and 11 females), and permanent work was obtained for 109 males and 11 females—of whom, so far as could be ascertained, 87 per cent. turned out well and remained at work.

Birmingham.—A labour bureau, quite distinct from the distress register, was opened in July, 1906. From that date to end of May, 1907, 2,909 persons registered, of whom 374 remained on the register at the close of the period. Ninety-two employers applied for men, and 107 men were placed in situations.

Newcastle-on-Tyne.—Labour bureau apparently identical for employment relief and exchange purposes. In the six months, October, 1906 to March, 1907, there were placed with private employers, 281 men, 17 lads, 103 women, and 46 girls ; making a total of 447 persons.

B.—Distress Committees in Scotland.

According to the Report by the Local Government Board for Scotland as to the proceedings of distress committees in Scotland up to May 15th, 1906, the only distress committee which till then had established a labour exchange quite apart from the office at which applications for relief work were received was the Edinburgh Committee. In Glasgow the labour exchange continued under the corporation.

The numbers of applications for workmen received by the various committees up to that date were as follows :—

Aberdeen	-	-	-	-	-	87
Edinburgh	-	-	-	-	-	259
Glasgow	-	-	-	-	-	2 (i.e., excluding the Corporation's labour exchange.)
Govan	-	-	-	-	-	2
Greenock	-	-	-	-	-	1
Inverness	-	-	-	-	-	1
Leith	-	-	-	-	-	8
Total	-	-	-	-	-	360

In Dalbeattie, Dumfries, Kilmarnock, Paisley, Partick, and Pollokshaws no applications were received from employers. In Dundee no record was kept, but the number is stated to have been very small.

C.—Central (Unemployed) Body for London.

In pursuance of a resolution passed in March, 1906, the Central (Unemployed) Body for London has established a system of twenty-five local exchanges connected by a central exchange and covering the area of London County, with the exception of Westminster, in which a separate bureau is still maintained by the City Council. This system is “under

APPENDIX No. XXI. (I.)—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

the direct control of the Central Body as a branch of its work, in offices, staff, and management altogether distinct from, and additional to the organisation of Metropolitan distress committees for the selection of unemployed applicants for relief work." The main results of the working of the system from the beginning in September, 1906, to the present time are given in Tables B (i), (ii), and (iii). The returns do not distinguish situations under local authorities from those under private employers, but it is stated that except in one instance—Islington—the number of the former is insignificant.

III.—RECENT STATISTICS OF BUREAUX OR EXCHANGES REPORTING TO LABOUR DEPARTMENT.

The Labour Department receives and publishes monthly returns from :—

(1) Twenty-five employment exchanges affiliated to the Central Employment Exchange and under the control of the Central (Unemployed) Body for London—Tables B (i), (ii), and (iii).

(2) Nineteen labour exchanges maintained by distress committees outside the county of London.—Table C.

(3) Four labour bureaux or exchanges maintained by municipalities and one maintained by a voluntary body—the Salvation Army. One of the four municipal bureaux is stated to be worked in conjunction with the distress committee.—Table D.

Returns have also been received, but are no longer received, from bureaux or exchanges at Wigan, Northfleet, Bristol, and Smethwick.

B.—EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGES UNDER CENTRAL UNEMPLOYED BODY.

(i) NUMBER OF SITUATIONS FILLED IN 1907.

Employment Exchange.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	12 months Jan. 1907 to Dec. 1907.
Battersea - - -	45	43	72	44	43	34	47	25	52	45	43	26	519
Bermondsey - - -	38	82	57	74	64	50	61	34	30	62	77	65	694
Bethnal Green - - -	76	74	88	54	89	77	70	47	54	62	64	31	786
Camberwell - - -	44	66	44	42	46	32	41	32	38	42	58	60	545
Chelsea - - -	4	15	63	61	71	48	63	45	54	61	78	33	596
Deptford - - -	48	47	46	76	103	62	37	63	55	34	50	36	657
Finsbury - - -	203	131	178	149	163	181	113	163	151	160	157	74	1,823
Fulham - - -	48	56	94	109	85	70	63	62	131	118	100	73	1,009
Greenwich - - -	96	76	65	64	68	35	96	99	54	56	41	25	775
Hackney - - -	39	39	83	66	77	58	50	56	67	96	70	60	761
Hammersmith - - -	42	37	71	38	38	41	57	43	39	49	77	62	594
Hampstead - - -	39	31	52	58	27	74	23	20	29	28	64	56	501
Islington - - -	99	142	169	83	87	98	90	87	64	62	91	60	1,132
Kensington - - -	45	16	40	32	30	38	51	39	37	48	52	57	485
Lambeth - - -	29	28	28	32	22	14	12	32	15	9	23	20	264
Lewisham - - -	48	62	98	130	90	75	97	51	105	72	91	35	954
Paddington - - -	163	43	67	46	58	47	54	174	35	52	118	70	927
Poplar - - -	31	41	49	32	44	61	35	50	47	46	68	31	535
St. Pancras - - -	32	23	98	40	47	23	27	43	32	35	35	27	462
St. Marylebone - - -	10	13	15	22	28	37	45	37	29	29	37	26	328
Shoreditch - - -	85	58	114	95	90	64	58	74	72	60	73	30	873
Southwark - - -	38	41	52	49	73	50	61	78	43	43	52	31	611
Stepney - - -	29	27	28	27	58	60	46	34	34	50	57	22	472
Wandsworth - - -	16	10	12	34	30	23	20	27	19	35	71	30	327
Woolwich - - -	13	23	23	24	48	45	34	36	46	40	60	36	428
Central Exchange (inclusive City)	7	4	18	16	-	-	2	2	12	1	-	4	66
Total - - -	1,367	1,228	1,724	1,497	1,579	1,397	1,353	1,453	1,344	1,395	1,707	1,080	17,124

* Revised Figures.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (I.)—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

(ii) NUMBERS ON LIVE REGISTERS AT END OF EACH MONTH.

	1907.											
	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Men - - - -	5,206	4,446	2,746	3,325	3,302	3,261	3,461	4,209	4,982	6,020	5,581	4,577
Boys under 18 - - -		365	263	388	376	427	457	532	569	600	456	354
Women - - - -	592	482	349	486	531	566	553	659	722	800	685	390
Girls under 18 - - -		121	62	145	172	132	221	172	217	182	173	85
Total - - - -	5,798	5,414	3,420	4,344	4,381	4,386	4,692	5,572	6,490	7,602	6,895	5,406

(iii) NUMBERS OF SITUATIONS OFFERED AND FILLED.

	1907.											
	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Men - - - -	1,163	O. 942	1,413	1,227	1,134	900	993	1,029	829	859	1,135	991*
Boys under 18 - - -		F. 727	1,121	961	825	732	677	880	682	667	941	641
Women - - - -	987	O. 293	374	336	458	378	324	292	344	390	432	247
Girls under 18 - - -		F. 183	278	246	341	277	265	235	247	286	318	204
Women - - - -	1,105	O. 533	644	477	514	392	404	356	498	502	523	318
Girls under 18 - - -		F. 177	203	181	237	208	211	183	264	277	302	175
Women - - - -	380	O. 238	327	238	357	298	275	253	342	283	229	107
Girls under 18 - - -		F. 141	122	109	176	180	200	155	151	165	146	60
Total - - - -	2,268											
Off - - - -		1,367	2,006	2,758	2,278	2,463	1,968	1,996	1,930	2,013	2,034	2,319
Filled - - - -			1,228	1,724	1,497	1,579	1,397	1,353	1,453	1,344	1,395	1,663*

For the eleven months, February–December, 1907, the percentages of situations offered which were filled through the Exchanges are :—Men, 77·3 ; Boys, 74·5 ; Women, 46·9 ; Girls, 54·5 ; Total, 67·3.

* Including 187 applicants engaged to commence work in January, 1908.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (I.)—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).*

C.—LABOUR EXCHANGES UNDER PROVINCIAL DISTRESS COMMITTEES.

SITUATIONS FILLED WITH PRIVATE EMPLOYERS.

Towns.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
1906.												
Birkenhead - - - -	20	6	45	38	4	8	8	2	—	—	13	34
Birmingham - - - -	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Dudley - - - - -	12	17	12	12	16	10	7	4	7	9	3	3
Halifax - - - - -	—	—	—	—	—	23	—	2	2	2	8	15
Ipswich - - - - -	14	18	12	20	23	18	13	15	16	11	7	9
Kingston-upon-Hull - -	—	—	—	—	—	6	4	11	14	14	3	30
Leicester - - - - -	—	—	—	—	—	3	6	—	2	1	5	7
Manchester - - - - -	108	74	149	119	153	44	76	71	86	95	102	240
Newcastle-on-Tyne - -	41	21	31	23	22	20	18	36	18	36	70	49
Nottingham - - - - -	—	—	—	—	—	36	28	26	23	26	13	31
Reading - - - - -	—	—	—	—	—	16	2	2	1	9	12	1
Salford - - - - -	—	—	—	—	—	8	26	—	1	—	2	3
Sunderland - - - - -	—	—	—	—	—	32	26	58	40	32	11	25
Warrington - - - - -	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	64	44
West Ham - - - - -	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	14	3	7
Aberdeen - - - - -	—	—	—	—	—	62	20	25	12	—	23	212
Edinburgh - - - - -	—	—	—	—	—	12	9	7	13	13	26	34
Govan - - - - -	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2
Dundee - - - - -	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1907.												
Birkenhead - - - - -	17	4	3	1	3	2	41	2	7	6	12	33
Birmingham - - - - -	—	—	—	—	—	9	9	5	6	11	4	12
Dudley - - - - -	11	12	10	3	5	4	14	6	8	3	2	6
Halifax - - - - -	12	3	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	1	—	—
Ipswich - - - - -	3	9	22	22	18	36	3	6	26	17	24	16
Kingston-upon-Hull - -	13	2	2	2	4	19	7	16	7	8	8	54
Leicester - - - - -	6	25	5	10	9	5	20	8	30	2	1	3
Manchester - - - - -	200	153	206	170	124	154	123	133	112	138	157	208
Newcastle-on-Tyne - -	46	51	61	31	22	21	31	30	16	25	26	36
Nottingham - - - - -	21	17	33	19	—	14	11	13	14	18	23	22
Reading - - - - -	1	3	4	6	3	2	—	3	1	2	16	22
Salford - - - - -	9	5	15	15	3	9	2	2	3	1	—	6
Sunderland - - - - -	46	29	60	52	42	49	43	25	29	30	47	46
Warrington - - - - -	87	45	37	37	62	58	45	29	59	54	50	62
West Ham - - - - -	2	10	15	18	164	10	6	3	16	16	—*	23
Aberdeen - - - - -	66	22	38	43	22	25	16	7	21	18	36	18
Edinburgh - - - - -	22	61	38	31	34	37	56	21	24	42	166	16
Govan - - - - -	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1
Dundee - - - - -	—	—	—	—	—	5	26	41	—	—*	2	—

APPENDIX No. XXI. (I).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

D.—LABOUR EXCHANGES NOT UNDER DISTRESS COMMITTEES.
SITUATIONS FILLED WITH PRIVATE EMPLOYERS.

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
1906												
Coventry - - - -	103	81	97	77	87	75	88	62	83	86	82	42
Croydon - - - -	63	31	39	44	30	25	13	28	35	63	76	50
Glasgow - - - -	157	172	174	170	226	175	179	171	177	164	173	130
Westminster - - -	42	56	66	106	122	20	95	96	No Returns.			
Salvation Army - - -	951	2,355	1,028	583	730	739	748	495	339	684	853	539
1907.												
Coventry - - - -	131	92	90	74	57	45	48	41	68	56	60	47
Croydon - - - -	65	57	56	73	37	27	97	28	38	62	135	46
Glasgow - - - -	168	160	184	211	212	176	169	153	157	145	—*	115
Westminster - - -	No	Returns.		47	110	62	111	68	97	59	32	21
Salvation Army - - -	533	152	313	285	694	263	289	423	668	605	1,239	1,333

* No Return.

TABLE E.—WORK DONE BY SEVENTEEN LABOUR BUREAUX DURING 1907.*
[Compiled from Returns furnished to the Department by the Bureaux.]

Month.	Number of Fresh Applications for Work during each Month.	Number of Situations offered by Employers during each Month.	Number of workpeople found Work during each Month.	Number of Applicants on Register at end of each Month.
January - - - -	4,959	2,248	2,042	9,777
February - - - -	3,531	1,365	1,281	9,390
March - - - -	2,861	1,335	1,195	8,181
April - - - -	2,917	1,470	1,340	6,804
May - - - -	2,635	1,679	1,589	5,819
June - - - -	2,284	1,242	1,166	5,830
July - - - -	2,823	1,372	1,274	6,312
August - - - -	2,663	1,158	1,057	6,535
September - - - -	3,328	1,455	1,339	7,249
October - - - -	3,291	1,563	1,438	7,525
November - - - -	7,194	2,648	2,175	10,440
December - - - -	5,690	2,448	2,331	11,282
Monthly Mean - - - -	3,681	1,665	1,519	7,929

* The names of the seventeen bureaux are as follows :—Salvation Army (Whitechapel Road, E.), Aberdeen, Birkenhead, Coventry, Croydon, Dudley, Edinburgh, Govan, Hull, Ipswich, Leicester, Manchester, Newcastle-on-Tyne, Reading, Salford, Sunderland, and Warrington. The London Municipal Bureaux are not included. They were re-organised in the latter half of 1906 in connection with the London Central (Unemployed) Body.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

OCCUPATIONS OF APPLICANTS REMAINING ON THE REGISTERS OF SEVENTEEN BUREAUX IN EACH MONTH OF 1907.

[Compiled from Returns furnished to the Department by the Bureaux.]

Month.	MEN.										LADS AND BOYS.	WOMEN AND GIRLS.				Grand Total.		
	Building Trades.		Engin- eering and Metal Trades.	Printing and Book- binding Trades.	Wood- working and Fur- nishing Trades.	Carmen Stable- men, Horse- men, &c.	Clerks and Ware- house- men.	Porters and Messen- gers.	Factory Opera- tives.	General Labour- ers.		Other Occupa- tions.	Total.	Char- women, Daily Work, &c.	Other Occupa- tions.		Total.	
	Labour- ers.	Others.																
January - - -	783	786	797	66	196	420	262	252	532	4,145	819	9,058	133	55	502	29	586	9,777
February - - -	801	723	686	65	141	407	221	240	586	4,164	681	8,715	97	64	478	36	578	9,390
March - - -	691	527	562	71	86	341	167	190	564	3,792	547	7,538	101	42	465	35	542	8,181
April - - -	519	420	636	61	94	351	182	182	367	2,811	537	6,160	85	59	448	52	559	6,804
May - - -	448	357	634	64	78	302	141	169	228	2,360	426	5,207	94	46	428	44	518	5,819
June - - -	437	339	738	60	78	306	144	187	243	2,221	402	5,155	111	48	463	53	564	5,830
July - - -	506	371	893	70	98	330	177	179	287	2,182	509	5,602	132	54	465	59	578	6,312
August - - -	457	437	825	53	94	304	163	160	424	2,456	478	5,851	142	50	451	41	542	6,535
September - - -	494	465	944	55	91	353	229	190	438	2,654	587	6,500	173	47	454	75	576	7,249
October - - -	567	585	922	67	113	318	220	214	450	2,776	550	6,782	162	50	445	86	581	7,525
November - - -	906	951	1,368	53	158	414	265	255	499	4,144	548	9,561	184	64	527	104	695	10,440
December - - -	956	1,064	1,382	37	206	373	196	228	484	4,869	749	10,544	178	49	430	81	560	11,282
Monthly Mean -	630	585	866	60	119	352	197	204	425	3,215	570	7,223	133	52	463	58	573	7,929

APPENDIX No. XXI. (J)

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

COUNTRY-BORN MEN IN LARGE TOWNS.

The following memorandum is based on an endeavour to obtain information with regard to the following points :—

A. *Persons in Distressed Circumstances.*

- (1) The proportion of persons in distressed circumstances who are town born that is, born in London or in a large provincial town.
- (2) The proportion born in country districts, that is, the proportion born in rural districts or in small towns.
- (3) The proportion who have worked as farm labourers at some time in their lives.

B. *Persons in Regular Employment.*

The class of employment in which country-born men are engaged in London and certain large provincial towns.

The sources from which particulars were obtained are, as regards A :—

The Salvation Army shelters, soup kitchens, and labour homes,
The Church Army homes, depots, and King's labour tents,
Distress committees formed under the Unemployed Workmen Act,
Rowton Houses,
Dock labourers,

and as regards B :—

Local authorities and other large employers of labour.

The information obtained relates to some 14,000 men unemployed or in irregular or casual employment in London and certain provincial towns, and to 19,500 men in regular employment in London and 22,500 in regular employment in the provinces.

A. *Persons in Distressed Circumstances.*

Taking first the figures obtained in London as regards men out of work, or in irregular or casual employment, the proportion of town-born and country-born men is given in Table A. In Table B information of a similar character is given for certain provincial towns. These particulars relate to February–April, 1906, with the exception of those for the Rowton Houses, which were taken for the Census of 1901.

TABLE A.

LONDON.

Source of Statistics.	Number of Men questioned.	Percentage of Town-born Men.	Percentage of Country-born Men.
		Per cent.	Per cent.
Salvation Army and Church Army Homes, shelters, and soup kitchens. (a)	4,168	86	14
Salvation Army and Church Army homes and shelters. (b)	455	89	11
Distress committees (Stepney, West Ham, and Bethnal Green). (c)	6,352	88	12
Rowton Houses (Newington and King's Cross). (d)	1,258	93	7
Dock labourers. (e)	465	86	14
Labourers and others in irregular employment at Poplar and Isle of Dogs. (f)	81	91	9

(a) Investigated by Salvation Army and Church Army officers.

(b) Investigated by two special investigators.

(c) Investigated by secretary or member of committee. The percentage of country-born men was by far the highest in West Ham, where of 4,703 men 15 per cent. were country-born.

(d) These particulars as to place of birth were obtained for the Census of 1901.

(e) Investigated by an official of a Dock Labourers' Trade Union.

(f) Investigated by a correspondent.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (J).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).*TABLE B.
PROVINCIAL TOWNS.

Source of Information.	Number of Men.	Percentage of Town-born Men.	Percentage of Country-born Men.
Salvation Army and Church Army Shelters in Birkenhead, Bolton, Bradford, Brighton, Derby, Glasgow, Gloucester, Leeds, Liverpool, Manchester, Newcastle, Nottingham, Plymouth, Preston, Reading, Sheffield, Southampton.	1,000	Per cent. 86	Per cent. 14
Newcastle Distress Committee - - - - -	224	94	6

With reference to the figures in Tables A and B, it will be seen that the proportion of country-born men varies from 6 to 14 per cent. If, however, the comparatively small number of cases reported on by the Newcastle Distress Committee be omitted, and also the men in Rowton Houses (who include a large proportion of London residents engaged in fixed occupations), the range is from 9 to 14 per cent. These figures, which refer to 14,000 men, certainly support the view that there is not a large proportion of country-born men among those who are unemployed, or only partially employed, in London and large Provincial towns. The dock labourers, who require strength and stamina, are likely to include a relatively high proportion of country-born men, and this probably accounts for a much higher percentage at West Ham (15 per cent.) than at Bethnal Green and Stepney of country-born men who applied to Distress Committees, as a number of dock labourers live in West Ham.

It should be observed that the figures for men in the institutions of the Salvation Army and Church Army cannot be entirely relied on, as the men there sometimes have an object in giving the impression that they are natives of other districts. To the shelters are attracted numerous tramps in the winter, who have no connection whatever with London, and who in warmer weather wander all over the country living as best they can. Moreover, London is frequently the resort of those who have got into trouble in other parts of England, and no doubt a certain proportion of such men come from rural districts, swelling the dregs of London's population, and adding to the difficulties of dealing with the question of the temporary unemployment of the resident population there.

With regard to the trades of the men in irregular work, in answer to the question, "What do you regard as your proper trade?" of about 5,000 men in the shelters and homes of the Salvation Army and Church Army in London and the provinces, 25 per cent. stated that they were general labourers, 13 per cent. building trade workers, and another 13 per cent. stated that they were in the engineering and metal trades; 19 per cent. stated that they had served in the regular army. Of 465 dock labourers in London, 32 per cent. described themselves as general labourers, 12 per cent. as carmen or stablemen, 6 per cent. as being in the building trades, and 8 per cent. as in the engineering and metal trades.

Two other facts in regard to this class may be noted:

(i) According to the statements made by about 5,000 men in the Salvation Army and Church Army homes and shelters, about 44 per cent. of them were under 35 years of age; and of the men born in the country who came to shelters and homes in London and the provinces, 40 per cent. were under 35 years of age.

(ii) Out of nearly 2,000 men in the shelters questioned as to the reasons for leaving their last permanent employment, 9 per cent. confessed that it was due to drink or "their own fault," and 16 per cent. ascribed it to illness or injury. The figures are very incomplete, as many naturally would not disclose the causes and events which reduced them to want, but the figures as given suggest that in the case of at least one quarter of the number it is very doubtful if they would be suited to any regular employment.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (J).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).*

The following Table gives the percentages of men who had worked on farms among those who were in irregular or casual work or out of employment in February–April, 1906 :—

TABLE C.

Source of Statistics.	Number of Men questioned.	Percentage of Men who had worked on Farms.
LONDON.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Salvation Army and Church homes and shelters (a) - - - -	455	11
Distress Committees in Stepney, West Ham,* Bethnal Green, Hampstead, St. Pancras, Paddington, Marylebone, Hammersmith, Bermondsey (b).	5,172	4
Dock Labourers (c) - - - - -	465	11
Labourers and others in irregular employment in Poplar and the Isle of Dogs (d).	81	11
PROVINCES.		
Newcastle-on-Tyne Distress Committee (b) - - - - -	224	3

* The number of men who were questioned for this purpose at West Ham was 717.

- (a) Investigated by two special investigators.
- (b) Investigated by secretary or member of Committee.
- (c) Investigated by an official of a Dock Labourers' Trade Union.
- (d) Investigated by a correspondent.

It will be seen from this Table that among this class of men the proportion of those who had been farm labourers is not large. In the Church Army and Salvation Army Institutions, and among dock labourers, the proportion is 11 per cent. The proportion among men who applied for relief to Distress Committees in London is much smaller (4 per cent.).

In addition to the figures given in Table C, the Church Army and the Salvation Army officers obtained, from about 5,000 men in their shelters and homes, information as to whether they had been accustomed to farm work. But the information sent is unreliable, and contrary to what officers of great experience in those organisations know to be the case. The proportion from these sources, according to the replies of about 4,000 men in London, is 17 per cent.; and of about 1,000 men in provincial towns is 20 per cent. In both cases this percentage of men accustomed to farm work is larger than that of those country born, which suggests that the figures as regards farm work are untrustworthy. The large percentages are probably due to some extent to the fact that a number of men, upon being asked, when they come to a soup kitchen or shelter, if they have ever worked as a farm labourer, reply in the affirmative, because they think that possibly it is the intention to offer them some work in the country. Again, numerous men say that they have worked on a farm if they have simply gone hay-making or "hopping" in the summer, or done a little casual potato lifting when on tramp in the country. Although the officers and superintendents of the Salvation Army and Church Army were asked to exclude such men, it was probably often impossible to question them sufficiently on this point, particularly at soup kitchens and shelters. Further, to get at the real truth, in many cases would require a skilled investigator, with a knowledge of agriculture. On the other hand the particulars referring to the Salvation Army and Church Army, which are actually included in Table C, were obtained by two investigators who took great pains to interrogate each man closely on this particular matter, and it will be seen that the figures are smaller than those just mentioned.

The figures in Table C certainly show that a comparatively small proportion of men among the London unemployed have a knowledge of farm work. If it had been possible to ascertain from each man the extent of his knowledge, the length of time he had served on a farm, and the number of years since he had been a farm labourer, the sum total of agricultural knowledge would probably amount to comparatively little. As illustrations of this it may be of interest to give some particulars of cases, furnished by the Paddington Distress Committee and by investigators at Church Army and Salvation Army Homes.

Out of 298 applicants to the Paddington Distress Committee, the following 14 (4·7 per cent.) had some knowledge of farm work :—

APPENDIX No. XXI. (J).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).*

1. A stoker, aged 43, had worked on land and understands steam plough and machinery.
2. General labourer, aged 24, was at farm work when a boy.
3. Carman, aged 24, was at farm work when a boy.
4. Labourer, aged 28, was a farm labourer for five years.
5. Carman, aged 29, was at farm work when young.
6. Labourer, aged 36, was hedging and ditching in the country several years ago.
7. Gardener, aged 37, was at farm work when young.
8. Labourer, aged 38, was at farm work before 1887, afterwards in the Army.
9. Labourer, aged 38, was at farm work when young.
10. Labourer, aged 45, was at farm work and driving some years ago.
11. Labourer, aged 49, was at farm work until 12 years ago.
12. Labourer, aged 49, was brought up on a farm and did farm work until 1885.
13. Labourer, aged 50, was at farm work when young.
14. Blind maker, aged 54, was at farm work and garden work when young.

The following examples of men with some knowledge of farm work are taken from notes made by investigators at Church Army and Salvation Army Homes :—

Labourer, aged 45, born in Liverpool, was 12 years in the Regular Army and afterwards worked as a farm labourer at Sittingbourne for 7 years, left this employment 7 years ago.

Asylum Attendant, aged 30, born in rural district in County Dublin. Lived on his father's farm till 23 years old. Understands general farm work, and particularly cattle.

Cattleman, aged 46, born in a rural district in Nottinghamshire. Till 30 years old worked as cattleman in Notts. Also understands sheep and pigs.

Miner, aged 41, born in a rural district in Herefordshire, did general work on a farm for 3 years in Herefordshire up to two years ago.

Horsekeeper, aged 51, born at Dawlish, was a horse and cattleman on a farm in Herefordshire for 11 years (left in 1905). Was in the Army Service Corps 12 years (23 years ago).

Carman, aged 28, born at Leeds, worked for 18 months on a farm when 13–14 years of age.

Painter, aged 35, born at Marazion (Cornwall), 20 years ago worked for 1 year on a farm.

Gardener, aged 47, born at Newbury, worked among horses, cows, poultry, &c., 10 years ago; was in the Army Service Corps till 1890.

Storekeeper, aged 50, born at Sheering, Harlow, Essex, lived on father's farm till 30 years of age. Understands horses and stock.

Farm Carter, aged 20, born at Tunbridge Wells, was horseman on a farm for $2\frac{1}{2}$ years. Left in October, 1905.

The experience in Birmingham appears to be much the same as in London. Mr. T. Tillyard, writing in the "Economic Journal" in December, 1905, with reference to the work in connection with the unemployed in that city, says :—

"There is only one other fact which I want to mention, and that is the fate of the country immigrant. To all intents and purposes he was not among the recipients of relief. Very soon after the starting of the fund we had some applications from farmers for labourers with some experience of country life and country work. They would have been content with anyone born in the country and brought up to farm labour during boyhood and youth. Town-bred men they did not want. These offers of employment were sent round to the district secretaries, who were very keen on getting men to work. We filled up three situations, but could not fill up a fourth. Besides the three men actually sent, I interviewed two others, who were country-bred and out of work, but who preferred to stay in Birmingham, as they thought their children would have a better chance here than in the country. Five men out of 7,000 is a negligible quantity. . . . But evidently the country immigrant is a respectable thrifty citizen who does not come on relief funds."

In the appendix some details are given of a number of individual cases of irregular work or unemployment, and its causes.

B. *Persons in Regular Employment.*

Turning now to the evidence relating to those in regular employment, the following Tables (D. and E.) give particulars as to the proportion of town-born and country-born men employed by certain large employers of labour in London and the Provinces respectively, and also the percentage of those who have (to whatever extent) worked on farms.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (J).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*TABLE D.
LONDON.

<i>Name of Industry.</i>	<i>Number of Men questioned.*</i>	<i>Percentage of Town-born Men.</i>	<i>Percentage of Country-born Men.</i>	<i>Percentage of Men who have worked on Farms.</i>
		<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
General Post Office (labourers, wiremen, etc.) ...	1,840	82	18	6
General Post Office (mail-cart service) ...	375	81	19	7
Metropolitan Police (inner divisions) ...	5,657	34	66	25
Westminster City Council ...	913	79	21	12
Great Northern Railway (goods porters) ...	100	70	30	18
Great Northern Railway (stablemen) ...	200	40	60	47
London and South-Western Railway ...	165	Not stated.	Not stated.	27
South-Eastern and Chatham Railway (porters, guards, signalmen, etc.) ...	764	62	38	20
A firm of Builders and Contractors ...	327	66	34	13
A firm of Builders and Contractors ...	467	70	30	24
A Brewery ...	94	66	34	23
A Brewery ...	728	48	52	31
A Brewery ...	Not stated.	47	53	35
A Brewery ...	920	35	65	37
Civil Service Stores (packers, porters, etc.) ...	176	82	18	6
Large general supply stores (porters, stablemen, etc.) ...	489	40	60	24
Manufactory of Sugar Goods ...	549	77	23	8
Manufactory of Jams, Pickles, etc. ...	625	77	23	5
Gas Light and Coke Company ...	320	84	16	7
South Metropolitan Gas Company ...	4,952	54	46	25

* In some cases the employers questioned all their workpeople, but in others they took a number of men forming a representative sample.

TABLE E.
PROVINCES.

<i>Nature of Industry.</i>	<i>Number of men questioned.*</i>	<i>Percentage of Town-born men.</i>	<i>Percentage of Country-born men.</i>	<i>Percentage of men who have worked on Farms.</i>
		<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
General Post Office (labourers, wiremen, etc., at Birmingham, Liverpool, Manchester, etc.) ...	293	73	27	8
General Post Office (mail-cart drivers at Birmingham, Liverpool, Manchester, etc.) ...	443	67	33	23
Glasgow Police ...	292	9	91	47
Midland Railway (Derby) ...	600	51	49	22
Newcastle-on-Tyne Corporation ...	1,160	63	37	24
Sunderland Corporation ...	543	79	21	18
Leeds ...	100	72	28	12
Bradford ...	382	67	33	22
Sheffield ...	1,143	74	26	17
Hull ...	777	56	44	29
Bolton ...	319	68	32	21
Nottingham ...	1,375	59	41	16
Leicester ...	563	46	54	37
Birmingham ...	2,568	63	37	23
Norwich ...	378	63	37	25
Croydon ...	581	55	45	38
Brighton ...	349	66	34	28
Portsmouth ...	405	64	36	21
Bristol ...	1,503	63	37	12
Plymouth ...	412	58	42	24
Cardiff ...	356	59	41	21
Glasgow ...	6,445	53	47	35
Dundee ...	554	54	46	44
Manchester Corporation Tramways (drivers and conductors) ...	100	73	27	19
Bristol Tramways and Carriage Company (drivers) ...	200	49	51	Not stated.
A large Manufactory at York ...	638	75	25	12
A large Manufactory at Bristol ...	100	70	30	7

* In some cases the employers questioned all their workmen, but in others they took a number of men forming a representative sample.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (J).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

Of the total number (19,496) of men employed in London in the occupations set out in Table D, 8,957, or 46 per cent., were country-born, and 4,201, or 22 per cent., were accustomed to farm work. Of the 22,569 men in the provinces (Table E), 9,217, or 41 per cent., were country-born, and 5,848, or 26 per cent., were accustomed to farm work.

In London, out of 5,657 policemen in the "Inner Divisions," 66 per cent. are country-born and 25 per cent. have been accustomed to farm work.

Four large London breweries have the following percentage of their men who have been farm labourers: 23, 31, 35, and 37. In two of these cases the proportion of country-born men is about 50 per cent., and in another case 65.

Out of 4,952 men employed by the South Metropolitan Gas Company, one-fourth have been farm labourers.

A well-known company which does a very large general business in and around London, and also a very large contractor, have former farm labourers in their employ to the extent of 24 per cent. A large railway company has 18 per cent. of goods porters at the London terminus who were farm labourers and 47 per cent. of the stablemen. Two other large railway companies have 27 and 20 per cent., respectively, of former farm labourers among men in their London stations.

Turning to the provinces and the occupations set out in Table E, 91 per cent. of a representative section of the Glasgow police are country-born and 47 per cent. have worked on farms.

Taking 12,558 workpeople employed by sixteen large municipal corporations in England, 37 per cent. were country-born and 22 per cent. have been farm labourers. In Wales 41 per cent. of 346 workpeople employed by the Corporation of Cardiff were country-born, and 21 per cent. have been farm labourers, while in Scotland, out of 6,999 employees of the Glasgow and Dundee Corporations, 47 per cent. were country-born, and 36 per cent. were formerly employed on farms.

Of the Midland Railway men employed at Derby, out of 600 men, 49 per cent. were born in rural districts, and 22 per cent. have been farm labourers. These men are employed in the following departments: goods, coaching, locomotive, engineer's, carriage, and wagon.

According to information given by a number of employers, most of the men who come to London from rural districts do so while under twenty-five years of age, and they usually secure their situations beforehand. The manager of a large business in London, where 60 per cent. out of nearly 500 men are country-born, states that he prefers men from the country to Londoners, as they are more steady and reliable. A similar statement was made by a responsible official at one of the London railway termini.

The following Table, showing the districts where the men employed by the South Metropolitan Gas Company were born, is perhaps of sufficient interest to be inserted here. Taking those born in country districts, it will be seen that the numbers decrease as the distance from London increases. This, however, is probably due in part to absorption by other large towns in the Midlands, the North, and South Wales. The proportion of men from rural districts in Rings 1 and 2 (37 per cent. of the total number of employees who were born in England and Wales) is very large.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (J).—*Continued.*

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

TABLE showing the DISTRICTS in which the MEN in the EMPLOYMENT of the SOUTH METROPOLITAN GAS COMPANY were born.

Counties arranged in Rings at increasing distances from London.	Number born in London or large Provincial Towns.	Number born in Agricultural Villages, &c.	Total.		Proportion of total per 100,000 of population of Counties in Ring.
			Number.	Per cent.	
<i>Ring 1.</i> —London, Middlesex, Surrey, Kent, and Essex.	2,415	947	3,362	70·4	42
<i>Ring 2.</i> —Suffolk, Cambridge, Huntingdon, Bedford, Hertford, Buckingham, Oxford, Berkshire, Hampshire, and Sussex.	49	803	857	18·0	28
<i>Ring 3.</i> —Norfolk, Northampton, Rutland, Leicester, Warwick, Worcester, Gloucester, Wiltshire, and Dorset.	60	229	289	6·1	8
<i>Ring 4.</i> —Lincoln, Nottingham, Derby, Stafford, Shropshire, Hereford, Monmouth, and Somerset	30	78	108	2·3	3
<i>Ring 5.</i> —Yorkshire, Cheshire, Lancashire, Westmorland, Flint, Denbigh, Merioneth, Montgomery, Radnor, Brecknock, Glamorgan, and Devonshire.	61	61	122	2·5	1
<i>Ring 6.</i> —Northumberland, Durham, Cumberland, Carnarvon, Anglesey, Cardigan, Pembroke, Carmarthen, and Cornwall.	22	12	34	0·7	1
TOTAL BORN IN ENGLAND AND WALES -	2,637	2,135	4,772	100·0	15

Conclusions.

The investigations which have thus been summarised appear to justify the following conclusions:—

(i) The greater part of the poverty and distress prevalent in London and the large provincial towns is amongst the town-bred part of the population, and not among the country-bred.

(ii) The countrymen who migrate to large towns are, in the main, physically strong and of good character, and frequently move to the towns to fill definite positions which have been secured beforehand.

(iii) Such men generally obtain good employment, especially in outdoor trades, which resemble somewhat those to which they have been accustomed in the country, and in situations requiring special steadiness and reliability.

(iv) That country immigrants do not, to any considerable extent, directly swell the ranks of those who are more or less in a chronic state of unemployment in the large towns. The unemployed of this class are, in the main, town-bred, and recruited from those who have sunk to the bottom of the social scale.

A. W. F.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (J).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

NOTES ON INTERVIEWS IN SALVATION ARMY SHELTERS AND SOUP KITCHENS DURING FEBRUARY AND MARCH, 1906.

No. 1.

Aged 25. Married. A carpenter, who understands blacksmith's work. Was driving an electric car in Manchester. Came to London two years ago. Has had no regular work since last August, except for two weeks. Recently broke up his home. His wife is now in service in Whitechapel.

No. 2.

Aged 28. Is a labourer. Irish. Unmarried. Born in Dublin. Father a labourer. Was at Paddington Station four years as porter. Then went to East End, and was employed in a butter factory. Left there two weeks ago, and has had no work since. Sleeps anywhere he can, one night in, and three nights out.

No. 3.

Aged 30. Unmarried. Father was a waiter in London. Was a clerk originally, afterwards was in the kitchen of a large London restaurant; also time-keeper in a large hotel; also ledger clerk with a company. He has been out of work for 12 months. Used to drink a bit. Says he does not do so now. Is living from hand to mouth. To-night is his first night out. His sister helps him sometimes.

No. 4.

Aged 31. Born in Ipswich. Father a nurseryman. Widower with three children, one child with his mother, another with his brother, a third he pays for, but has no money to do so now. Has been to London 14 years. Is a carpenter by trade. Been out of work from three weeks before Christmas. Has pawned his tools, and is living from hand to mouth. Has slept out on several nights lately.

No. 5.

Aged 29. Came from Bradford. Is a mason. Unmarried. Was in the Royal Engineers for five years, and has a very good discharge April, 1905. Since has worked as bricklayer at Salisbury Plain on new barracks. Then came to London and worked as labourer for London County Council up to two weeks before Christmas. Has had no work since, and has lived on savings. Has now spent all.

No. 6.

Aged 61. Born in Surrey. Father a cooper. Has been at sea all his life in fishing boats, trading vessels, liners, and all sorts of ships. (Produces discharges.) Came from Grimsby two weeks before Christmas, and has been living on a few shillings he had saved, now he has nothing. Came to Salvation Army to-night for the first time. Hopes he may get some work on a boat this summer, but fears that he is getting old.

No. 7.

Aged 25. Came from Sheffield. Unmarried. Father alive, who works at a silversmith's. Was an improver in tin trade. Came to London 18 months ago on account of slack trade, and got a job looking after a trap. His employer sold his business. He then got ill, and went to hospital for a month. Since he came out, a few weeks ago, has had no work, and has walked about since Sunday morning (four days). Is very thinly clad.

No. 8.

Aged 31 years. Born at Brighton. Unmarried. Father a cab proprietor. When a lad he helped his father, who died 16 years ago. Has since been in London selling toys and flowers in the street. Things have been bad lately, and he is now entirely out of funds. Is on the look-out for work, but has no trade.

No. 9.

Aged 20. Came from Hampstead, where his parents lived with their family of three girls and three boys. Is in the Militia, and when serving last summer his parents deserted their home and children, and have not been seen since. The Barnardo Homes sent a sister to Canada, and they have two sisters, one about two years old, and a brother in their homes in England now. One brother has gone to sea. Up to August last worked on tube railway construction, since then has done nothing, and has slept anywhere—outdoors or in vans. Tried for the Army, but was rejected on account of bad teeth. Would like to go to Canada.

No. 10.

Aged 26. Unmarried. Came from a large town in the Midlands. Father was manager of gas works. Was a clerk in Sheffield. Been in London four years, during which time he had work for three years as bookkeeper and dispatch clerk. For the last year has only had irregular work, and very little since last August.

No. 11.

Aged 22. Unmarried. Born at Dulwich. Father was a clerk. Does not know where his father and mother are. Has not seen them for five years. Is a carpenter. Out of work for last three months. Has had several nights out in the streets lately.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (J).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

No. 12.

Aged 27. Unmarried. Came from Edinburgh six years ago. Was in a draper's shop there. Has been in two shops in London. Out of work since February 1905. "Got the sack" owing to slack trade. Clothes so shabby it is difficult to get work. Has slept out for several nights lately. Is ready to do anything.

No. 13.

Aged 55. Born in a town in Berkshire. Father a gardener. Was in police 1880-2, in a country town, and says that he resigned. Has since worked as a general labourer, and at gas works. Married in 1871, wife dead. Had four boys. They all left him ten years ago. Youngest was five years old. Admits that he drank. After this he lived in London, and has worked in the building trade, as a labourer, and at bill-posting and as a "sandwich man." Has often been a "sandwich man" during the last four years. Always goes "hopping" in Kent in the summer. Has slept in Salvation Army shelters ever since he came back from "hopping" last summer.

No. 14.

Aged about 60. Born in a small country town. Father a publican. His relations were small farmers. Lived on a farm up to twelve years of age with his grandfather. After that lived in a country town, and was apprenticed to a plumber and painter. For seven years after his father died he managed the public house. He had a bit of money left him and then went into the coal business and this failed. He then had a serious illness, and then worked at his trade in different towns all over the country. He has now been in London two years trying to work at his trade. Has been very unfortunate, doing nothing for months. It is not easy to get work owing to his age. Three months ago he went on the tramp for work, and got as far as Devonshire. He had to go to a casual ward there for the first time. Last week he was living in a lodging in Westminster. Never was at the Salvation Army shelter before to-day, but has no more money. He walked about all last night, getting a sit down where he could.

No. 15.

Aged 45. Single. A grocer. Born in London. Brought up near London. Was apprenticed to a Co-operative Society near London for six years. Afterwards worked at a good many other Co-operative Societies in different parts of the country. Had a good deal of ill-health for some time, and subsequently got work on a railway, getting employed as a signaller later on. Was in the service six years. Resigned owing to a row about the signals. Then went back to his trade. Afterwards went to another railway. Was there 12 months, but left owing to night-work. Then went to another railway in London. Was there six months, but left on account of illness. This was three years ago, and he has had no regular work since. Has done bill delivering, and board carrying. Is sleeping at Salvation Army shelters some nights and walking about other nights.

No. 16.

Aged 64. Born in London. Sells oils and whipcord to cabmen. Was a bandsman in the Grenadier Guards for 12 years, beginning at 15 years of age. Was also in a Navy band and was on several Men-of-War. Has done a lot of Militia training as a bandsman. Has been selling in the street for three years. Has been lodging with Salvation Army for a month.

No. 17.

Aged 58. Born in Jersey. Was at school in France. About 23 years of age came to London. Got a situation in an hotel in the West End of London. From 23 years of age up to last October was in regular work at hotels and with good families. Says that he saved £200, but was swindled out of it by a person to whom he gave it for investment. During the last two weeks has walked about the streets for seven nights, on four of these nights went to Salvation Army soup kitchen. Has had to pawn most of his clothes, so it will be very difficult to get a place as waiter. Is ready to do anything.

No. 18.

Aged 54. Father was a miller in the West of England. Lived there until he was 17. Was educated in a Grammar School in the country. Came to London at 17 years of age. Was Assistant Master at two private schools in London up to 21 years of age. Then returned home, being unwell, owing to his working too hard trying to matriculate. The doctor advised an outdoor life, so he travelled for a brewery for four and a half years in the country. Then he travelled for a wine and spirit merchant in a large town for 20 years. Then he took to gambling, and got wrong with his accounts, and ended by being discharged. He was then making £300 a year, salary and commission, and his home was sold up. He was married and had a daughter. Both wife and daughter are living now. He came from the country to London in January last, thinking he might get work from a relative who is connected with the building trade, but they cannot employ him as he knows nothing of the trade. He had £3 when he came to London, but this is all gone now. When he first came up he slept in a coffee-house, then in Rowton House, and he has been sleeping at the Salvation Army for the last four nights. Says that he has no one to thank but himself for the plight he is in. Thinks it hard that he should be punished all his life for what he did.

No. 19.

Aged 46. Unmarried. Came from a large town in the Midlands. Father was a tallow chandler. Was apprenticed to the drapery trade. After that was a well-to-do draper's assistant. Was in a seaside town for 10 years in the same place. Afterwards was in London in the same capacity. Three years ago went for a week on the "bust," and lost his place in consequence. Says he has been very heavily punished for this, as

APPENDIX No. XXI. (J).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

he has been doing nothing ever since. For a short time he was odd porter at a London hospital. Has superintended men giving bills away in the street, and jobs of that sort. Has nearly come to the end of the chapter with a few coppers. He says that it looks like his becoming a tramp, though he longs to be a respectable man, and really wants a chance and some work. He adds, "I have only made one silly blunder; it is very hard. I shall gradually get more untidily dressed and sink. I have very nearly lost my pluck and sometimes I want to get out of it all."

No. 20

Aged 34. Born in Scotland. Was in the Gordon Highlanders at 18 years of age. Served in the Tirah Campaign; also in South Africa—was at Belmont, Graspan, Modder River, Magersfontein, Paardeburg, and Diamond Hill. Went into Pretoria with Lord Roberts and afterwards was with Sir Ian Hamilton. Left the army in 1902 with a good discharge. Has been doing casual work in the London Docks. Is at present doing some work with the Salvation Army. Would like to go to Canada.

No. 21.

Aged 32. Was in the Coldstream Guards. Was 3 years in South Africa and fought under Lord Methuen. Left the army in 1903. Good discharge. Was uniform man at a London hotel. Was head porter at a hotel near London. Then worked in Windsor Park as a labourer. Understands engines. Is married. His wife is matron at an institution in Yorkshire. His boy of 11 years of age is with his wife's parents. His own father was an engine driver on the Great Northern. Is now employed by Salvation Army looking after engines. Is anxious to find some employment and get his home together. Would be willing to go to Canada.

No. 22.

Aged 30 years. Born in Somers Town. Remembers no parents. Can remember being taken to the police station at 6 years old for stealing. When a small boy lodged with an old man and woman who had three or four other boys and girls there. They kept a place for drinking and gambling, and enticed people in. The children were kept there to pick the people's pockets. About 12 years of age he was brought before the magistrate at Clerkenwell for stealing and sent to a reformatory. At 16 he came out and he was got a situation at shoemaking. After two months he ran away and got back to Somers Town, where he found his old chums. From the age of 16 up to the time of the King's Coronation he was in and out of jail. He thinks that he was never out of jail more than a month at a time. When he was 18, he got 12 months for stealing a watch. A few weeks after he had come out of prison for this, he got 18 months for housebreaking. At the Queen's Diamond Jubilee he got 5 years for stealing, and assaulting the police. The judge said that if he came before him again he should have the "cat." The first 9 months of this sentence he spent at Wormwood Scrubs, the rest of the time he was at Dartmoor. Then he went on the tramp in the country and had several convictions for begging. The last time he was in St. Albans jail. When he came out he went up to London for the King's Coronation to see what he could "pick up." He got drunk, had most of his clothes stolen, and found himself in Hyde Park. A gentleman told him that he would give him in charge unless he would go down to the Salvation Army, and he went there. He is now working for them in a shelter.

No. 23.

Aged 50. Born in London. Unmarried. Was a horse-keeper and so was his father. When about 26 years of age "got the sack for speaking a bit sharply." Did not keep his time properly, and once or twice got drunk. Ever since then has been a sandwich man and bill distributor, takes 6s. or 7s. a week full time. Has been in the union a few times, but would rather walk about than go there as he has to do stone-breaking. Last time he was there he got into trouble as he refused to do the work. Cannot get a place as he has no character.

No. 24.

Aged 47. Born in London. Unmarried. Father was a clerk. Learnt building all round. Has had two businesses of his own, employing six or seven men, painting, decorating, glazing, &c. Had no capital and lost his business twice and then had to go as a journeyman. For the last five years, owing to depression in the building trade, his work has been very irregular. Is in very low water. Had nothing to eat all day. Borrowed 2*d.* for a bed.

No. 25.

Aged 21. Unmarried. Born in Poplar. Father did odd work at the docks. Father died five years ago and mother three years. Has a sister 23 years of age somewhere in Berkshire in service. After leaving school went to some works near London where they make telegraph plant and was there 4½ years; then went to some work at Greenwich, and after 15 months left there owing to slackness of trade. Then he worked on the Rotherhithe tunnel for four months; then on the new tramway from Lewisham to Catford. Since then has done a few days' work at the docks.

To-day in the morning he helped a coal man unload in the Strand and got 2*d.*; in the afternoon he went over Waterloo Bridge and met a man selling coke and he helped him and got 4*d.* "To-night I have paid 2*d.* for my bed, 2*d.* for my supper, and I have 2*d.* left. This is my life now." He has come to the Salvation Army Shelter for the last six weeks, except three nights he slept out.

No. 26.

Aged 56. Widower. Born in Ayrshire. Has two sons both engineers in Glasgow. Has not seen them for some time. His daughter, aged 19, is living with his sister. Father was an engineman in Scotland. Went into the Navy at 16, and remained there till 30. Then worked for a telegraph company as a wireman, and for the General Post Office up to two years ago. Says he was paid off when they reduced the staff as he was one of the older men.

He now delivers bills, addresses envelopes, carries boards. Earned 3s. last week, and can only just exist on that. Says his clothes are too bad to enable him to get a job.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (J).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).*

No. 27.

Aged 36. Born at New Cross. Unmarried. After leaving school was boy porter at hotels. Up to eight months ago was plate cleaner at a large hotel near Trafalgar Square. Got discharged from there, owing to "going on the bust" for a few days. "Have only done a few odd days there since, but hope to get back when the season begins. Am walking about now doing nothing. I have had a lesson walking about all night. It is cruel perishing at night, enough to make you wish you were dead. Jolly sorry I didn't look after my place better. My sister helps me sometimes; she is married and you can't go there too often."

No. 28.

Aged 30. Unmarried. Born in London. Father is fruiterer and greengrocer. Helped his father till 24. Then went to sea as a ship's steward. Left an American liner because he "made a fool of himself and got the sack" (in 1902). Then went to the Docks in Southampton. Was laid up nearly all 1903 in Southampton Infirmary. Has been in London 15 months "knocking about." Last summer for three months was gruelling horses for the Road Car Company. Since then has been distributing bills or any odd jobs.

No. 29.

Aged 52. Born in Salford. Widower, one daughter, aged 20, alive. Father was lithographer and printer. Served his time in the North as a packing case maker. Worked with the same firm till 30. Then worked at his trade in a Lancashire town for six years. After that did labouring work in Birmingham and London up to 1900. Then worked at Newhaven and at Southampton Docks till 1903. Was in the Southampton Infirmary a long time, and then worked at the Docks there again till last August when he came to London. Has since then been carrying boards and delivering bills. Health is very bad.

No. 30.

Aged 55. Widower. Born at Knightsbridge Barracks; father and grandfather were in the 2nd Life Guards. When he was seven years of age his father died. His mother went to Lancashire and he worked in the mills from 8 to 11. His mother returned to London and married again. For 18 months he was then errand boy at a shop. Then went as indoor boy in a house near Eaton Square for 3½ years. Then went as servant to a peer, and remained there till 1868, when his employer died. He stayed on with his late employer's brother who succeeded to the title. This employer died in 1873, but he remained as valet to his son who succeeded to the title. His late employer left him £500. In 1875 he set up a confectionery business with his wife, who had been cook in his last place. He lost his money in this business. He then was butler to a Cabinet Minister, and subsequently was glass butler to the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, after that was butler to a lady in London up to 1901, when she died. Then lived on the little money he saved, and has been carrying boards ever since.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

INSURANCE AGAINST UNEMPLOYMENT IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

I.—INTRODUCTION AND SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS.

The defining characteristics of “insurance” in a commercial sense are the following :—

1. That in return for premiums paid the persons insured obtain a legal right to compensatory payments on the occurrence of specified misfortunes—fire, burglary, shipwreck or the like.

2. That the premiums paid by the whole body of the insured should be so adjusted as to cover the payments out, together with administrative expenses and undertaker's profits.

It does not appear that anything in the nature of insurance against unemployment, in this full commercial sense of the word, is to be found in any country. One or other, if not both, of the defining characteristics is lacking. The systems of unemployed benefit or out-of-work pay organised by trade unions are self-supporting in the sense that all payments out to members are covered by their payments into a common fund. But the payments in are as a rule neither specifically allocated as premiums to the purpose of this insurance nor actuarially adjusted to meet its claims (being capable of indefinite expansion in the form of extraordinary levies), and the payments out are not the subject of a legal claim. In the two leading cases—the United Kingdom and the German Empire—a legally enforceable right of unemployed members of a trades union to out-of-work pay is expressly excluded: in the United Kingdom by Section 4 of the Trade Union Act, 1871; in the German Empire by the regulations of the trade unions themselves, framed specifically to avoid the laws governing insurance companies. On the other hand schemes of direct municipal insurance of the unemployed as found in operation at Berne and Cologne, though they may give a legal claim to the insured person, are in no case self-supporting. The premiums paid by the insured have to be supplemented by grants from public funds or by voluntary donations. Finally, the so-called “Ghent system” of public subventions to trade unions or other thrift associations paying allowances to their unemployed members implies a direct abandonment of the attempt at insurance upon commercial lines.

The word “insurance” must therefore, in regard to unemployment, be taken in a looser sense as implying any system for providing compensation or allowances to unemployed workpeople, in which :

1. The payment out of such allowances is conditional upon the previous payment in of specified contributions on the part of the insured—whether such contributions are actuarially adequate or not.

2. The allowance is definite and claimable as of moral if not legal right, without any diminution of self-esteem.

The various schemes and proposals described below, as all falling within this looser definition, are of five main types.

(A) Trade Union Unemployed Benefit on a self-supporting basis (United Kingdom, Germany, and, to a smaller extent, almost all other industrial countries).

(B) Direct Voluntary Insurance of individuals by a municipal Fund (Berne), by a private Fund (Leipzig), or by a private Fund with municipal support (Cologne, Basle, Bologna to 1901, Venice).

(C) Direct Compulsory Insurance of individuals by a municipal Fund (St. Gall).

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

(D) Subventions to Trade Unions or other associations making allowances to their unemployed members. The subvention may come from voluntary sources (Milan) or public sources, which may be either national (Denmark, France) or local (Ghent, Antwerp, Strassburg, Dijon, Limoges, and other French towns), or both in combination (Norway).

(E) Subventions in Aid of Individual Saving (Ghent, Bologna; since 1901, La Rochelle). This perhaps is even further outside the strict conception of insurance than the other four types, as it does not involve sharing of risks between a number of persons. The payments made by the workpeople are not of the nature of irrecoverable premiums, but are deposits withdrawable during unemployment, with a bonus from the municipality or state.

The first of these types—trade union unemployed benefit—is dealt with below only in outline. Schemes falling within the other four classes are described as they occur in each of the countries concerned. The general points of most importance arising out of this description are the following:—

1. The tendency of schemes for direct voluntary insurance against unemployment (Class B) to remain on a small scale and to attract or retain only the “bad risks” (*i.e.*, persons very likely to become unemployed) so that the expenditure cannot be met out of the premiums. The membership in 1906-7 of the Cologne Fund was 1,155 (11th year of working); of that at Berne 614 (14th year); of that at Basle 457 (6th year). The percentage of this membership becoming unemployed was 84·8 in Cologne, and 42 in Berne. The proportion of premiums paid to allowances received by the insured has been on an average 50 per cent. in Cologne, 23 per cent. in Berne, 40 per cent. in Basle. In each of these towns the great majority of the insured are builder’s operatives and labourers, and the Fund provides in effect a regular municipal or voluntary subsidy to meet recurrent seasonal depression. The same tendency to accumulate bad risks is observed in schemes of Class E for encouraging by means of a subvention individual saving against times of unemployment. The Leipzig Fund alone, during the first year of its existence and for a membership of 143 shows an excess of premium income above expenditure.

2. The great differences of the risk of unemployment as between different occupations and the consequent necessity of discriminating between them in any general scheme in respect of either the premiums charged or the allowances payable, unless it is desired to throw upon the regular trades a very large part of the burden of irregularity in other trades. All insurance involves the principle of solidarity, *i.e.*, payment by the more capable or more fortunate for the disproportionate loss of employment on the part of those who are less capable or less fortunate. Yet the principle of solidarity clearly cannot be carried successfully beyond the point up to which it is supported by the sentiment of solidarity. The attempt to carry it too far leads to open revolt against compulsory schemes as at St. Gall, and abstention from voluntary schemes as at Cologne and Berne.

3. The growing popularity of the plan of subsidising trade unions or other associations which make provision against unemployment (Class D). This, the so-called “Ghent System,” has since its institution in Ghent in 1901, spread to all the principal Belgian towns. In France (1905), Norway (1906), and Denmark (1907), it has been adopted by the State. It is applied by many of the French towns in making grants to unemployed funds. In Germany it has been adopted by the municipality of Strassburg (1906), and has come into the region of practical politics in Munich (1905) and elsewhere. In Italy it has been applied by the Società Umanitaria of Milan (1905). In Switzerland it has been adopted after the failure of direct compulsory insurance in St. Gall (1905) and is now proposed in Basle (1907). Its introduction has undoubtedly in certain cases at least been accompanied by a great development of unemployed benefits on the part of trade unions anxious to participate. On the other hand:—

(a) It is not clear that the system of trade union unemployed benefits has anywhere, through the stimulus of public subventions, been extended to classes of workmen other than those already making this provision on a

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

self-supporting basis in the United Kingdom. The great bulk of those claiming the public subvention are drawn from highly skilled and organised trades—such as printing, cigar making, diamond working. The unskilled and semi-skilled occupations—in which the bulk of distress through unemployment is found in the United Kingdom—do not appear as yet to be touched by the Ghent system anywhere. In Strassburg the hope of reaching these classes in this way is expressly abandoned and annual relief works are contemplated as the only resource for the seasonal labourers.

(b) The success of the system has been practically confined to giving a new activity to organisations (trade unions) already in existence. The supplementary provision made at Ghent and elsewhere for unorganised workmen has been either a total failure or a not altogether gratifying success. At Strassburg and in most of the French towns it has been deliberately left out, and the benefits of the municipal subvention have been absolutely confined to men in trade unions, in spite of the objections raised on social and political grounds to thus forcing workmen to join such associations.

The Report of the Ghent Insurance Fund for 1904-5 draws a contrast between systems of direct individual insurance and systems of public subvention to provident associations, very much to the advantage of the latter, as involving a larger proportion of self-help. The percentage of unemployed allowances met by public or voluntary grants as opposed to members' contributions is given at 62·6 for Berne (1903), 56 at Basle (1903-4), 55·6 at Cologne (1905), 70 at Bologna (1900), 75 at Dijon (1901), 92 at Liège (1904)—all these being schemes of direct insurance. Under the Ghent system the corresponding proportions are 34 at Ghent (1901-5), 34 at Antwerp (1902-4), 32 at Louvain (1904), 33 at Malines (1904), and 27 at Milan (1905). The two systems, however, deal in practice with absolutely different classes of workmen. The funds at Cologne, Berne and Basle, while all expressly excluding the lowest class of casual labourer, do provide for the class next above him—the unorganised seasonal labourer in building and similar occupations. The subventions at Ghent, Antwerp, Milan and elsewhere, are almost wholly confined to trades skilled and well-organised in most countries. Moreover, the proportion of self-help to public assistance in the Ghent system is not a result of practical working, but a percentage fixed arbitrarily beforehand and can be made as high or as low as desired by a change of rules.

4. The almost universal emphasis laid upon the importance of attaching to any scheme of insurance against unemployment some definite machinery for putting the insured in touch with such employment as offers, and for so protecting the fund against avoidable claims. In Cologne and Berne the Insurance Fund and the public Labour Exchange are practically amalgamated. In Strassburg, Milan and Antwerp receipt of subvention by an unemployed person under the "Ghent system" is conditional upon his registration at the Labour Exchange; in Ghent itself the necessity of this rule is formally recognised in the last Report of the Fund. The State subvention to unemployed benefits in France can only be claimed by unions having an organised method of finding employment for their members. The Norwegian law providing for such subventions was passed in direct connection with another law providing for the general establishment of labour registries. In St. Gall the law authorising compulsory insurance expressly required the connection of every insurance fund with at least one labour exchange. The Danish law does not formally mention registries or exchanges but contemplates the notification of work by the committees of insurance funds to unemployed persons, and lays upon the latter the obligation of accepting such work.

To sum up: Insurance is on the one hand the purchase of indemnity partial or complete against specified risks, on the other hand the formation out of the purchase money (premiums) of a common fund from which indemnities are paid. Where for each of a number of persons a particular risk, here that of unemployment, is substantially equal, insurance against it may develop among them voluntarily and for its own sake on a self-supporting basis. Where the risks for the different individuals are not substantially equal, or are not felt to be so, the development of voluntary

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).*

insurance will be checked by the unwillingness of those less exposed to risk to join the others in purchasing indemnity on equal terms. In regard to unemployment, inequalities of risk are very marked both as between different trades and as between individuals in the same trade. It therefore becomes necessary either—

1. To adjust the inequality of risks by a corresponding differentiation of premiums (or of allowances), or
2. To re-inforce the simple motive of insurance—purchase of indemnity—by some other motive so as to cause the inequality of risk to be less regarded.

The first method, that of differentiating or grading premiums, appears best suited to adjust inequalities between different trades. It is implicit in the organisation of unemployed benefits by trade unions since this provides a completely separate insurance fund in each trade. It has not been applied in any of the general or municipal schemes hitherto put into practice except that at Leipzig, which is on a very small scale. Failure to differentiate between trades was one of the principal reasons of revolt against compulsory insurance in St. Gall. The voluntary schemes at Cologne, Berne and Basle treating all trades alike, have become practically confined to a single trade—building—subject to a high risk of unemployment; others hold aloof. In Cologne and Berne this result is no doubt due also to the limitation of relief to the winter months; in Basle there is no such limitation.

The second method—that of re-inforcing the motive of insurance by some other motive—may take several forms. First, the fresh motive may be the desire to protect a standard wage by keeping unemployed competitors from absolute want. It is this that to a large extent maintains the system of unemployed benefits in trade unions. The more capable and more regular workmen are willing to pay for benefits which are used to a disproportionate extent by the less capable and less regular, because only by doing so can they keep the latter from cutting rates of wages. Second, the fresh motive may be provided by a bonus on insurance contributed from some outside source. This in effect is applied in the various schemes of direct voluntary insurance involving a heavy contribution from the municipality (Cologne, Berne, Basle), or from private donors (Leipzig), or both. The men less exposed to risk may feel that they lose by being compelled to pay the same premiums as those more exposed to it, yet be willing to contribute in order to secure the benefits of the municipal or charitable subscription. In practice it has to be admitted that this second form of re-inforcing motive has not shown itself to be very powerful. The schemes at Cologne, Berne and Basle remain confined not only to a special trade but to a small fraction of that trade. The men almost certain to be unemployed winter after winter insure readily; the more regular building operatives hold aloof with the rest. Third, the two motives just mentioned may be introduced in combination. This is the essence of the Ghent system of public subventions to trade unions. Insurance is thus encouraged both by the trade union motive—of protecting the standard rate—and by the prospect of a bonus from without. Pressure to join a trade union is—at a price—converted by the municipality into pressure to insure against unemployment. Fourth, the possibility of an entirely new motive—the desire to be assisted or receive preference in the search for employment—is coming to be applied in Germany. The Labour Exchange and the Insurance Fund at Cologne are worked in the closest possible connection with one another and men insured in the latter receive special consideration—at least in respect to municipal work—from the former. In Berlin the strong position of the Labour Exchange of the Brewers' Association enables it to charge a small registration fee to all applicants, thus forming a fund which is used for the relief of distressed individuals. A definite scheme for the development of this plan into an organised system of insurance resting upon the practical control of the labour market by the Exchange has been proposed, but not yet put into practice. The importance of an efficient Labour Exchange in another relation to schemes of insurance against unemployment, viz., as affording a test of the reality and involuntary character of unemployment, has been already noticed.

Whether these methods or any others will be able so far to overcome the technical difficulties of unemployed insurance—marked inequalities of risk—as to

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

make it generally applicable to all grades of workpeople can only be determined by much more experience than is at present available.

II.—TRADE UNION UNEMPLOYED AND TRAVELLING BENEFITS.

No attempt can be made to describe these in detail for all countries, nor is any general comparison easy. The following table gives certain comparative figures for foreign countries on the authority of the International Report of the Trade Union Movement in 1905, published by the General Committee of German Trade Unions, together with figures for the United Kingdom in 1906 prepared from the reports of all Trade Unions. The notes following give figures from other sources for certain countries.

It will be seen that the United Kingdom is first in respect of total expenditure upon unemployment; Germany in respect of the numbers in unions providing unemployed or travelling benefit; Denmark in the proportion of organised workers to the whole population.

TRADE UNION ORGANISATIONS IN 1905

---	Number of Trade Unionists.	Being (approximately) per cent. of Industrial Workers.	Number as to whom information has been received.	Per cent. of Total.	Expenditure on unemployment in 1905.	Expenditure per head of those as to whom information has been received.
United Kingdom (1906)	2,106,283	*	2,106,283	100·0	£ 513,778	s. d. 4 11
Germany - - -	1,822,343	24	1,726,932	94·8	146,072	1 8
Austria - - -	323,099	13	311,937	96·6	34,916	2 3
Denmark - - -	92,627	49	86,503	93·4	23,573	5 5
Sweden - - -	117,935	25	114,535	97·1	6,252	1 1
Norway - - -	18,600	5	16,887	90·8	2,964	3 6
Hungary - - -	71,173	16	71,173	100·0	8,442	2 4

* The percentage of industrial workers in the United Kingdom who are organised is given by the International Report of the Trade Union Movement in 1905 as 26.

United Kingdom.—The membership of Trade Unions giving unemployed or travelling benefit in 1906 was 1,456,977, or 69·0 per cent. of the membership of all trade unions.

Germany.—The payment of unemployed benefits has been greatly extended of recent years among the German Trade Unions. Of the "Free," or social democratic unions, only eight paid unemployed benefit in 1890. In 1900 the number had risen to 20 and the expenditure on this benefit (*i.e.*, exclusive of travelling) was £25,054. In 1906, a year of great prosperity, the number was 43, out of a total of 66 unions, and the expenditure £132,665. In the same year the total number of trade unionists was 2,215,165 (1,819,930 in 1905). In the three main groups of unions—Free, Hirsch-Duncker and Christian—containing between them 2,055,333, or 92·8 per cent. of the total membership, 1,883,109, or 91·6 per cent. belonged to unions giving either unemployed or travelling benefit. The total

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

expenditure of these three groups on these benefits in 1906 was £182,625, or 1s. 9d. per head of their membership, and 1s. 11d. per head of the membership in unions giving these benefits.

As compared with the United Kingdom Germany shows a much later development of the system of trade union benefit (especially since 1900), which has now, however, covered a larger proportion of the whole industrial field. On the other hand the benefits paid are as a rule lower, last for shorter periods, and are claimable only after a longer membership than is the case in the United Kingdom.

In comparing the total expenditure in the two countries it should be remembered that the year 1906 was in the United Kingdom a year of great depression in the building trade, which contributed 30 per cent. of the total expenditure, while both 1905 and 1906 were years of extreme prosperity in Germany, involving a relatively small expenditure.

Austria.—Trade Unionism in Austria has increased very rapidly of recent years from 189,121 in 1904 to 323,099 in 1905 and 448,270 in 1906. The expenditure on unemployed and travelling benefit has also increased, though not so rapidly, from £28,295 in 1904 to £35,503 in 1905 and £43,709 in 1906, the amount spent on these benefits per member of the unions being, therefore, 3s. 0d. in 1904, 2s. 2d. in 1905, and 1s. 11d. in 1906. No figures appear to be available as to the proportion of the total membership which is in unions giving these benefits. The expenditure is exclusive of certain payments in cases of distress amounting to £5,887 in 1905 and £13,018 in 1906.

Denmark.—The proportion of trade unionists to industrial employees is higher in Denmark than in any other country. Of 61 unions, with a membership of 62,849, for which returns were to hand in 1902-3, 48, with a membership of 40,863 (being 65 per cent. of the whole) paid £21,645 for unemployed and travelling benefits in 1902, and 42, with a membership of 38,104, paid £19,438 in 1903.

Sweden.—At the end of 1903, out of unions with a membership of 91,279, unions with a membership of 26,500, being 29 per cent. of all unionists and 10 per cent. of all industrial employees, paid unemployed or travelling benefit.

France.—Trade Union unemployed benefit is but little developed in France. According to an official inquiry made in 1902 there were then in existence 310 Funds, with a membership of 30,297, making provision against unemployment; 162 of these belonging to the Printers' Trade Union. This was only 5 per cent. of the organised workpeople and 0.6 per cent. of all workpeople. Of these 310 Funds, 285, with a membership of 28,209, made returns, showing an expenditure on unemployed benefits of £7,558, or 5s. 4d. per head of members in these Funds.

Switzerland.—The number of Trade Unionists at the end of 1902 was 51,291. Of these 8,441, or 16.5 per cent., were known to be in unions giving unemployed benefit, and 16,891, or 32.9 per cent., in unions giving either unemployed or travelling benefits.

III.—OTHER FORMS OF UNEMPLOYED INSURANCE.

I.—GERMANY.

(a) *Cologne: Direct Voluntary Insurance.*—The “City of Cologne Unemployed Insurance Fund” was founded in 1896 in pursuance of a resolution of the Town Council in 1894. Ultimate control rests with the General Meeting of patrons, subscribers and representatives of the insured, held annually between April 1 and July 1. The Executive Committee consists of 12 representatives of the insured and 12 honorary members (subscribers) elected at the General Meeting. In addition the *Oberbürgermeister* or his representative and the President of the Labour Exchange are *ex officio* members of the Executive and of the General Meeting. There is also a Committee of the Insured to deal with details of administration, *e.g.*, the decision of doubtful claims.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

Insurance is voluntary, against winter unemployment only, and confined to males of 18 and over, resident in Cologne for at least a year. Persons without a recognised occupation and casual labourers (*Gelegenheitsarbeiter*) are excluded. Insurance is for each winter separately, the business year running from April 1 and contributions extending over 34 weeks.

The contributions (premiums) to be paid by the insured are, in the case of unskilled men, 4½d. weekly for 34 weeks, making a total of 12s. 0½d.; in the case of skilled men 5½d. a week for 34 weeks, making a total of 15s. 7d. Proposals for insurance have to be made by the first Sunday of June in each year, with payment of contributions reckoning always from April 1. A workman four weeks in arrears with his contributions forfeits all claim upon the fund.

The contributions were originally fixed at 3d. a week for all classes, and have been successively raised in 1901, 1903, and 1905 to their present point.

The benefits offered by the fund are 2s. a day for the first 20 days, and 1s. a day for a further 28 days of unemployment not due to personal fault between December 1 and March 1, making a maximum of £3 8s. No allowance is paid for the first three days (including Sundays) after the insured person first notifies himself as unemployed (the "waiting time"). Men claiming or receiving an allowance must report themselves twice daily at the office of the fund (which is also the office or next to the office of the Municipal Labour Exchange) and are bound, under penalty of forfeiting all claim on the fund to accept any employment offered them there, provided it corresponds fairly with their occupation and their usual earnings, and provided that it is not employment vacated through a trade dispute. No payments are made in respect of Sundays and holidays. Persons who during each of two successive winters have drawn three-quarters or more of the maximum may in the third winter draw only £2 14s., viz., 2s. a day for the first 20 days, and 1s. a day for a further 14 days. This rule is (apparently) a new one introduced in 1905, since it is not mentioned in the Annual Reports before then. Thirty-six persons fell under it in 1905-6 and 22 in 1906-7.

The annual income of the fund is derived from the following sources :—

1. Weekly contributions of insured amounting in 1906-7 to £860*, or 37 per cent. of total income.
2. Grant from municipality (since 1902-3) amounting in 1906-7 to £1,000, or 43 per cent. of the total income.
3. Voluntary subscriptions amounting in 1906-7 to £128, or 5½ per cent. of the total income. This item has shown a steady decrease since the first year of the fund both actually and in relation to other items.
4. Interest of £318, or 14 per cent. of the total income, on capital accumulated mainly at the start and now amounting to over £6,900.

The solvency of the fund is guaranteed by a rule forbidding the entering into any new insurance contracts so soon as the maximum possible claims on those already made amount to two-thirds of the whole fund. This rule had to be put in operation in the years of depression 1901-2 and 1902-3.

The accompanying table gives the principal statistics of the working of the fund from the beginning to the present time :—

* In both this figure and the corresponding figures in the Table on page 9, no account is taken of contributions returned; the figures thus differ somewhat from those in the original sources.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

COLOGNE UNEMPLOYED INSURANCE FUND.

	1896-7	1897-8	1898-9	1899-0	1900-1	1901-2	1902-3	1903-4	1904-5	1905-6	1906-7
1. Number of persons with whom insurance contracts were concluded - - - -	220	324	347	256	571	1,205	1,355	1,624	1,717	1,610	1,255
2. Number remaining insured - - - -	132	236	282	226	536	1,105	1,265	1,501	1,596	1,463	1,155
3. Number of such persons notifying themselves as unemployed - - - -	96	151	144	154	441	842	1,008	1,164	1,271	1,087	980
4. Being a percentage of - - - -	72.7	64.0	51.1	68.1	82.3	76.2	79.7	77.5	79.6	74.3	84.8
5. Of those notifying themselves as unemployed, number who found permanent work during waiting period - - - -	15	43	32	12	16	35	35	46	59	123	23
6. Leaving with a completed claim on the fund - - - -	81	108	112	142	425	807	973	1,118	1,212	964	957
7. Number of days of unemployment for which fund became liable - - - -	3,589	4,843	4,883	6,481	19,137	34,111½	44,992	49,625½	54,682½	42,128½	42,324
8. Number of day's temporary employment found for claimants through Exchange - - - -	2,181	2,646	2,857½	3,708½	6,478½	15,853	28,946½	26,715½	29,648½	28,714½	18,238
9. Leaving as days for which unemployed allowances were paid - - - -	1,408	2,197	2,025½	2,772½	12,658½	18,258½	16,045½	22,910	25,034	13,414	24,086
10. Amount paid out as unemployed allowances - - - -	£ 118	£ 174	£ 167	£ 235	£ 967	£ 1,502	£ 1,440	£ 1,996	£ 2,142	£ 1,182	£ 2,001
11. Administrative expenses (including share of Exchange) - - - -	136	117	105	97	104	148	186	197	219	202	221
12. Total expenditure - - - -	254	291	272	332	1,071	1,650	1,626	2,193	2,361	1,384	2,222
13. Weekly contributions (premiums) received from insured - - - -	50	111	122	100	228	622	719	989	1,039	1,084	860
14. Being percentage of amount paid out to unemployed (line 10) - - - -	42.5	63.5	73.1	42.7	23.6	41.4	49.7	49.5	48.5	91.7	43.0

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade: (Q. 98827.)

The following further details apply to the last two years 1905-6 (a very mild winter) and 1906-7 :—

AGES OF INSURED.

—	18-20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61-70
1905-6 - - - - -	57	561	514	276	165	37
1906-7 - - - - -	38	376	423	239	152	27

NUMBER OF PERSONS DRAWING ALLOWANCE.

—	1s. to £1.	Between £1 and £2.	Between £2 and £3.	Over £3 to maximum of £3 8s.	Total.
1905-6 - - - - -	510	219	165	65	959
1906-7 - - - - -	163	212	420	160	955

NUMBER OF PERSONS RECEIVING TEMPORARY WORK.

—	1 to 15 days.	16 to 30 days.	31 to 45 days.	Over 45 days.	Total.
1905-6 - - - - -	123	213	481	85	902
1906-7 - - - - -	251	363	181	11	806

The average amount drawn in allowances by those drawing anything was 24s. 8d. in 1905-6, and 41s. 11d. in 1906-7.

In summing up the main features of this fund special attention may be called to two points which are also those emphasised in the Report of the Imperial Statistical Office :—

1. The great advantage to the fund of its close connection with an effective Labour Exchange.

The offices of the two institutions are contiguous. The officials are in part the same, and the treasurer of the fund is also President of the Labour Exchange Committee. In the resolution of the Town Council of 1894, it is contemplated that preference should be given at the Exchange to men insured against unemployment. Inquiries as to the cause and reality of unemployment are regarded as comparatively unimportant, because the Exchange is constantly able to put applicants to the test by offering them a situation. In general, 90 per cent. of the claimants on the fund receive temporary employment through the agency of the Exchange, the number of days work so provided amounting in the past four years to 132,000 as compared with 100,000 days of allowance paid. It should be noted that according to a Report of the Imperial Statistical Office on Relief Works in German Towns, men insured in this fund have a preference on the relief works instituted by the Municipality of Cologne. Some of the employment provided is therefore presumably employment on relief works.

2. The very large percentage of the insured who actually become unemployed and the consequent failure of the fund to be self-supporting in spite of increased premiums, and the exclusion of the lowest class of casuals.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

The fund is used almost exclusively by men in the building trade; bricklayers, carpenters, plasterers, painters, etc., making up the 70 per cent. who are reckoned as skilled, while the 30 per cent. unskilled are largely day labourers and navvies. From information supplied by the management of the Municipal Sick Insurance Fund, the superintendent of the Labour Exchange reckons that there are about 2,000 such workmen in Cologne, who naturally expect to be out every winter, and of whom three-quarters, 1,500—1,600 now normally insure against unemployment. It is noteworthy that the very mild winter of 1905-6, during which a much larger proportion than usual drew no benefit at all was followed by a great decrease in the number offering to insure in the following year. In the current year the numbers are up to the normal 1,500 or 1,600 again.

The Report of the Statistical Office concludes therefore that the fund is to be regarded less as an insurance than as a relief institution for the benefit of a particular class of workmen. The last Annual Report of the Fund, on the other hand, argues against the view that it is a "relief" institution, on the ground that the claimants have a legal right to the benefits.

(b) Leipzig Direct Voluntary Insurance.

This has been in operation since March, 1905, under the management of a voluntary association as at Cologne, but without municipal support and without any connection with the Labour Exchange.

Insurance is voluntary and confined to men between the ages of 16 and 60 who have been resident in Leipzig for a year. Members of the fund are divided into four classes, according to the degree of irregularity in their occupations, the weekly contributions being respectively $3\frac{1}{2}$ d., $4\frac{3}{4}$ d., 6d., and $7\frac{1}{4}$ d. The benefits are the same for all classes, viz., 1s. $2\frac{1}{2}$ d. per day for a maximum of 42 days, and are payable for involuntary unemployment whenever occurring. No member is entitled to benefit till he has paid at least 42 weekly contributions.

The first report of the fund covers the year May, 1905, to April 30, 1906. At the end of that period the membership of the fund was 143 and the amount of the fund (which, as in Cologne, was started with a good many voluntary subscriptions) was £898. During the year 13 members became unemployed for altogether 285 days, in respect of which £11 9s. 6d. was paid out in allowances. The weekly contributions received amounted to £33 1s. 1d., showing an excess of £21 11s. 7d. over the benefits paid. The year was one of exceptional industrial activity.

(c) Strassburg Municipal Subvention to Trade Unions.

In Strassburg the "Ghent system" of municipal subventions in aid of allowances paid to their unemployed members by industrial organisations has been in force since the beginning of 1907. The main features of the scheme as set out in the resolution starting it are as follows :

1. The municipal subvention is paid only to persons in receipt of an unemployed allowance from a trade organisation of employees to which they belong, is to be 50 per cent. of the amount of such allowance at any time and is not to exceed 1s. per day. It is not paid in respect of unemployment resulting or continuing as a consequence of strikes, lock-outs, sickness, accident, etc., or to persons who have been less than a year resident in Strassburg.

2. The subvention is paid through the organisation (trade union), i.e., the union pays in advance to the unemployed workman and recovers from the municipality.

3. The subvention is conditional upon daily appearance at the Municipal Labour Exchange, and ceases so soon as suitable work can be offered to the applicant in his trade.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

4. Disputes are referred to a committee chosen from the Labour Exchange Committee.

5. Trade organisations desiring the benefits of the subvention have to submit a copy of their statutes and the rules governing their unemployed benefit funds, and have to keep these distinct from funds for other purposes.

No provision is made for men not belonging to any trade union. From the report of the Reference Committee, upon whose recommendation the scheme was adopted, it appears to have been generally admitted that the scheme would not touch either the great mass of unskilled men or the building operatives—for whom, therefore, annual relief works are contemplated.

For 1907, the first year of working, £250 was voted by the Municipality. All the 20 trade unions, paying unemployed benefit to their members became formally affiliated, but only twelve made practical use of the Fund. The operations during the first year are summarised in the following table :—

Trade.	Unions participating.	Individuals drawing Municipal Subvention.	Days for which Municipal Subvention was paid.	Amount paid by Municipality.	Amount paid by Unions.
Printing and Bookbinding - -	4	48	1047	£ 46	£ 200
Building and Woodworking - -	5	63	983	31	114
Metal Trades - - - -	2	40	510	16	65
Tobacco Workers - - - -	1	2	78	1	4
	12	153	2618	94	383

The daily subvention per head varied from 3 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. (tobacco workers) to just under 1s. (compositors), averaging 9d. 21 of the 153 individuals became unemployed twice or oftener, so that the total number of cases of unemployment dealt with by the fund was 264.

It will be seen that the amount which the municipality was actually required to spend was less than half the credit of £250 originally voted, and less than a quarter of the sum paid out by the unions themselves. As the municipal subvention is fixed at 50 per cent. of the union benefit, this last result can only be accounted for by the payment of union benefits in many cases where no municipal subvention was drawn or could be drawn. Many unionists were excluded by the rule requiring a year's continuous residence in the city. Others failed to comply with the rule requiring daily registration at the Municipal Labour Exchange. This latter rule was rigidly enforced with a view both to preventing men from drawing on the fund while still in employment, and to getting them off the fund at the earliest possible opportunity. Of the 264 cases of unemployment 124, or 41 per cent., were ended by the finding of a suitable situation through the Labour Exchange. Claimants on the fund, if belonging to a skilled trade, were not compelled to accept work except in their trade or at less than the recognised rates of pay where these had been fixed by agreement between employers and employed; that is to say, they did not forfeit their claim on the fund by refusing such situations. Others who were not regarded as skilled operatives (e.g. printers' labourers and female tobacco workers) were allowed to refuse work outside their usual occupations only during a limited period, and if they remained unemployed for any length of time were compelled, under pain of losing their subvention, to take suitable work of other kinds.

These and other administrative problems have so far been dealt with successfully as they arose. The actual scale of the operations has remained small. The actual membership of the trade unions participating rose by 200 during the year, but according to the unanimous opinion of the trade union leaders this result cannot be in

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

any way attributed to the offer of the municipal subvention. On the other hand it was suggested by the leaders of some of the most important unions that the subvention would probably have an effect in preventing those who had once joined from leaving the unions.

The same sum of £250 has been voted by the municipality for the continuance of the scheme during 1908.

2.—SWITZERLAND.

(a) *Berne—Direct Voluntary Insurance by Municipality.*

A Municipal Fund for Insurance against Unemployment has been in existence in Berne since 1893. A proposal made on behalf of the trade union of builders' labourers that the municipality should grant a subvention to its funds for insurance against unemployment was rejected on the ground that the municipality would thus be putting pressure on men to join the union. As an alternative it was decided to establish a general fund by which workpeople might insure against unemployment directly and individually.

By the original constitution (Resolution of January 13, 1893, taking effect April 1, 1893) the contribution to the fund was fixed at 3 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. monthly, the daily allowance to members becoming unemployed at 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. for single men, and 1s. 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. for men with families dependent upon them. The allowance could, however, be claimed only by those who had paid their contributions for at least six months, and was not to be payable for the first week of unemployment. No allowance could be claimed in respect of unemployment due to personal fault, strikes or wages disputes, or by men refusing work offered them without good cause. The administration of the Fund was entrusted to a committee of seven: two appointed by employers subscribing to the Fund, two by the Trades Council at Berne, and the remainder by the Town Council. Under bye-laws made by the committee the payment of allowances was limited to the months December, January and February, and to a maximum of sixty days in all. The municipality undertook to make up any deficit in the finances of the Fund up to £200. The benefits of the Fund were confined to natives of Switzerland. The administrative year for the Fund was from April 1 to March 31.

The original constitution and bye-laws of the Fund were amended in important particulars in 1895, 1897 and 1900. In 1895 the contributions were raised to 4 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. monthly, and the daily allowance to unemployed members to 1s. 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. for men without, and 1s. 7 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. for men with dependants. The duration of the allowance was increased to 70 days, and it was made payable also during March. The exclusion of aliens from the benefits of the Fund was abolished, and in place of a guarantee up to £200 the municipality made an actual subvention of £280. An important administrative change was also introduced, the insurance fund and the municipal Labour Exchange being amalgamated under the control of a committee to consist henceforth of three employees, three employers and three nominees of the Town Council.

In 1897 with the object of excluding idlers the claim to an allowance was made conditional upon the claimants having worked six months at least during the preceding year, and stricter measures were passed with regard to members in arrears with their contributions.

In 1900 the monthly contribution was raised to its present figure of 6 $\frac{3}{4}$ d., the period of membership necessary before a claim could be made to eight instead of six months, and the municipal subvention to £480. Persons above 60 and persons incapable of earning were excluded from the scope of the Fund. Municipal employees were insured compulsorily. This compulsion lasted only till 1903, and its repeal was followed by the immediate dropping out from insurance of practically all the municipal employees.

The later years of the fund as compared with the earlier years show a smaller percentage of unemployment among the members, and an increase in the contributions of the insured relatively to both the total income and the expenditure upon allowances.

The following Table gives particulars of the working of the fund from its foundation:—

BERNE UNEMPLOYED INSURANCE FUND.

	1893-4.	1894-5.	1895-6.	1896-7.	1897-8.	1898-9.	1899-0.	1900-1.	1901-2.	1902-3.	1903-4.	1904-5.	1905-6.	1906-7.
No. of persons insured at beginning of year	—	354	413	544	494	431	543	585	597	644	719	598	593	614
New members during year	404	126	357	290	118	235	131	171	171	304	214	185	—	—
Members struck off during year	50	67	226	340	181	123	109	159	124	229	335	190	—	—
No. of persons insured at end of year	354	413	544	494	431	543	585	597	644	719	598	593	614	571
No. of persons insured who became unemployed	216	226	325	242	295	375	297	380	248	292	297	305	234	239
Being per cent. of the membership at end of year.	61	55	60	49	68	69	51	64	39	41	50	51	38	42
Receipts.	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
	45	55	64	78	68	84	88	124	110	157	186	187	188	—
	38	68	66	66	44	51	59	64	3	2	29	48	54	42
	189	200	280	280	280	280	480	480	480	480	480	480	480	—
	41	143	49	233	16	228	29	64	23	29	27	38	39	—
Total	313	466	459	657	408	643	656	732	616	668	722	753	761	—
Expenditure.	274	387	401	426	465	663	662	767	518	538	474	437	249	—
	39	26	39	30	29	32	27	38	29	16	17	6	18	—
	313	413	440	456	494	695	689	805	547	554	491	443	267	—
Contributions by persons insured as percentage of allowances paid.	per cent. 16	per cent. 14	per cent. 16	per cent. 18	per cent. 14	per cent. 13	per cent. 13	per cent. 16	per cent. 21	per cent. 29	per cent. 39	per cent. 43	per cent. 76	per cent. —
Contributions by persons insured as percentage of total receipts.	14	12	14	12	17	13	13	16	18	24	26	25	25	—

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)**(b) Basle.—Direct Voluntary Insurance.**Proposals for Municipal Subvention to Trade Unions.*

In 1894 a law for compulsory municipal insurance against unemployment was brought forward in the Great Council of the Canton at Basle, and referred to a Committee which reported, accepting the principle but recommending alterations, in 1896. The Report of this Committee was in 1897 referred to another Committee, which proposed further amendments. As amended the law was finally passed by the Great Council at the end of 1899. Recourse to a referendum was thereupon demanded and obtained by the opponents of the measure—the demand being signed by the requisite thousand citizens. As a result the law was in February, 1900, rejected by a large majority, 5,458 votes being cast against and 1,119 for it, in a total voting population of just over 16,000. The opposition to the measure appears to have been largely that of the trade unionists. Its defeat was followed in 1901 by the foundation of the Unemployed Insurance Fund of the Labour Federation.

The Unemployed Fund established by the Labour Federation of Basle is like the funds at Berne and Cologne in depending upon municipal and voluntary grants in addition to the contributions of the insured members but unlike them in being managed wholly by workmen. It commenced operations on April 15, 1901, and is apparently still in existence, though threatened with dissolution.

The objects of the Fund as stated in the constitution were, amongst other things (i) to provide allowances to unemployed members; (ii) to protect the wages of those who remained in employment against being driven down in times of depression. The Fund was to be derived from the following sources:—

1. Monthly contributions of insured members. These were graded according to the wages earned in three classes as follows:—

Average daily Earnings.	Monthly Contribution.
Not more than 3s. 2½d.	3¾d., raised to 4¾d. in 1906
Above 3s. 2½d. but not more than 4s. ...	4¾d., raised to 5¾d. in 1906
Above 4s.	5¾d., raised to 6¾d. in 1906

These contributions were to be paid by the purchase and insertion of special stamps in membership books provided for that purpose. Members three months in arrear were to be fined 9½d.

2. Subventions from the Canton of Basle. This was at first £40, but was raised to £80 in 1903-4 and subsequent years.

3. Voluntary subscriptions and donations from honorary members and others. These included till 1904 a grant of £40 from a local Co-operative Association. The grants from trade unions contemplated in the original constitution do not appear to have been made.

Membership of the Fund was at first open to any person both resident and working in Basle. In 1904 it was found necessary to exclude casual labourers by a rule that no unemployed member should be entitled to an allowance except upon proof that he had been in employment for at least four months out of the last six. No allowance could be claimed during the first six months of membership. The amount of the allowances was left by the constitution to be fixed by the Committee of the Fund in connection with a Committee of the unemployed. The allowances were first fixed at 9½d. daily (including Sundays), with higher rates for those who had been members a year or two years without coming upon the Fund. This distinction however appears never to have been put into effect in practice. At the end of the first year of working (April, 1902), the allowance was fixed at 1s. 0½d. in all cases, and remained at this till the last year of working, 1906-7, when it was raised to 1s. 2½d. The contributions were raised at the same time. The maximum period during which the allowance could be

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827)*

paid was 42 days. The allowance did not become payable immediately on the occurrence of unemployment. The original constitution fixed a "waiting time" of a fortnight after a member first reported himself unemployed during which he could claim no allowance, with the provision that if he obtained temporary work meanwhile his waiting time should be increased by one day for every two days of such work. In 1902 the waiting time was reduced to 10 days, and in 1904 to seven days, with the further provision that an unemployed member obtaining temporary employment of four weeks should at the close of it be liable to a waiting time of four days. The full period of seven days was to be applicable again only after three months of employment.

The management of the Fund was entrusted to a committee of 11, appointed by the Labour Federation and the unions whose members belonged to the Fund. The committee was increased to 15 at the end of the first year (April, 1902), and was reconstituted in 1904, but not so as to alter its purely trade union character. In addition to its general duty of administration it had in case of financial difficulties to summon an extraordinary meeting of all members, who might impose a general levy.

The following table presents the operations of the Fund during the six years 1901-7. It shows (a) a small and decreasing percentage of the expenditure being met out of members' contributions; (b) a rising percentage of the total membership of the Fund claiming the allowance.

UNEMPLOYED INSURANCE IN BASLE.

	1901-2	1902-3	1903-4	1904-5	1905-6	1906-7
	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.
Membership at end of year - - -	866	1,174	506	401	498	457
Members becoming unemployed during year - - - - -	139	209	139	152		
Members drawing allowance during year	102	168	106	126	207	179
Being per cent. of membership at end of year - - - - -	Per cent. 12	Per cent. 14	Per cent. 21	Per cent. 31	Per cent. 42	Per cent. 39
No. of days for which allowance was paid - - - - -	No. 2,852	No. 4,126	No. 3,028	No. 3,400	No. 5,188	No. 4,864
	£	£	£	£	£	£
Contributions by insured - -	87	94	69	74	77	84
Municipal grant - - - -	40	40	80	80	80	
Voluntary subscriptions, etc. - -	119	109	87	87	46	
Total receipts - - - -	246	243	236	241	203	
Allowances to unemployed - -	114	215	157	177	270	291
Other expenses - - - -	18	20	14	12	39	
Total expenditure - - - -	132	235	171	189	309	
Contributions by insured as percentage of allowances paid - - - -	Per cent. 76	Per cent. 44	Per cent. 44	Per cent. 42	Per cent. 29	Per cent. 29
Contributions by insured as percentage of total receipts - - - -	35	39	29	31	38	

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

A very large and increasing proportion of the membership was drawn from the building trade, the numbers placed under this heading being as follows :—

	Members engaged in Building Trades.	Percentage of total membership of Fund.	Percentage of all Allowances paid; drawn by Building Trades.
		Per cent.	Per cent.
1901-2 - - - - -	394	45	76
1902-3 - - - - -	566	48	71
1903-4 - - - - -	287	57	85
1904-5 - - - - -	295	74	(?)

In 1905-6, when 41 per cent. of all the insured members drew unemployed allowances the percentages for the various occupations were as follows :—

	Percentage of those insured drawing allowance.	Average number of days' allowance drawn by each man.
	Per cent.	
Builders' Labourers - - - - -	52	25·5
Stone-Masons - - - - -	65	22·4
Bricklayers and Masons - - - - -	67	28·5
Painters - - - - -	52	31·2
Carpenters - - - - -	49	13·2
All other occupations - - - - -	15	21·6

During the first two years, membership of the Fund increased and a substantial balance was accumulated. But even in the second year the Committee had to complain that a very large number of the members failed to fulfil their small obligations to the Fund, and in the third year the membership dropped by more than 50 per cent. mainly through this cause. During the following years the membership fluctuated, fresh adhesions being balanced by resignations or the striking off of those more than six months in arrears with their contributions. In 1904-5, 274 members were struck off in this way; in 1905-6, 79 were struck off, and 14 resigned as against 190 new enrolments; in 1906-7, 204 were struck off, and 16 resigned as against 179 new enrolments.

There was a tendency for the "good" risks (*i.e.*, the men in regular trades) to abandon the Fund, and for the "bad" risks (*i.e.*, the building operatives and others subject to recurrent unemployment) to remain. Great difficulty, moreover, was experienced in securing the regular payment of contributions. The expenditure of the Fund rose steadily after 1903-4, the contributions from honorary members fell off, and the reserves became gradually exhausted. After 1905-6, when a lock-out in the building trade threw a special burden on the Fund, the contributions and the daily allowances were raised, but by the end of the year 1906-7 the Committee saw no way out of its difficulties save to ask the Cantonal Government to take over the Fund altogether. It could not be carried on without increased resources, while it was thought that an increase of the contributions would lead to a further decline in membership.

The Labour Federation's Unemployed Fund has therefore, in spite of a satisfactory start and public support, not proved itself capable of continuous existence. The other measure taken by the public authorities since the rejection of the Com-

[APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

pulsory Insurance Law in 1900, viz., the establishment of a permanent committee for the relief of the unemployed apart from the Poor Law, has equally failed to secure approval. In a Report presented to the Great Council in the present year the disadvantages of this special unemployed relief (viz., encouragement of permanent reliance upon it by the weakest elements in the population and discouragement of efforts at insurance) are stated far to outweigh its advantages, and the proposal is made to replace this relief by a system of municipal insurance or assisted thrift. The idea of compulsory insurance is absolutely abandoned. The system proposed falls into two parts (a) the granting of municipal subventions to trade and other organisations according to the Ghent plan; (b) the establishment of a Municipal Insurance Fund open to those outside these organisations. As this proposal is the latest made to the present time its principal features may be summarised:—

Membership of the Fund is to be open to all employable wage-earners between the ages of 17 and 60 employed in Basle for the past three months at least and not already members of an association receiving municipal subvention under the other branch of the system. The members are to pay such monthly contributions, not less than $4\frac{3}{4}$ d., nor more than $11\frac{1}{2}$ d., as may be fixed by the Cantonal Government. In fixing these contributions the authorities will be free to classify according to the occupation, wages, and family conditions of the insured, and in the case of persons not coming upon the Fund during a long period to reduce the contributions even below the limit of $4\frac{3}{4}$ d. monthly. Insured members of the Fund becoming unemployed otherwise than through their own fault will have a preference for any employment for which they are suited both at the public Labour Exchange and under other public authorities. Failing such employment they will, provided they have been members and have fulfilled their obligations to the Fund during the past six months be entitled to an allowance according to a scale to be fixed by the Cantonal Executive, provided that the Executive shall be free to take into account the occupation, wages and family conditions of the insured, and that the normal daily allowance shall not be less than $9\frac{1}{2}$ d. nor more than 2s., and shall not be payable for more than 48 working days in any one year. The claim to preference for employment and to an allowance is not to apply where the insured has left his employment voluntarily, except with good reasons; where the insured has been discharged on account of behaviour justifying immediate dismissal; where the unemployment is the result of a strike, during the continuance of the strike, or of accident or illness, during the continuance of the incapacity; where the insured without good reasons refuses a situation offered him. The Executive is to make orders regulating the assistance to be given to unemployed members to migrate to employment in another district, and the obligation of members without dependants to accept such employment if offered to them. The Committee of the Fund is to consist of eleven members, six, including the Chairman, being appointed by the Executive and five elected by the insured. The Canton is to bear the costs of administration and make up any difference between the expenditure on allowances and the receipts from insured members or other sources.

*(c) St. Gall.—Direct Compulsory Insurance.**Municipal Subvention to Trade Union.*

On May 19, 1894, the Great Council of the Canton St. Gall passed a law empowering local authorities either singly or in combination to introduce compulsory insurance against unemployment. The main provisions of this law are as follows:—

Membership of the Insurance Fund established in any district was to be obligatory upon all men working for wages in the district unless either their average daily earnings exceeded 4s. a day or they were already members of an association affording unemployed benefits at least equal to those of the Fund. Men with earnings above 4s. might join voluntarily. Either the obligation or the right of membership might be extended to women by the local authority, which might make further regulations as to the Fund subject to the following conditions:—

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

1. The Fund to be managed by a committee of not less than five containing adequate representation of the insured members.

2. The weekly contributions payable by the members not to exceed 3d.

3. Unemployed allowances to be paid only to able-bodied persons who had lost work otherwise than through their own fault; to whom employment in their own trade, suited to their capacities and at the current rate of wages could not be offered; and who had paid contributions continuously for at least six months or (in the case of a foreigner) such period not less than six months, as might be fixed by the local authority.

4. The unemployed allowance not to be less than 9½d. a day, nor to last for more than 60 working days in a year, nor to be payable in respect of the first unemployment within three months unless this lasted at least five days.

5. Every Insurance Fund to be connected with at least one Labour Exchange.

The expenditure of the Fund was to be met out of (a) the regular contributions of the insured members, (b) donations, legacies, &c., (c) grants by local authorities up to 1s. 7d. per member per year in addition to costs of administration, (d) grants by the Cantonal Government, (e) grants, if made, by the Federal Government. Workmen under obligation to be insured but failing to pay their contributions might on proof of their ability to pay be fined up to £1 or imprisoned in default up to five days. The Cantonal Government was also empowered to make grants in aid of voluntary associations providing unemployed benefit to their members.

After proposals for joint action between the three neighbouring districts of St. Gall, Tablat and Straubenzell had fallen through, the law was put in force by the municipality of St. Gall alone. A Fund for compulsory insurance was established there and commenced operations on July 1, 1895. The following regulations were adopted :—

The Committee of the Fund consisted of nine persons, two being members of the Municipal Council and seven insured members of the Fund, of whom four were appointed by the Labour Federation from amongst trade unionists, and three were non-union, one being appointed by the Labour Federation and two by the Municipal Council, with special regard to otherwise unrepresented occupations. The detailed administration, *e.g.*, registration of the insured, collection of contributions, calculation and payment of allowances was undertaken free of cost by the municipality, and was in fact carried out by the chief of the Poor Law Department.

Apprentices and minors earning less than 1s. 7d. daily were excluded from the insurance Fund. For the purposes of weekly contributions and allowances the members of the Fund were divided into three classes, according to their own statements of their wages, as follows:

Average Daily Earnings.	Weekly Contribution.	Unemployed Allowances per day
2s. 4¾d. or less - - - -	1½d.	1s. 5¼d.
Over 2s. 4¾d. up to 3s. 2½d. - -	2d.	1s. 8¼d.
Over 3s. 2½d. up to 4s. - - -	3d.	1s. 11d.

No member could claim allowance for more than 60 days in a year, nor till he had been a member for six months (in the case of foreigners, 12 months). Contributions were to be paid by the purchase and insertion of special stamps in books provided for the purpose, and were to be excused during

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

the time when an unemployed allowance was actually being received, as well as during sickness or incapacity due to an accident for which no compensation was payable. The claim to an allowance was to be forfeited if the member had become unemployed exclusively through his own gross fault, had ceased work through a strike or refused, without sufficient ground, employment offered him. At times of depression the Committee were empowered to reduce the payments to single men, and if notwithstanding this and the receipt of full subventions from the Municipality and Canton the Fund proved insufficient, they might reduce the allowances in the higher classes and at need in all classes. The Fund was to come to an end after two years unless renewed by resolution of the Municipal Council.

The Fund thus established came into operation on July 1, 1895, but the first unemployed allowances were not payable till six months later, viz., January 1, 1896. The experience acquired in the administration of the Fund was such as to lead to its closing at the earliest possible opportunity, viz., at the end of its second year of working (June 30, 1897). By that time it had involved the Canton of St. Gall in an expenditure of £240, and the municipality in one of £885 in addition to the cost of administration, yet it closed with a deficit of £181, which had to be met by the Police Fund. In the first year of working (July 1, 1895—June 30, 1896) the premiums paid amounted to £867 and the allowances to £940, though in the first six months of that period no allowances were payable at all, and even in the second six months foreigners were excluded. In the second year of working (July 1, 1896—June 30, 1897), the premiums paid were £628 and the allowances £1,535. In explaining the failure of the scheme it is possible to point to grave faults both in its constitution and in the spirit in which it was administered.

First, the means of securing registration and payment of contributions on the part of the workmen proved quite inadequate. On the opening of the Fund workmen were by public notice invited to register themselves in accordance with the law. Their response was very slow and reluctant. In the first six months no less than 155 persons were fined for not registering themselves after repeated warnings, yet in spite of this pressure, at the end of the first year of working, 350 persons still remained unregistered though liable to register. Even of those who did register a very large proportion were constantly in arrears with contributions. Of 4,220 persons registered in the first year of working 1185 lapsed through various reasons, including non-payment of contributions. In December 1895 (*i.e.*, six months from the beginning) 1,100 insured persons owed contributions amounting to £120, in April 1896 1,300 owed £160, in June 1896 1,991 or two-thirds of the whole membership were in arrear. "Summonses to pay" remarks the first Report "have been issued in thousands; legal proceedings are only in part successful; there are everywhere people who from year's end to year's end never come near the Fund and from whom it is impossible to recover the cost of legal proceedings. . . . The visiting of the workmen in their homes is far more efficacious than masses of letters of warning." To some extent this delay in paying contributions was encouraged by laxity in the decisions on claims for allowances. These decisions were made by a sub-committee composed entirely of workmen, and prepared to favour in every way claims for allowances. The provision of the law that receipt of an allowance should be conditional upon six months unbroken payment of contributions was simply disregarded. "Had it been construed strictly not 20 of all the unemployed would have had a claim." It was even allowed that persons who had paid no contributions at all should on becoming unemployed pay them in the shape of deductions of 1s. 7d. a month from the allowance granted them. Moreover of those who did register a quite unexpectedly large proportion fell, according to their own statements, into the lower wage classes with lower contributions. On the introduction of the Fund it had been estimated that 20 per cent. of the insured would be in the lowest class (up to 2s. 4 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. daily) 60 per cent. in the second (up to 3s. 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. daily), and 20 per cent. in the first. The actual proportions were 68.6 per cent. in the lowest, 27.9 per cent. in the second, and 3.5 per cent. in the first class.

Second, no sufficient control was exercised over the payment of allowances. No inquiry was made into the causes of unemployment. No efficient labour exchange was established in connection with the Fund; this requirement of the law was thought to be met by throwing upon the officers of the Fund as a subsidiary duty the work of

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98872.)*

an exchange. Practically nothing was done, The insured workmen took up the position that they were entitled to refuse work offered them outside the city, and to stay at home, drawing their allowances. When demands for navvies and labourers were received from employers the two parties seldom came to terms as to wages and conditions of labour. "Many of the unemployed took every precaution to steer clear of employment so long as they had not drawn the maximum allowance from the Fund."

Third, the absence of any discrimination between occupations of different degrees of irregularity involved a large number of good workmen constantly paying contributions, though they had no chance of being unemployed, for the benefit of others who were certain to be unemployed for a large part of every year. On the opening of the Fund several classes of workmen were excused from registration : compositors because already insured by their trade union ; messengers and commissionaires because "it would be impossible to determine the facts as to either their unemployment or their earnings"; postal, telegraph, and railway employees because "those persons are as a rule never discharged except through their own gross misbehaviour, and in such a case would have no claim on the Fund." These last two exemptions, however reasonable in themselves, were clearly illegal. Their admission emphasises one of the principal characteristics of compulsory insurance against unemployment : that it inevitably means forced payments by the more regular workmen for the less regular. In St. Gall, of the 103 occupations in which insurance was made compulsory only 36 yielded any unemployed in the first year and only 50 in the second.

In the following table certain occupations (navvies, builders and general labourers, bricklayers, painters, carpenters, wood and stone carvers, packers and porters and gardeners) of a distinctively seasonal character are contrasted with all other occupations.

1895-6.

—	Number registered.	Percentage of all registrations.	Number unemployed.	Percentage of all unemployed.	Percentage unemployed of number registered.
Seasonal occupations -	1,537	36·9	342	79·0	22·3
All other occupations -	2,626	63·1	91	21·0	3·5
All occupations -	4,163	100	433	100	10·4

In other words, occupations with just over one-third of the total membership of the Fund supplied four-fifths of the total unemployed. It was found, moreover, that the classes of workmen making most use of the Fund were also the worst about paying their contributions. According to the Report of the second year's working : "In the second as in the first year a large number of men drew the full maximum of unemployed pay and then at once left St. Gall. More than one-half of the men who drew unemployed pay this year were men who had drawn such pay in the preceding year. If the scheme had continued, those men would have formed the regular *clientèle* of the Fund. The worst men in regard to the payment of premiums, with a few exceptions, drew unemployed pay again this year. Many of them never paid their premiums at all until they had actually become unemployed and then they paid in four, five, six, or even more monthly premiums in arrear, all in one lump sum, in order to be able to draw unemployed pay."

The movement for the establishment of the Fund had originally come from the ranks of the organised workmen. The request for its abolition came from the same quarter. The best workmen felt that the principle of solidarity was being carried too far when they were compelled to go on paying premiums higher in proportion to their earnings than those of the unskilled men to provide for a danger to which the unskilled and irregular workmen were almost alone exposed. They also objected to the fact that the scheme did not include compulsory contributions from employers.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.*

Since the closing of the St. Gall Fund no attempt has been made to put in force the compulsory provisions of the law of 1894, though in 1905 use was made by the St. Gall municipality of the power to contribute to trade union benefit funds by a grant of £22 to the Compositors' Union. Yet the total failure of the only practical attempt at compulsory insurance (at St. Gall) can hardly under the circumstances be regarded as itself a conclusive argument against further attempts conducted with more judgment, and in particular with a different means of compulsion (acting rather through the employer than the workmen), an adequate and stringently applied test of unemployment (depending upon connection with an efficient labour exchange), and some form of discrimination between occupations with differing degrees of irregularity.

3.—BELGIUM.

(a) Ghent.—Municipal Subventions to Trade Unions and in Aid of Saving.

There has been established in Ghent since 1901 a Special Municipal Fund for the purpose of promoting and assisting insurance against unemployment. Introduced experimentally the system was made permanent in February 1904 by a resolution under which it is applied not only to Ghent itself but to its suburbs, comprising a total population of 187,589. The accounts and expenditure in respect of each of these suburban municipalities are kept absolutely distinct. The constitution of the Fund may be given summarily as follows :—

The Fund is composed of subventions voted annually by the several municipalities and payable on January 1 with interest at 3 per cent. on arrears. It is administered by a Committee of ten persons appointed by the Municipal Council of Ghent (three must be members of the Council and five must be members of trade unions affiliated to the Fund) together with one person appointed by each of the suburban municipalities. The Mayor of Ghent, or an Alderman nominated by him, has the right to preside and to give a casting vote. The Fund, which may be increased by donations, collections, etc., can be used only to aid the efforts of workpeople to make adequate provision against unemployment, and may be so used in two ways: (1) By supplementing the allowances paid by trade unions to their unemployed members; (2) by supplementing savings made to meet unemployment. The sums paid to supplement trade union unemployed allowances bear a definite proportion, settled monthly by the Committee, to such allowances, subject to the limitation that the subsidy shall not be more than 100 per cent. of the allowance, nor more than 9½d. a day, nor paid to any one person for more than 60 days in a year. The Committee may, however, with the consent of the municipalities concerned, use balances from previous years and other moneys specially voted for that purpose in order to continue the municipal subsidy to persons remaining unemployed after they have exhausted the full amount of benefit allowed by their unions. The continued subsidy is to be equal to the original subsidy in daily amount, but may not last for more than half the number of days for which the trade union benefit has lasted. Subsidy may not be paid in respect of strikes, lock-outs, or their consequences, nor in respect of sickness or infirmity. Associations of workpeople and employees wishing to be affiliated to the Fund, *i.e.*, to obtain its benefits for their members have to communicate their statutes and rules, annual balance sheet, and monthly statements of membership and sums paid out as unemployed benefit; to submit all books and documents relating to these payments to examination by an auditor appointed by the Committee; and to fulfil such further conditions as may be presented by the Committee. Workpeople and other employees who are not members of any trade union affiliated to the Fund may share in its benefits in two ways, either directly by making in a special savings bank individual deposits which, if withdrawn during unemployment and subject to the conditions laid down by the Committee, will be supplemented in the same way and to the same extent as the unemployed benefits paid by trade unions, or indirectly as members of thrift associations affiliated to this side of the Fund, and making deposits on behalf of their members. Any unemployed person refusing work notified to him by the Committee is excluded from the benefits of the Fund. To carry out this regulation the Committee is directed to put itself into the closest possible relation with other institutions dealing with unemployment.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

The following table compiled from the Report of the Fund for 1904 and 1905, gives the main features of the work as a whole :—

Year.	Number of Associations affiliated.	Membership.	Total paid to Unemployed.	Paid by Associations.	Paid by Municipality.	Percentage paid by		Special Payments to Men run Out of Benefit.
						Associations.	Municipality.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1901*	26	12,985	£ 965	£ 715	£ 250	74·8	25·2	—
1902	30	12,239	2,295	1,648	647	71·8	28·2	—
1903	34	12,245	2,179	1,420	759	62·1	37·9	113
1904	35	11,995	2,622	1,688	934	62·7	37·3	98
1905	33	11,736	2,147	1,423	724	66·3	33·7	86

* Five months.

NOTE.—The percentages in columns 7, 8, do not agree absolutely with the totals in columns 4, 5, 6. The sums in column 9, paid by the municipality on a special account to men remaining unemployed after drawing the full benefit allowed by the union, are not included in the totals of columns 4 and 6, and for 1905 at least are not included in calculating the percentages.

The work of the Fund falls into two absolutely distinct sections: on the one hand the supplementing of trade union benefit; on the other hand the supplementing of savings made to meet unemployment. The first of these is much the more important, accounting for £611 out of £724, over 80 per cent. of the total subventions. It alone is indicated in speaking of "The Ghent System" in other parts of this memorandum.

(1.) *Supplements to Trade Union Unemployed Benefit.*

The municipal subsidy in these cases is paid by the union when paying its own unemployed benefit to its members and is then recovered by it from the committee of the Fund.

Twenty-eight trade unions are recorded as participating in the Fund during 1905 to the extent of £611. Seven unions receiving 37 per cent. of this amount were in the textile trades; three receiving 16 per cent. in the metal trades; three receiving 13 per cent. in woodworking; four receiving 17 per cent. in building (carpenters, painters and masons). The 11 remaining unions receiving 17 per cent. included unions in printing, shoemaking, baking. Unskilled labour is unrepresented.

The proposal to introduce municipal subventions to trade unions paying unemployed benefit was undoubtedly accompanied by a great development of the practice of providing such benefits. In 1897 22 unions out of 43 in Ghent made some sort of provision for their unemployed members, mostly on a very small scale. In 1901 the number of such unions had risen to 28 and the character of the provision made had also developed greatly. The total expenditure of the Ghent unions on unemployed benefit was £600 in 1898, £1,000 in 1900, £1,720 in 1901, and £1,648 in 1902. On the other hand there has, since 1901, during the first five years of the actual operations of the Fund, been no increase in the total expenditure of unions on this purpose, and there has actually been a decrease in the number of unionists. How far this is to be attributed to exceptional or temporary causes—*e.g.*, trade depression—remains for the present uncertain.

No information is contained in the Report cited as to the amounts paid to individuals. The proportion which the municipal subsidy is to bear to the union benefit is fixed for each month by the committee, which in doing so generally distinguishes between unemployment due to slackness and that due to breakdowns, fires, etc., as also between adults and youthful workers. In 1904, for instance, the proportion during January, February and December was 100 per cent. for adult males unemployed through slackness, and 40 per cent. for all other cases, subject to a

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

maximum limit of 7½d. a day; during the remaining nine months it was 60 per cent. for adult males unemployed through slackness and 40 per cent. for all other cases. In 1901 the largest unemployed benefit paid by any Ghent trade union was 9s. 7d. weekly for 30 days (*Association Socialiste des Employés*), on which the full subsidy in 1904 would have been 3s. 7d., making a total of about 13s. 2d. a week for five weeks. This, however, was quite an exceptional benefit. The commonest amount was 4s. 9d. a week, which with the municipal subsidy would in case of an adult male have been made up to 8s. 5d. a week in three months of the year and 7s. a week in the remainder.

(2) *Encouragement of Savings to meet Unemployment.*

This side of the Fund, designed to provide for unorganised workmen and to disarm the criticism that the Fund forced men into trade unions, was at first a complete failure. In the first year 13 persons made deposits in accordance with the rules and one drew municipal subsidy to the extent of 5s. 7d. With the permanent organisation of the Fund in 1904, a change was brought about by the admission, not only of individual depositors, but of special thrift associations (distinct from trade unions). In 1904, two such associations having made deposits withdrew on behalf of their unemployed members £132, plus municipal subsidies to the extent of £98. In 1905, three such associations withdrew deposits to the extent of £165, with municipal subsidies amounting to £105. In the same year 12 individual depositors withdrew £13 with £8 as municipal subsidy.

While welcoming this development the Report for 1904-5 points out that such provision can hardly be called insurance against unemployment. The workpeople individually or through an association pay in during the busy season deposits which they withdraw when unemployed, with interest at 50 or 75 per cent.; should they by any chance not become unemployed during the slack season they do not lose their deposits but can withdraw them intact at any time. Whether the workpeople participate formally as individuals or as members of special funds their action remains essentially individual. They run no risks; there is no solidarity between them. The process encouraged by the fund is not that of insurance but of individual saving, and the saving is largely that of persons with an extremely high chance of becoming unemployed. In 1905 the 300 depositors under the scheme for encouraging saving involved the Fund in an expenditure on subventions of £113, or 7s. 6d. per head, while the 11,000 members insured in trade unions involved an expenditure on subventions of £697 (including £86 paid after the expiry of the union benefit), or 1s. 3d. per head. The committee recommend that the rule compelling them to supplement individual savings in the same proportion as trade union benefits be rescinded by the Municipal Council and free hand given them to fix the proportions in the two cases independently. This change has been made in establishing a similar fund in Brussels.

During the years 1904-5 two principal questions have occupied the attention of the Committee:—

1. The treatment of men not wholly unemployed but placed on short time.
2. The method of checking or testing the fact of unemployment.

With regard to the first it was decided that the adding up of hours missed on successive days so as to count as a whole day of unemployment entitling to benefit was not as a general rule legitimate. With regard to the second, it was resolved as an immediate step that every person receiving the subsidy should register daily in a book in the office of his union. A further proposal was made that men in receipt of subsidy should register daily at the public Labour Exchange. Decision was postponed pending the reorganisation of that institution, a matter to which the Committee "attach the greatest possible importance," considering that "the Labour Exchange forms an indispensable complement of their own organisation." The members of trade unions, it is stated in another part of the Report, are to a large extent controlled and prevented from misusing the Fund by the public opinion of their fellows. The individuals participating in the Fund directly are not, pending the proper organisation of the Exchange, effectively controlled at all.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K). —*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)**(b) Antwerp.—Municipal Subvention to Trade Unions and in Aid of Saving.*

In Antwerp a scheme closely modelled on that at Ghent has been in operation since 1902. The statistics for the years 1902-4 are as follows :—

Year	No. of Associations participating.	Membership.	Total paid to Unemployed.	Paid by Associations.	Paid by Municipality.
1902 - -	14	2,862	£ 563	£ 352	£ 211
1903 - -	23	6,776	1,113	762	351
1904 - -	26	7,563	1,688	1,118	570
Total (three years) - - -			3,364	2,232	1,132

The system has thus during three years meant an expenditure by the municipality of about £1,132 (33·6 per cent. of the whole), as against £2,232 (66·4 per cent. of the whole) by the unions.

Of the total subvention of £570 during 1904, £278 or 49 per cent. was taken by a single union of 650 members—the cigarmakers, £90 or 16 per cent. by the diamond-workers with 3,400 members, and £31 or 5 per cent. by a union of office employees with 1,450 members. The building trade is represented by 222 workmen, divided between five unions, and labour, in a narrow sense, only by 48 dockworkers, who yet drew as much as £43 or 8 per cent. of the total subvention.

Since April 1904 daily registration at the municipal Labour Exchange has been a condition of drawing the subsidy. This rule was thought necessary because, according to the organ of the Belgian Labour Department, “it was discovered that many workmen did not even know the way to the Labour Exchange, and that the unemployed fund was in many cases paying allowances to men unemployed at the very time that the Labour Exchange was vainly seeking for workmen in their trade.

(c) Belgian Towns and Provinces.—Municipal Subvention to Trade Unions and in Aid of Saving.

The example of Ghent has now been followed in many other Belgian towns, and also by some of the provincial authorities. Everywhere the general results have been closely similar to those in Ghent—considerable use of the municipal subvention by trade unionists, but partial or complete failure of the provision for unorganised workmen. A summary of these activities is given in the Journal of the Belgian Labour Department for November, 1907.

In 1906 fourteen separate municipal funds were in active working, expending money in one or more of the five following ways. The total sums spent in 1906 are set out under each head :—

1. Supplement to benefits paid by trade unions to their unemployed members. £1,867.

2. Aid to individual savings made to provide against unemployment. £1 10s. 0d.

3. Aid to collective savings made to provide against unemployment. £102 (at Ghent only).

4. Grants to unemployed individuals without previous saving. £91. (This is simply a form of public relief of distress).

5. Lump sum grants to trade unions providing unemployed benefits. Apparently none in 1906. Liege spent £40 in each of the years 1903, 1904, 1905.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

The total amount paid out in direct assistance in 1906 was thus £2,062. The cost of administration was £302.

It will be seen that only the first of these five methods was applied on any large scale. Its growth during the past six years is indicated in the following table:—

SUBVENTIONS TO UNEMPLOYED TRADE UNIONISTS.

Year.	No. of Funds.	No. of Trade Unions affiliated.	Individuals drawing Subvention.	Days for which Subvention was drawn.	Amount paid by Municipalities.	Amount paid by Trade Unions.
1901	2	26	2,089	6,676	£ 250	£ 716
1902	6	98	3,211	32,219	1,167	2,611
1903	9	129	2,835	39,891	1,461	2,685
1904	11	128	2,825	50,604	1,854	3,246
1905	14	131	3,400	55,734	1,420	2,655
1906	14	229	5,019	71,969	1,867	3,589

In 1901 of the sum paid to the unemployed trade unionists, 74 per cent. was provided by the unions and 26 per cent. by the municipalities. In 1906 the proportions were 66 per cent. and 34 per cent.

Of the total of 71,969 days for which subventions were drawn by trade unionists in 1906, Ghent accounted for 32,462 and Antwerp for 24,962, together nearly 80 per cent. of the whole. The numbers for the principal remaining funds were:—Brussels, 3,412; Malines, 1,636; Alost, 1,272; Berchem, 1,232; Molenbeek, 1,108; Louvain, 1,023. None of the remaining towns represent more than 1,000 days.

The principal industrial groups between which these days were distributed are indicated in the following table:—

1906.

Industry.	No. of Unions.	Individuals drawing Subvention.	Days for which Subvention was drawn.
Textiles - - - - -	19	1,543	13,725
Building and Construction - - -	32	683	10,981
Tobacco - - - - -	13	553	9,462
Woodworking and Furnishing - -	44	425	7,789
Metal Trades - - - - -	28	631	7,941
Artistic Trades - - - - -	15	440	7,523
Printing - - - - -	30	291	5,930
Others - - - - -	48	453	8,618
	229	5,019	71,969

The activities of the provincial authorities have been far more limited. In the Province of Antwerp £60 was voted in each of the years 1905 and 1906 for grants to assist the establishment of unemployed insurance funds by trade unions. In Hainaut in 1906 £120 was voted to meet the initial cost of establishing such funds, and £280

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).*

to be distributed in subventions to trade unionists according to the Ghent model. Of this latter sum less than £40 was actually spent. In Eastern Flanders a sum of £160 and in Liege one of £120 were voted in 1906 for lump sum grants to trade unions and other associations making provision against unemployment.

4. FRANCE.

(a) State Subvention to Trade Unions and other Associations.

In April, 1905, the French Government set aside in their Budget for the ensuing financial year £4,400 to subsidise the funds of societies assisting their members during unemployment. The conditions of participation in this subsidy were subsequently announced by Presidential Decree (September 9, 1905).

The classes of funds eligible for participation are :—

1. Those whose membership amounts to at least 100 engaged in the same or kindred occupations.

2. Local funds with a membership of at least 50 engaged in the same or kindred occupations, provided these are already subsidised by the communal authority concerned. (*Amended Dec. 31, 1906. See below.*)

3. In communes of less than 20,000 inhabitants (*amended Dec. 31, 1906. See below*) funds with a membership of at least 50, whether engaged in kindred occupations or not, provided that these are already subsidised by the communal authority.

4. Funds organised by a federation of societies for the purpose of paying travelling benefit and supported by lump sum contributions of the federated societies provided the resources of those societies are themselves derived from the contributions of individual members.

The conditions of participation are :—

1. The fund must have been in operation at least six months, must have an organised system of gratuitously assisting its members to find employment, and must furnish a copy of its bye-laws and rules to the Ministry of Commerce.

2. These bye-laws and rules must include the following (amongst other) provisions : that a member may belong to one fund only for each kind of benefit ; that no member shall have the right to benefit till he has belonged to the fund for at least six months ; that every unemployed member shall sign a register at the office of the fund at least three times a week during working hours, and shall accept such work in his own trade as may be found for him by the fund.

The extent of participation is not to exceed 16 per cent. of the total benefit paid by the fund in accordance with its rules during the half-year ; but in the case of funds operating in at least three different departments and having a paying membership of at least 1,000 this maximum may be increased by one-half, *i.e.*, to 24 per cent.

The operations of this scheme during the first year (1905) were very small. Only £1,107, or just over a quarter of the sum voted, was actually expended.

During the first six months of 1905—the application of the subventions appears to have been dated back to cover benefits paid out since the beginning of the year—71 associations applied for the State subvention, of which 35 were found eligible for it and received grants totalling £539. During the second six months 77 associations applied and 37 received grants, making a total of £568.

Of the total of £1,107, £61 was granted to associations assisted during one-half of the year only, £6 to local travelling funds, £11 to funds not confined to one

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).*

trade, and £1,029 to 22 funds confined to one trade, and assisted in both halves of the year. The following table gives further details as to these trade associations :—

	Printing and bookbinding.	Metal.	Leather and skins.	Pottery.	Commerce and Transport.	Other.	Total.
Average membership.	11,347	7,537	1,362	850	1,760	1,197	24,053
Members unemployed during the year.	2,490	804	642	588	91	651	5,266
Days for which benefit was paid by fun's.	33,155	11,323	18,894	9,197	3,359	7,258	83,186
Total amount paid to unemployed.	£ 3,360	£ 681	£ 1,043	£ 508	£ 232	£ 244	£ 6,068
Amount received by funds as subvention from the State.	685	110	94	69	35	36	1,029

The £36 distributed to other trades includes £24 paid in textile and clothing trades, £7 in agriculture and fishing, £4 in building, woodworking, and construction.

Of the total expenditure on the unemployed only £4,931 could, according to the prescribed conditions, be taken into account in calculating the subventions. The amount of the latter was then 21 per cent. of the sum so taken into account and 17 per cent. of the total expenditure.

It will be seen that the average amount paid per day of unemployment was 1s. 5½d., and the percentage of members becoming unemployed during the year varied from 5 in commerce and transport, under 11 in metals, to nearly 70 in pottery, with an average of 22. Of the total subventions shown in the table, 67 per cent. was taken by four funds in the printing and bookbinding trades, and over 10 per cent. by three in the metal trades.

During the second year (1906) the same sum, £4,400, was voted in the Budget By a Presidential Decree of April 20, 1906. that of September 9, 1905. was amended so as to allow the payment of the subvention with less delay. By a further Presidential Decree of December 31, 1906, apparently having retrospective action in regard to benefits paid out by funds during the twelve months preceding, the conditions of participation were amended in the following amongst other particulars :—

1. Local funds with a membership of at least 50 engaged in the same or kindred occupations may receive the State Subvention if they are already subsidised either by the communal or the departmental authority.

2. In communes of less than 50,000 inhabitants, funds with a membership of at least 50, whether engaged in kindred occupations or not, may participate, provided they are already subsidised by the Communal authority.

3. The minimum State Subvention payable in a half-year was fixed at 8s. (10 francs), and no fund could participate which did not itself pay out at least 24s. (30 francs) in the six months.

The operations of this year (1906) were as follow :—

During the first six months 74 associations applied to participate in the State Subvention. Of these, two did not have to pay out any unemployed benefits, 25 did not furnish the information required, one gave false information, and one refused to submit its accounts to audit. The remaining 45 associations received subventions amounting to £703.

During the second six months 85 associations applied to participate. Of these, five were inoperative, two did not have to pay out any unemployed benefits, 16 did

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade (Q. 98827)*

not provide the necessary information, five did not fulfil the conditions, one paid out less than 24s. in the period, and one gave false information. The remaining 55 associations received subventions amounting to £997.

Of the total of £1,700, £93 was granted to associations assisted during one half of the year only, £15 to local travelling funds, £19 to associations not confined to one trade, and £1,573 to 27 associations confined to one trade and assisted in both halves of the year. The following table gives further details as to these 27 associations :—

	Printing and Book- binding.	Metal.	Leather and Skins.	Pottery.	Com- merce and trans- port.	Other.	Total.
Average membership -	13,810	7,203	733	937	9,575	1,631	33,889
Members unemployed during the year-	4,288	1,722	208	267	207	615	7,307
Days for which benefit was paid by funds.	56,930	13,383	4,460	4,026	5,586	6,462	90,847
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Total amount paid to unemployed -	5,391	944	586	238	479	242	7,880
Amount received back by funds as sub- vention from the State.	1,195	203	43	31	63	38	1,573

The £38 distributed in other trades includes £24 in the textile and clothing trades, £5 in building and woodworking, £9 in works of construction.

Of the total expenditure on the unemployed only £7,064 could, according to the prescribed conditions, be taken into account in calculating the subventions. The amount of the latter was thus 22 per cent. of the sum taken into account and 20 per cent. of the total expenditure.

The average amount paid per day of unemployment was 1s. 8 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. The percentage of members becoming unemployed during the year was lowest in commerce and transport (2), and highest in printing (31) and other trades (38). The average number of days for which each of the unemployed received benefit was lowest in metals (8), and highest in commerce and transport (27), with an average of 12. Of the total amount of the subventions shown in the table 76 per cent. was taken by three funds in the printing trade, and another 13 per cent. by five funds in the metal trades.

Comparison of the two years in respect of the associations confined to one trade and assisted in both halves of the year shows that the increase in membership is mainly accounted for in the occupations connected with commerce and transport, which yield a comparatively small proportion of unemployed. Metals, leather and skins show a decrease. The increase in the total subventions paid is almost wholly accounted for by the printing trade alone. The total number of days for which benefit was paid shows an increase.

Comparison of the two years in respect of all the operations of the scheme shows that the number of funds assisted has risen from 47 to 64; the total membership has risen 16 per cent. from 33,682 to 39,053; the number of unemployed drawing benefit 55 per cent., from 6,645 to 10,322; the number of days for which benefit was paid 19 per cent., from 90,700 to 107,667; the total benefits paid by affiliated funds 30 per cent., from £6,709 to £8,740; and the State subvention 53 per cent., from £1,108 to £1,700.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)**(b) Subventions to Trade Unions and Other Associations by Local Authorities.*

Even before the introduction of the State subvention described above it was already fairly common for local authorities (communal or departmental) to make grants to funds paying unemployed benefit. This was done for the first time by Dijon and Limoges in 1897, the number of funds assisted being 32, and the sum spent £343. One other commune followed the example in 1898, and one department in 1903. In 1904 the number of local authorities making such grants rose to 11, and in the last three years the development has been as follows :—

—	1905.	1906.	1907.
No. of local authorities voting sums for unemployed subvention - -	18	30	32
No. of local authorities paying subvention - - - -	17	[27]	.
No. of funds assisted - - - -	112	[94]	
Amount voted by local authorities -	£ 2,222	£ 2,742	£ 2,776
Amount actually paid by local authorities - - - -	1,444	[1,378]	

The bracketed figures for 1906 are exclusive of Dijon, for which figures are not yet available.

In the year 1907, 32 local authorities voted £2,776 for subventions to unemployed funds, while 3 more (including Paris) made a provisional allocation for the purpose. Of the 32 authorities first mentioned, 11 communes, voting £2,508, or 90 per cent. of the whole, did and 21 (4 departments and 17 communes), voting £268, or 10 per cent. of the whole did not formulate conditions upon which the subvention may be made.

Where any conditions are laid down at all, the principal points dealt with are as follows :—

(a) Separation of funds. All the municipalities having a standing order with regard to subventions insist upon a separation of the unemployed fund from the general fund of the trade union or other association concerned.

(b) Causes of unemployment, etc. Unemployment must be involuntary, and conditions that subvention should not be payable in case of strikes, sickness or accident are common. At Lyons, those unemployed have to register at the public labour exchange ; and at La Rochelle the committee in charge of the subvention puts them in touch with public or private registries. In nearly all cases the obligation is expressly laid upon the workpeople unemployed of accepting suitable work offered them through their union except when the wages are inadequate.

(c) Method of subvention. The method is in most cases (including now Limoges, Reims, Amiens) that of the "Ghent system," strictly so-called *i.e.*, that of augmenting the benefits paid out by associations to their unemployed members. Forty-six per cent of all the sums voted in 1907 were voted for distribution on this principle, which is growing in popularity. The supplementary scheme introduced at Ghent for the unorganised workmen, *i.e.*, the paying of a bonus on individual savings, is not repeated in any French town except La Rochelle. In three towns (Lyons, Cherbourg, Dijon) the subvention to each association is based, not as in the Ghent system upon the unemployed benefits paid out, but upon the total number of members or their contributions, and is simply a lump sum contribution to its unemployed fund.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

Though the local authorities having standing orders or conditions for the payment of subventions are only a minority (11 out of 32 of all the authorities making subventions they naturally include the most important ones. The largest sums voted are at Lyons, £1,000; Limoges, £720; Reims, £320; and Dijon, £200.

Of the 112 funds assisted in 1905, 100 were assisted, subject to conditions. These 100 funds included a membership of 11,488, and drew subventions to the amount of £1,301. The trades most strongly represented were:—Printing with 1,296 members in 16 funds drawing £283; pottery with 2,228 members in 11 funds drawing £244; metals with 896 members in 11 funds drawing £127; and building with 675 members in 15 funds drawing £118.

5.—ITALY.

(a) Milan—Subvention to Trade Unions.

Since 1905, an unemployed fund has been established by a voluntary Association the “*Società Umanitaria*,” in Milan. Its object is to supplement the benefits paid by associations of workmen to their unemployed members, *i.e.*, it is an application of the Ghent system with a private association in the place of the municipality. No attempt is made to provide for the unorganised workmen.

Subventions from the fund are paid only to persons receiving unemployed benefit from trade unions affiliated to the fund. The amount of the subvention is fixed at 50 per cent. of the benefit paid by the trade union, provided that the subvention shall not exceed 4 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. a day, shall not be paid at all when the trade union benefit alone exceeds 1s. 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ d., and shall not be paid for more than 60 days in any one year. Subventions are payable only in cases of involuntary unemployment resulting from seasonal slackness of trade, fluctuations in the demand for a supply of labour, industrial crises, or other dislocations independent of the will of the workman (*e.g.*, breakages and fires). Workmen in receipt of a benefit and belonging to the fund must register at the Labour Exchange (maintained by the *Società Umanitaria*), and lose their claim to subvention if they refuse a situation offered through the Exchange. The subventions are paid out together with the unemployed benefits in advance by the affiliated trade unions and then recovered by them from the Fund at the end of each month.

The Fund is managed by a Committee, composed of the President of the *Società Umanitaria* as Chairman and another representative of the *Società Umanitaria*, two representatives of the affiliated trade unions (in whose election each union has one vote for every 100 members entitled to unemployed benefits), one representative of the Co-operative Societies contributing to the Fund, and one of all other associations contributing not less than £200. The members of the Committee are appointed for one year, but are eligible for re-election. The powers of the Committee include lowering the subventions in case of financial difficulties, decision of disputed claims, and sanctioning the regulations of the affiliated trade unions with regard to payment of benefits. The costs of administration are borne by the *Società Umanitaria*.

The accompanying table shows the working of the Fund to the end of 1906. At the commencement in July, 1905, there were affiliated to the Fund 27 associations with a membership of 6,449; in December, 1905, the number was 33, with a membership of 8,363; and on December 31st, 1906, 36, with a membership of 8,913. Of the 37 associations affiliated to the Fund during 1906 (one made no returns of membership, and is not included in the previous statement), only 24 drew subventions from the Fund. The number of persons in respect of whom subvention was paid in 1906 was 588, the average number of days for each being 23·5, and the average amount received by each being £1 8s. 6d., of which £1 0s. 7d. was borne by the unions and 7s. 11d. by the Fund. The average daily allowance was therefore 1s. 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. : *i.e.*, 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ d., or 72·2 per cent., from the union, and 4d., or 27·8 per cent., from the Fund.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

Apparently the Fund did not itself receive contributions except from the Società Umanitaria, so that the whole of the £233 expended in subventions came from the general funds of the Società.

SUBVENTION TO UNEMPLOYED BENEFITS IN MILAN 1905-6.

	1905 (second half).	1906 (first half).	1906 (second half).	1906 Total.
Members assisted by fund - - - - -	469	277	311	588
Days of unemployment for which allowance was paid by unions.	—	4,443	9,413	13,856
Days of unemployment for which subvention was paid by fund.	12,317	4,033	8,209	12,242
Amount paid by unions to all members unemployed.	£ —	£ 187	£ 458	£ 645
Amount paid by unions to members receiving subvention from fund.	575	178	427	605
Subventions paid by fund - - - - -	226	76	157	233
Total paid to members receiving subvention -	801	254	584	838

The great bulk of the £233 expended in subventions during 1906 was paid to workmen in the printing trade, as is shown by the following statement:—

Union.	Membership, December, 1906.	Amount of Subvention.	Being Percentage of all Subventions.
Compositors - - - - -	1,300	£ s. d. 84 17 9	36·4
Printers - - - - -	1,029	72 4 11	31·0
Lithographers - - - - -	500	21 12 0	9·3
Typographic Institute - -	300	6 10 6	2·8
	3,129	£185 5 2	79·5

These four unions therefore with 35 per cent. of the total membership of the affiliated unions absorbed 80 per cent. of all the subventions paid. No other union received as much as £10 subvention in the year.

(b) *Bologna.—Direct Voluntary Insurance, changed later into Encouragement of Savings.*

In 1896 the Savings Bank at Bologna established a fund for provision against involuntary want of employment. Membership was open to persons of either sex over 14 years of age, born and resident in the province of Bologna and occupied as bricklayers and masons, joiners, smiths, colour washers, marble workers, plumbers, glaziers, or plasterers. Each member had within a specified time to pay either in a lump sum or by instalments 4s., or if a minor 2s. 4 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. In return for this he could draw a daily allowance of 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ d., or if a minor 5 $\frac{3}{4}$ d., for not more than 40 days while unemployed. A member claiming an allowance had to produce a certificate signed either by his employer or by four workmen still employed in the same trade, to the effect that he had lost his employment without personal fault. In addition to the members' contributions the fund included the interest on a sum of £8,000 voted by the bank. Persons becoming unemployed after the fund thus provided was exhausted had their deposits returned with interest. The heirs of persons dying without coming on the fund were similarly entitled to receive the deposits with interest.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

The system as thus established was one of insurance. The contributions of all members became a common fund upon which the unemployed members might draw. The operation of the fund while it retained this character was very small. In the first year 27 workmen (including 22 bricklayers) paid in £4 15s. and drew out £26 8s. In the second year several changes were made. Members of seasonal trades (bricklayers and masons, colour washers and plasterers) were excluded from the fund; many other trades (shoemakers, hat makers, leather workers, bakers, etc.) were admitted. The claim to an allowance was made conditional upon a year's membership of the fund and a year's employment under one employer, periods afterwards reduced to one month and six months respectively. The scheme remained however almost entirely inoperative. The workmen could not be induced to risk the loss of their premium (*i.e.*, if they did not become unemployed). Attempts at deception were innumerable.

In 1901 the character of the fund was changed altogether. The payments of the members instead of being treated as insurance premiums were treated as their own savings to be paid out to them when unemployed, with interest and with a share of the interest on the sum of £8,000. The scheme became therefore simply one of assistance to a specified form of thrift. The members ran no risk of not profiting by their contributions; the only rule was that they could not draw their savings out again except in times of unemployment, or at a rate exceeding 1s. 2½d. a day. From the new scheme women and persons under 18 were excluded, and in 1903 persons under 21 or over 65. Seasonal workers were admitted. On deposits above £3 4s. no bonus was to be paid. Considerable and growing use was made of the fund. At the end of 1903 there were 691 members with deposits amounting to £1,261 and enjoying the interest of £14,250 voted by the bank. The Reports of the fund abound in complaints of attempted deception, of simulated unemployment, of simulated thrift (since men would borrow money to make deposits), and of collusion between employers and employed with regard to the certificates of unemployment. The Bologna scheme is now similar to the provision for unorganised workmen at Ghent, except that at Bologna deposits once made cannot be withdrawn at all except during unemployment. At Ghent deposits can be withdrawn at any time, but are only augmented by the municipal subvention if withdrawn during unemployment.

(c) Venice.—Direct Voluntary Insurance.

In 1901 an Association for the Assistance of Unemployed Workmen was founded in Venice by private persons but with financial support from the municipality. Workmen were originally required to subscribe 3¾d. a month, but in 1904-5 this was raised to 9½d., the allowance payable during unemployment being raised at the same time to 1s. 2½d. daily. No limit was fixed to the time for which allowances were payable. In 1902-3, of 445 workmen registered 215 received allowances amounting altogether to £399. In 1903-4, out of 452 members 329 received allowances amounting to £688. The workmen's contributions only met a very small proportion of the expenditure. In addition to these the association received grants of £400 from the Municipality of Venice, £40 from the Province, and about £80 in subscriptions from honorary members, in addition to the interest on a capital sum of £1,200 set aside by the municipality some years before for the assistance of the unemployed.

In a report of the association itself this insurance scheme is described as a complete failure, and the necessity of re-consideration and thoroughgoing amendment is recognised.

6.—NORWAY

State and Municipal Subvention to Trade Unions and other Associations.

By the laws passed on June 12th, 1906, provision was made first for the establishment of free public labour registries in all such towns and communes as should be determined by Royal Decree; second, for refunding one-fourth of the amount paid as unemployed benefit to its members by any unemployed insurance fund complying

APPENDIX No. XXI. (K).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

with certain prescribed conditions. Two-thirds of the amount so refunded by the State is to be recovered by it from the local authorities of the places in which the recipients of unemployed benefit last resided for a period of six consecutive months within the previous five years.

The principal conditions for receipt of the State grant by any fund are as follows :

No member is to receive benefit unless he has belonged to the fund for the previous six months at least, and has paid his subscriptions for twenty-six weeks.

The benefit paid must not begin till the member has been unemployed at least three days, must not exceed half the average daily earnings in the trade concerned, and must not be paid for more than ninety days in any twelve months.

An unemployed member must accept the offer of any employment deemed suitable for him by the Committee of his fund. Persons belonging to one such fund may not draw benefit from another. Persons unemployed through strikes, lockouts, sickness or infirmity may not draw benefit.

This law came into effect on October 1st, 1906, and unless renewed will expire on December 31st, 1911.

7.—DENMARK.

State Subvention to Trade Unions and Other Associations.

By a law of April 9, 1907, the Danish Government is to make an annual grant to "recognised" funds established for the purpose of affording assistance to their members when out of work.

In order to become "recognised," a fund must have at least 50 members, must confine its membership to workpeople between the ages of 18 and 60, and must furnish lists of members showing ages, occupations, etc., and also whether those occupations are seasonal or not. Associations of workpeople belonging to one or more trades who have combined to insure themselves against unemployment may become recognised.

The total grant is to be one-third of the premiums paid by members of recognised funds up to a maximum of £13,900 in one year, and is to be divided between the funds in proportion to the premiums paid into them.

The benefits granted by recognised funds—whether in travelling expenses, house rent, food or money—are not to be less than 6½d., and not more than 2s. 3d. a day, nor more than two-thirds of the current local earnings in the trade concerned. Persons unemployed through strikes, lock-outs, sickness, incapacity, or having lost their work through drunkenness or bad conduct, or being in receipt of poor relief, or declining work offered them by the committee of their fund are ineligible for benefit.

A special officer called the Inspector of Unemployment is to be appointed, to whom application for a share in the annual grant must be made. The new law is to come in force three months after promulgation, and to be subject to revision in 1912.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)***LABOUR COLONIES ON THE CONTINENT.**

It is the purpose of this Memorandum to describe the organisation of the Continental Labour Colonies, the lines upon which they are conducted, the extent of their operations, the class of people with which they individually deal, and, in so far as *data* are available, the success of the Colonies in procuring permanent work for the unemployed.

In the preparation of the Memorandum, use has been made of the two Reports on "Agencies and Methods for dealing with the Unemployed in Foreign Countries," published by the Board of Trade in 1893 (C. 7182) and 1904 (Cd. 2304), the latter by Mr. D. F. Schloss; the Annual Reports and other publications of the Colonies; the Official Reports on Prussian and Belgian Houses of Correction, and recent volumes of "Der Wanderer," the organ of the German "Herbergsverein" (Travellers' Homes Association); and finally the results of visits paid to several of the Colonies have been incorporated.

GERMANY.

The leading characteristics of the German Labour Colonies are:—

- (1) They are free Colonies established and mainly supported by philanthropic societies, and are in no way subject to State, municipal, or any other form of public control.
- (2) They deal in the main with the vagrant population.
- (3) Shelter in return for work is offered temporarily only, but it is expected that colonists will remain at least two months, and in practice that term is often exceeded.

The first Colony was founded in 1882 by Pastor von Bodelschwingh, of Bielefeld, who is still at the head of a large network of philanthropic agencies located near that Westphalian town. He chose a site on the heath a few miles from Bielefeld, and called the Colony Wilhelmsdorf. The institution at once attracted great attention, and "Labour Colony Associations" were formed in various parts of the country. Six Colonies were opened in 1883, and ten during the three following years. To-day there are thirty-three Colonies in Germany, twenty-one being in Prussia (distributed in eleven provinces), two in Bavaria, two in Saxony, two in Wurtemberg, and one each in Oldenburg, Baden, Hesse, Thuringia, the Palatinate, and Hamburg. In addition, there is an affiliated Colony in England, intended for Germans in distress in this country. The whole of the thirty-three Colonies have accommodation for 4,482 persons, and the aggregate number of admissions to the end of December, 1906, was 179,311, of which 9,113 fell to the year 1906. All the Colonies except three are farm Colonies; those of Berlin, Hamburg, and Magdeburg are conducted on industrial lines.

Each of the Colonies is governed by the provincial or other association which is responsible for its maintenance. There is, however, a Central Board for the whole country, formed of representatives of the local associations, known as the "Central Board of the German Labour Colonies," whose functions are in the main consultative, and which meets once a year.

The objects of the Colonies have been explained as follows by the Central Board:—

- (1) The Colonies are institutions of Christian charity, in which anyone who has suffered inward or outward [moral or material] shipwreck, or who stands in danger of so suffering, may be received and raised again. Colonists have no legal claim to the benefits of the institution.
- (2) All able-bodied men, who are willing to work, are admitted without distinction of character or religion so long as there is room.
- (3) Dipsomaniacs are not admitted, or, if admitted, may be expelled.
- (4) The special aim of the Colonies is to secure the permanent moral elevation of the colonists.
- (5) The house regulations of the Colonies are the same throughout.
- (6) Board and lodging must not be in excess of the strictest requirements.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

(7) The scale of pay (board, lodging, and payment in cash or clothes, etc.), must be lower than the daily wages prevailing in the locality.

(8) Dismissal is the only form of punishment. [This involves, however, the forfeiture of the colonist's accumulated earnings, if any.]

(9) Colonists expelled for bad behaviour shall not be admitted into another Colony without the consent of the Colony which discharged them.

While these are the general principles followed by the Labour Colony Associations, each local association is free to introduce such modifications as it thinks desirable. Thus the Hamburg Colony does not profess to admit persons, not being citizens of the Free State or having their settlement therein, who have not worked at least twelve months in the town, unless they are discharged prisoners, in which case no condition applies. The same Colony also gives special consideration to men discharged as cured from the lunatic asylum, and male cripples of Hamburg who are capable of being trained to work. In general, the association declines "on principle" to admit "all those men for whose maintenance the State of Hamburg is not responsible, and refers these to their communes of settlement or to the Colony of their own home."

The sources of revenue are the subscriptions and donations of members of the Labour Colony Associations, grants in many cases from provincial, district, and municipal authorities, church and house-to-house collections, miscellaneous gifts, and finally the proceeds of the colonists' labour.

The following is a statement of the provision made by the whole of the Colonies, with the number of persons admitted, refused admission, and discharged, during the years 1895 to 1906 :—

	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
Number of Colonies in existence at beginning of year.	26	28	29	29	31	32	32	34	34	34	33	34
Number of persons for whom accommodation existed in Colonies at end of year.	3,179	3,265	3,253	3,390	3,500	3,660	3,632	4,011	3,978	4,143	4,256	4,482
Number of persons admitted to Colonies in year.	7,869	7,646	7,191	7,333	7,244	7,494	8,823	10,046	10,307	9,819	10,009	9,113
Number of persons refused admission to Colonies in year.	3,521	3,096	1,325	1,181	1,158	1,384	3,342	3,476	2,793	2,481	2,172	1,417
Number of persons who left Colonies in year.	7,832	7,806	7,172	7,583	7,065	7,228	8,487	9,756	10,338	9,891	10,055	9,408
Number of persons remaining in Colonies at end of year.	3,024	2,918	2,937	2,804	2,982	3,258	3,594	3,999	3,968	3,897	3,835	3,590
Number of Days of Work performed by colonists in year.	Not stated.	631,477	604,102	655,012	633,983	677,782	786,569	899,114	939,276	887,695	Not stated.	826,931

AGE OF THE COLONISTS.

The ages of the persons admitted to the Colonies during the years 1895 to 1906 are shown in the following table :—

Age.	Number of persons admitted to Colonies whose Age was as shown in the preceding column.											
	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
Under 15 years - -	516	3	1	0	1	3	2	2	1	1	—	—
15 and under 17 years -		53	47	38	22	8	28	26	33	27	25	15
17 " " 21 " -		540	410	402	323	324	450	536	567	500	486	421
21 " " 31 " -		1,809	1,500	1,361	1,396	1,297	1,288	1,545	2,078	2,081	1,848	1,838
31 " " 51 " -		4,177	4,187	3,809	3,996	3,993	4,156	4,527	5,192	5,263	5,194	4,798
51 " " 61 " -	311	1,056	1,138	1,252	1,197	1,293	1,373	1,777	1,760	1,843	1,765	1,864
61 " " 71 " -		225	284	278	284	325	431	426	474	453	493	505
71 and over - -		—	27	26	31	17	43	26	26	21	39	35
Age not ascertained -	—	—	—	—	—	—	20	—	19	—	—	—
Total - - -	7,869	7,646	7,191	7,333	7,244	7,494	8,823	10,046	10,307	9,819	10,009	9,113

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

It will be seen that a majority of the persons admitted are between the ages of thirty-one and fifty-one years, but that the number aged fifty-one or more is considerable. Of the colonists admitted in 1906, 52·7 per cent. were between thirty-one and fifty-one years old, and 25·9 per cent. above fifty years old; in 1905, the percentages were 52·6 and 23·9 respectively, and in 1904, 52·9 and 22·9.

MARRIED AND SINGLE COLONISTS.

The conjugal position of the colonists is shown in the following table :—

Conjugal condition.	Number of persons admitted whose conjugal position was as shown in the preceding column.											
	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
Unmarried - - -	6,195	6,027	5,580	5,624	5,554	5,720	6,749	7,688	7,949	7,580	7,683	6,898
Married - - -	463	364	337	347	354	312	380	476	482	437	455	368
Separated - - -	386	392	431	451	432	473	575	609	606	607	652	620
Widowed - - -	651	691	662	716	703	789	855	978	944	891	891	901
Divorced - - -	174	172	181	195	201	200	244	295	307	304	328	326
Not stated - - -	—	—	—	—	—	—	20	—	19	—	—	—
Total - - -	7,869	7,646	7,191	7,333	7,244	7,494	8,823	10,046	10,307	9,819	10,009	9,113

So far as the Colony authorities can ascertain, therefore, the great bulk of the men admitted every year are unmarried. The percentage of single men in 1906 was 75·7 per cent. of the whole, in 1905, 76·8 per cent., and in 1904, 77·2 per cent.

PAST OCCUPATIONS OF THE COLONISTS.

The following is a classification of the colonists according to their past occupations :—

Occupation.	Number of persons admitted whose previous trade or occupation was as shown in the first column.											
	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
"Workmen" (trade not distinguished).		2,434	2,219	2,210	2,173	2,212	2,740	3,138	2,911	2,826	3,246	2,772
Building trades - -		655	664	659	579	637	768	834	918	799	801	804
Metal and engineering -		632	571	609	588	685	934	1,070	997	918	847	760
Mining - - -		37	28	48	53	49	72	98	69	85	67	42
Textile - - -		187	170	203	194	209	280	211	219	247	210	202
Clothing and cleaning -		579	487	587	517	421	471	504	504	504	530	497
Transport - - -		115	113	112	120	139	149	158	154	139	142	114
Agriculture and fishing -		543	551	570	757	807	803	1,071	1,308	1,174	962	875
Printing, paper, and leather.	7869*	232	220	206	242	245	266	319	288	273	226	254
Woodworking - - -		308	330	274	290	353	399	413	359	386	414	404
Chemical and pottery -		223	227	251	245	247	299	273	257	276	277	242
Food and tobacco - -		635	611	569	573	512	532	609	669	701	720	659
Commerce - - -		467	458	395	357	368	448	545	600	593	589	569
Hairdressers, etc. - -		105	98	99	73	88	92	94	116	103	112	115
Officials, surveyors, etc. -		173	164	170	153	150	150	161	118	125	142	129
Domestic service - -		65	50	52	63	46	66	97	108	56	94	76
Miscellaneous - - -		256	230	319	267	276	334	451	693	614	630	599
Unspecified - - -		—	—	—	—	—	20	—	19	—	—	—
Total - - -	7,869*	7,646	7,191	7,333	7,244	7,494	8,823	10,046	10,307	9,819	10,009	9,113

* It is not possible to tabulate here the classification according to occupations of the 7,869 colonists admitted in 1895.

It is an interesting question how far the colonists belong to the class whose unemployment is due to one or other of many causes which do not imply actual culpability.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

The rules of the Central Board, far from discriminating, provide for the admission of all necessitous men who have "suffered inward or outward shipwreck," provided they are able-bodied, and the reports of the various Colonies show that such inmates form the great majority. Not only so, but a large proportion of the men who enter the farm Colonies are vagrants and work-shirkers, who have loafed their manhood away and whose last desire, in seeking admission, is to be reformed.

The great difference between the town and the country Colony lies in the fact that the former does not harbour the habitual tramp, though unskilled labourers form the majority of its colonists.

Herr A. F. Schlunk, Director of the Berlin Industrial Colony, writes :—

"Our colonists have been for the most part townsmen, rarely countrymen. This could at once be perceived from their appearance. Starvation and rags were but seldom in evidence. Whether it can be said that our people were also morally superior to the men received in the country Colonies is another question. Certain it is that it has been our constant task to combat untruthfulness, drunkenness, and other vices, and also laziness. All sorts and conditions of men have been represented in the Colony. The majority of the inmates were casual labourers, or unskilled labourers in factories, but we have also had tradesmen, waiters, artisans, clerks, university men, and professional men."

It is impossible to say what proportion of the colonists classified as belonging to skilled trades actually followed their occupation at a recent date. The fact that the men who enter the Colonies are for the most part social wrecks, and that more than one half of those admitted every year have been in a Colony before—often several if not many times—would seem to justify the assumption that most of the colonists described as above are no longer fit or able to follow their trades, so that the dividing line between them and the unskilled labourer is a more or less imaginary one. There is also general agreement that the majority of the colonists classified simply as "workmen" belonged to the unskilled class. It would appear, therefore, that in the main the Colonies are fed from the ranks of the inefficient and incapables.

There is no clear evidence that efficient workmen displaced in times of industrial depression make use of the Colonies to any appreciable extent. It is significant, for example, that there is a marked constancy in the small number of miners admitted, and that the proportion of colonists described as belonging to the metal and engineering trades was only 1·5 per cent. less in the years 1905 and 1906, which were years of special activity in these trades, than in the years of depression 1900 and 1901 (8·4 against 9·9 per cent.).

On this subject the Director of the Hamburg Industrial Colony writes :—

"Our colonists are almost wholly second and fourth-rate men who can no longer keep abreast of the demands made upon labour outside. Only a very small percentage come to the Colony owing to the unfavourable condition of the labour market—in times of economic depression, perhaps 10 to 15 per cent."

So, too, the Director of the Berlin Colony, which is likewise industrial, and is recruited specially from the urban labouring class, says :—

"My experience would almost justify me in saying that our typical colonist is lower than the typical agricultural colonist, because the excrescence of the entire nation concentrates in the large towns. Such people only stay a few days in a Colony, then go, for the work and stern discipline are uncongenial to them. In intelligence, however, the urban colonists are perhaps superior to the rural."

LENGTH OF STAY.

There is no hard and fast rule as to the period of sojourn in the Colonies, for though every endeavour is made to restrict the stay to from two to four months, great latitude is allowed to the directors, according to the pressure of new applicants, the season of the year, the work to be done, and the individual circumstances of the colonists. In practice it is found that a considerable proportion of the colonists leave within the first two months, but the majority of these either go without permission, or are discharged for misconduct, idleness, or other causes of complaint. The proportion that remain for a longer period is indicated by the following table. A certain proportion of those given in the table as

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

having been less than two months in the Colonies at the end of the year, no doubt prolong their stay to more than two months.

Duration.	Number of persons remaining in the Colonies at the end of each year,* whose stay in the Colonies had then extended to the period stated in the first column.										
	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
Less than 2 months - - -	1,473	1,601	1,355	1,484	1,581	1,572	1,754	1,837	1,796	1,832	1,612
2 up to 4 months - - -	718	640	699	763	842	975	1,003	933	959	931	942
4 „ 6 „ - - -	318	269	336	334	362	485	530	462	451	407	401
6 „ 12 „ - - -	264	269	278	264	291	346	479	479	405	397	369
Over 12 - - -	145	158	136	137	182	216	233	257	286	268	266
Total - - -	2,918	2,937	2,804	2,982	3,258	3,594	3,999	3,968	3,897	3,835	3,590

* The figures are not given for 1895.

Regarding the colonists who are shown as remaining longer than a year, it should be stated that most of these are steady, responsible men who have made themselves useful as foremen and trainers of the inexperienced new arrivals, and many are virtually permanent employees, in receipt of moderate wages in addition to board and lodging.

The friends of the Labour Colonies are not insensible to the inadequacy of a short term of residence in these institutions, and admit that there would be far greater hope of producing a lasting impression upon inveterate idlers, if it were possible to retain them for a much longer time. Thus a speaker at the 1904 meeting of the Central Board of Labour Colonies said :—

“According to the regulations prevailing in our Colonies, the length of time for which the inmates are required to bind themselves to stay in a Colony, even in the case of men who apply for admission on five, six, or more successive occasions, is only three to four months. Of this fact advantage has been taken by many colonists. These men obtain admission at the beginning of winter, and as soon as the song of the lark is heard again in the land, start on the tramp once more, with joy in their hearts, with a good suit of clothes on their backs, with stomachs renovated, and with the money they have earned in the Colony in their pockets, leaving the Colony authorities, who are anxiously thinking how they are to get their sowing done at once, and later on get in as big a harvest as may be, with nothing but a lot of cripples remaining in the institution. In the autumn and when winter is drawing near, these swallows then fly back to their old nests; and of course the Colony cannot be so cruel as to refuse admission to these men who come with profound professions of repentance and of disgust with all evil ways of life. Accordingly the men are re-admitted, only to play the same old game again next spring.

“Really, we have been a patient lot of people! For twenty years we have put up with this state of things, and this though, so far as the great bulk of the colonists were concerned, we never saw any material improvement take place in the character of these people. Indeed, many of the directors and committees managing Colonies always considered, nay still consider, that no fault is to be found with this state of things, because, so they tell us, it cannot be altered, and our colonists, at any rate the majority of them, according to their opinion, remain, whatever one does, just the same as before. If all this be granted, then such a state of things would justify the present arrangements, under which the agreements with our colonists are for a stay of from three to four months. But since years of ample experience have taught us that it is impossible for a stay of three or four months in a Labour Colony to effect an alteration in or cure a man who has led a life of vice for years, sometimes for very many years, we ought, if we want to do any real work, to alter the regulations of our Colonies. There is no reason why our recidivist colonists should not be bound in the first instance to a stay of twelve instead of three months; and then if such a man, after the expiration of his twelve months' period, leaves the Colony and comes back again in a dilapidated and miserable condition, nothing prevents our binding him to a stay in the Colony of two years duration.” *

The principal obstacles in the way of any large extension of the period of detention are :—

- (1) It might unduly emphasise the idea of coercion, whereas the Colonies now lay stress upon their philanthropic and voluntary basis.
- (2) The unwillingness of the men themselves would probably prove insuperable; and
- (3) The inadequacy of the accommodation.

The last obstacle is, for the present, sufficiently deterrent. Already the capacity of most of the Colonies is taxed to the full, and if the period of stay were even doubled, it would involve a largely increased number of rejections or the extension and multiplication of the existing Colonies at great cost.

* “Der Wanderer,” March, 1904, pp. 87, 88.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

APPLICATIONS FOR ADMISSION REFUSED.

The following table shows the number of applications for admission refused since 1894, and the reasons for such refusal:—

Cause.	Number of persons to whom admission to the Colonies was refused for the cause stated in the first column.											
	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
Lack of room - - -	1,406	798	382	351	376	720	2,142	2,134	1,438	958	858	365
Not belonging to district -	1,106	1,454	299	234	181	91	394	402	285	299	212	164
Too young - - -	*	25	12	14	10	11	10	14	11	19	15	6
Too old - - -	*	59	12	16	6	12	19	18	49	94	72	42
Illness - - -	255	109	106	110	109	100	134	103	170	216	140	100
Unfit for work - -	*	91	92	79	71	49	71	75	116	121	115	84
Intemperance - - -	33	43	36	32	26	28	36	42	43	70	60	43
On "Black List" - -	*	517	97	138	153	177	200	235	216	173	157	165
Other reasons - -	*721		289	207	226	196	336	453	465	531	543	448
Total - - -	3,521	3,096	1,325	1,181	1,158	1,384	3,342	3,476	2,793	2,481	2,172	1,417

* In the figures for 1895, the "too young," "too old," and "unfit for work," and "on black list" are included in the "other reasons" group.

It would appear that a large proportion of the refusals to receive applicants into the Colonies have been due to reasons wholly unconnected with their merit or demerit. Of the applicants refused admission because of "lack of room" in the years 1904, 1905, and 1906, viz., 958, 858, and 365 respectively, the largest number fell in each year to January, viz., 167, 163, and 99, respectively. The applicants refused admission because on the "black list" are men who have seriously misconducted themselves in one of the Colonies, but this list, though regularly exchanged between the Colonies, would appear to be somewhat indulgently applied.

SEASONAL PRESSURE OF ADMISSIONS.

One of the practical difficulties by which all the agricultural Colonies are faced lies in the fact that the greatest number of admissions invariably fall to the winter months, when outdoor work is least abundant, while on the other hand some of the Colonies experience a dearth of labour when it is most needed, as at harvest time. As a rule, nearly twice as many men are admitted in November as in the months of spring and summer. The following table shows the maximum and minimum monthly admissions, and the monthly average for the past seven years:—

Year.	Maximum Admissions.		Minimum Admissions.		Monthly Average for the Year.
	No.	Month.	No.	Month.	
1900 - - - -	1,039	November	436	February	625
1901 - - - -	1,151	"	537	"	735
1902 - - - -	1,124	"	654	"	837
1903 - - - -	1,253	"	733	April	859
1904 - - - -	1,202	"	674	March	818
1905 - - - -	1,141	"	693	July	834
1906 - - - -	1,062	"	575	June	759

It has not been found that the work of the Colonies has any influence upon the rates of wages of free labour. In the first place the number of the colonists is not large enough, and the produce sent into the open market is, to some extent, of a non-competitive character, as in the case of peat, faggots, &c.; moreover, such competition as the Colonies offer is at best the competition of very inferior labour, for which there is little demand outside. Finally, the Colonies produce in the main for their own consumption, and this is especially the case with farm produce, comparatively little of which can be spared for the market. Such competition as exists is that offered by the industrial departments, yet even here it is held to be insignificant.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

RE-ADMISSIONS TO COLONIES.

The proportion of admissions of persons who have previously been inmates of the same or other Colonies is very large. The recidivists in 1906 numbered 5,785 out of a total of 9,113 admissions, being 63·5 per cent. of the whole ; in 1905 they were 5,896 out of 10,009, or 58·9 per cent. ; and in 1904 they were 5,745, out of 9,819, equal to 58·5 per cent. It will be seen from the following table, covering eleven years, that a large number have been admitted four, five, and six times, and even oftener :—

Repeated Admission.	Number of persons admitted to Colonies who had been admitted to a Colony on the number of previous occasions shown in the first column.										
	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
Never previously admitted to a Colony.	2,353	2,156	2,829	2,688	2,890	3,774	4,293	4,351	4,074	4,113	3,323
Previously admitted :—											
On 1 occasion - - - -	1,118	1,561	1,670	1,577	1,569	1,693	2,039	2,211	2,062	2,066	1,760
„ 2 occasions - - - -	552	754	994	1,006	998	1,033	1,136	1,236	1,213	1,200	1,205
„ 3 „ - - - -	359	443	617	628	661	689	747	792	742	750	808
„ 4 „ - - - -	192	270	381	412	438	460	454	473	498	508	557
„ 5 „ - - - -	138	154	228	282	264	330	364	312	345	334	338
„ 6 „ - - - -	69	120	173	209	189	250	280	255	217	259	260
On more than 6 occasions -	136	203	441	442	485	574	733	658	668	779	857
Information wanting - - -	2,729	1,530	—	—	—	20	—	19	—	—	—
Total - - - -	7,646	7,191	7,333	7,244	7,494	8,823	10,046	10,307	9,819	10,009	9,113

REASONS FOR LEAVING THE COLONIES.

The circumstances under which the colonists have left during the years 1895 to 1906 are shown by the following table :—

Circumstances.	Number of persons who left the Colonies in the circumstances stated in the first column.											
	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
Discharged at own desire	4,346	4,241	3,972	4,146	3,895	3,929	4,761	5,638	6,167	5,514	5,523	5,073
Went to situations found by themselves.	847	889	874	958	837	757	842	952	1,006	1,129	983	882
Went to situations found by Colonies.	1,039	1,211	911	877	711	707	636	924	960	783	882	792
Rejoined their families -	191	171	148	179	162	161	163	232	289	437	407	361
Dismissed :—												
On account of sickness	—	22	191	148	187	210	308	244	259	336	339	328
As incapable of labour	237	233	71	80	49	52	64	80	75	66	81	47
At request of authorities.	115	83	64	72	72	104	114	119	105	86	144	84
For bad behaviour, drunkenness, etc.	600	637	454	497	501	635	813	789	693	600	429	400
For laziness - - -			175	191	220	203	253	271	309	359	175	160
Refusal to work* - -	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	684	779
On expiration of time -	254	106	110	171	163	214	221	223	167	194	78	160
Left without notice -	189	190	189	233	248	240	233	254	259	356	295	322
Died - - - -	14	23	13	31	20	16	19	30	30	31	35	20
Circumstances not stated	—	—	—	—	—	—	60	—	19	—	—	—
Total - - -	7,832	7,806	7,172	7,583	7,065	7,228	8,487	9,756	10,338	9,891	10,055	9,408

* Not separately classified prior to 1905.

It is interesting to compare with the above classification, which relates for the most part to agricultural Colonies, a similar classification of the whole of the colonists who were

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

discharged from the Hamburg Industrial Colony from its establishment to the end of 1906 :—

Discharged at own desire	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,554
Went to situations found by themselves	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	909
Went to situations found by Colony	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	797
Rejoined their families	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	29
Dismissed—										
On account of sickness	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	201
At request of the authorities	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	83
For bad behaviour	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	277
For drunkenness	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	116
For laziness, refusal to work, and infraction of rules	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	307
On expiration of time	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	11
On “Black List”	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9
Left without notice	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	376
Died	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	36
Sent to Penal Workhouse and Poorhouse	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8
Total	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5,713

Every effort is made to procure work for colonists who conduct themselves satisfactorily, but it would appear that only in a small minority of cases is there clear evidence that such colonists go direct to situations. Of 57,935 persons who passed through the Colonies during the six years 1901 to 1906, 5,794, or 10·0 per cent., went to situations found by themselves; and 4,977, or 8·6 per cent., to situations found for them; while 32,676, or 56·4 per cent., were discharged at their own desire; 1,889, or 3·3 per cent., rejoined their families; 1,719, or 3·0 per cent., left without notice (“disappeared secretly”) often taking good clothes with them; and 6,714, or 11·6 per cent., were discharged for bad conduct, laziness, or refusal to work.

AGRICULTURAL *versus* INDUSTRIAL COLONIES.

For each of the two types of Colonies, agricultural and industrial, peculiar merits are claimed. It is an advantage of the rural Colony that work of some kinds can be found at most times for all classes of men who are willing and physically capable, while employment in an industrial Colony always requires a certain degree of intelligence and adaptability. The Director of the Berlin Colony writes :—

“We can only admit a small number of unskilled labourers here, because we carry on industry almost exclusively, and such men, especially if up in years, can be taught with difficulty.”

This is doubtless the reason why the town Colonies are compelled to curtail the period of sojourn more rigorously than the rural Colonies, as is shown by the fact that during 1906 there were 3·2 admissions for every “place” provided in the three Colonies of the former kind, against 1·9 admissions to every “place” provided by the Colonies of the latter kind.

The general experience would appear to be that employment on the spot in industrial work is most expedient for the urban labourer, and that the rural Colony specially meets the case of the roaming population which does not make the towns a final objective. The Director of the Berlin Colony writes :—

“The townsman will not go on to the land, and is less adaptable than the rural labourer to agricultural work, just as the rural labourer can be less usefully employed in industrial work.”

The Director of the Hamburg Colony comes to the same conclusion. He writes :—

“Our experience here is that industrial employment is to be preferred for a town Colony.”

The foregoing general observations may be supplemented by a brief description of typical agricultural and industrial Colonies.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

THE WILHELMSDORF AGRICULTURAL COLONY.

There is essential similarity between agricultural Colonies in general, whether in Germany, Switzerland, Belgium, or Holland, and to describe one is to describe all. One Colony has more arable land than another, one may give special prominence to grazing, but mixed farming is common to all, and outdoor work is the almost exclusive source of employment during more than half the year.

These Colonies have invariably been established on unreclaimed land, generally in the midst of heath or moor, which does not, however, necessarily imply in Germany bleak, elevated land such as is in England used for sheep pasturage or given over to game. Estates of this kind have been acquired, both on the ground of policy and of expense. Not only do they ensure the desirable seclusion, but land already under cultivation would have been prohibitive in cost, and would not have offered employment of the kind desired.

Such a Colony is Wilhelmsdorf, the parent Colony in Germany. Its entire area is about 1,500 acres, of which 300 acres are cropped, the remainder being pasturage, plantations, and still unreclaimed land. The following observations refer to this Colony particularly, though they apply with slight modification to the farm Colonies generally.

The number of persons in the Wilhelmsdorf Colony at the beginning of the financial year 1906-7 (April 1st) was 150, the new admissions of the year were 437, and the discharges numbered 429, leaving 158 colonists on March 31st, 1907.

An applicant for admission is first asked to produce his travelling pass or other satisfactory papers of "legitimation," and if without he is enjoined to procure a travelling pass by working at a Relief Station or a Police Station Workyard, and then return, as he may do, in two or three days. On being admitted into the Colony the newcomer is duly acquainted with the regulations, and is required to sign his acceptance of the same, and especially to pledge himself to remain for a minimum term, and to comply with the orders of all his superiors. The Colonies possess no legal powers of detention, however, and if a colonist becomes dissatisfied with his life of industry after a few days' or weeks' trial, and "secretly disappears," as the official phrase runs, no attempt is made to find him; he is simply entered on the "black list" in view of a possible re-appearance later.

If, as is usually the case, the man arrives ill-fed, he is at once given nutritious food, and for several days he is put to light labour. In due time he is placed in a gang of workers, and so falls into the normal life of the Colony.

Although the colonists are not conceded any legal claim to wages, a small payment is generally made to them after several weeks by way of encouragement and of help when the time of discharge arrives. There is no uniform scale, the director—generally known as "House Father" (*Hausvater*)—having a free hand in the matter, but the usual recompense is 2½d. or 3d. per day. These earnings are placed to every man's credit, and out of them he may purchase cheap clothing and luxuries (like tobacco), while the balance is paid to him or to some responsible person on his behalf when he leaves the Colony. The wages received by 127 colonists at Wilhelmsdorf in July, 1904, were as follows:—Four bricklayers, engaged on the erection of an additional dormitory, 9d. per day; seven stable men, one painter, and one shoemaker, 6d.; three stable men, and one tailor, 3½d.; and sixty-two other men, 3d.; forty-eight colonists received no payment.

Occasionally a substantial sum has accumulated by the time a colonist leaves, but more usually the wages afford little margin beyond the cost of clothing and tobacco, and it frequently happens that colonists "secretly disappear" as soon as they have obtained a new outfit, leaving the Colony in debt. This is one of the risks which, in the absence of powers of detention, the Colonies are compelled to run, yet the aggregate loss caused in this way is insignificant when compared with the total expenditure which is not covered by the proceeds of the colonists' labour.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

The day is divided differently according to the seasons. The following is the timetable observed at Wilhelmsdorf:—

						Winter.	Late Spring.	Summer.
						a.m.	a.m.	a.m.
Rising, week-days	-	-	-	-	-	5.0 to 5.30	4.30	4. 0
„ Sundays	-	-	-	-	-	6.0 to 6.30	6. 0	6. 0
First breakfast	-	-	-	-	-	5.20 to 5.50	4.50	4.20
Morning Service	-	-	-	-	-	5.40 to 6.10	5.10	4.40
Second breakfast	-	-	-	-	-	9.0	8.30	8.30
Dinner	-	-	-	-	-	noon	noon	noon
						p.m.	p.m.	p.m.
Afternoon meal (carried to the fields)	-	-	-	-	-	—	3.30	3.30
Supper	-	-	-	-	-	5.50	7. 0	8. 0

The following is the usual menu, though there are modifications according to the season of the year:—

First breakfast	-	-	-	Coffee, black bread, beet jelly.
Second breakfast	-	-	-	Lard or butter or cheese, black bread.
Dinner	-	-	-	Vegetables with potatoes, pig's fat three times a week.
Afternoon meal	-	-	-	Coffee, bread and lard.
Supper	-	-	-	Milk (or rice, or peas), soup, potatoes, herring occasionally.

The colonists are put to whatever farm work may require doing—digging, manure spreading, potato sowing, hoeing, harvest work, lifting of root crops, ditching, road-making, and the general work of the farmyard and byre. It is obvious, however, that much of the labour is very inefficient, and that such a Colony as this cannot be conducted on the ordinary methods.

“The men who come to the Colony arrive in a weak condition, which prevents them from working hard, and, in addition, men with the necessary knowledge of the work are not forthcoming in sufficient numbers. For instance, when the writer visited the Colony just before harvest time in 1904, he was told that there were then in the Colony only five men who could do reaping. It is stated that, if the labour available were of the ordinary type, the farm of Wilhelmsdorf could be worked by twenty-five men. It must be remembered, however, that in this case much of the work now done by the colonists—building, etc.—would be done by contract, and by the employment of outside labour, while some of it—road-making, etc.—would probably not be done at all, or not done in connection with the working of the farm.” *

The live stock at Wilhelmsdorf in 1905 comprised 10 horses and 6 oxen for draught purposes, 48 milk cows, 27 young cows, 130 pigs, 120 hens, 14 ducks, and a large number of pigeons. There were no sheep.

Every agricultural Colony endeavours, as far as possible, to be self-supporting, so far as the supply of food goes, and as a rule all the meat, milk, butter, and vegetables consumed by the colonists are produced on the farm; the corn grown is sold in the sheaf, but while rye flour for bread is bought, it is as a rule baked in the Colony bakehouse.

The principal source of revenue is the sale of surplus farm stock and produce.

The winter months are an anxious time for a “house father” concerned about the financial aspect of Colony life and management, for the colonists are then most numerous, and the work available is most limited. So long as the weather continues open the men are kept at work on the land, but when the ground is locked by frost or snow, indoor occupations of various kinds have to be found for the majority of the colonists, and here the “house father's” resource is taxed to the utmost.

It will readily be understood that the success of a Farm Colony from the economic standpoint depends in a great measure upon good management, and in their directors or “house fathers” the German Colonies have been very fortunate. The director is invariably a man experienced in agriculture and the keeping of accounts, and he is necessarily an able administrator and disciplinarian. The general work of domestic management falls upon his wife. While responsible for the efficient and orderly conduct of the

* “Report on Agencies and Methods,” etc., (Cd. 2304, of 1904), p. 31.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

Colony in all its departments, the director has the assistance of a sufficiency of skilled men as foremen, and upon these falls the immediate surveillance of the colonists, whether in the fields or, in winter months, in the workshops.

At an early date in the history of the Labour Colony movement, Pastor von Bodelschwingh recognised that efficient management was the great secret of success. Hence he established at Bielefeld a Deacons' Home for the training of directors and other workers, with the result that at the head of most of the Colonies are men who have been specially prepared for their duties, and who are thoroughly imbued with the philanthropic spirit which underlies the Colony movement, and in full sympathy with its moral as well as its economic ends.

To the ability, tact, decision, and knowledge of human nature possessed by the "house-fathers" must chiefly be attributed the orderly and harmonious working of the Colonies. Serious contumacy occurs but seldom, and the knowledge that the penalty for disorder is instant dismissal—since the relationship between Colony and colonist is voluntary on both sides—is, on the whole, sufficient to restrain the most undisciplined characters. This is the more remarkable when it is remembered that a large majority of the colonists have been in prison. Of the colonists at Friedrichsville, in the Province of Brandenburg, at a certain date 84 per cent. had been imprisoned, 13·5 per cent. of these from six to ten times, and 6·6 per cent. from eleven to fifteen times.

That the financial value of the colonists' work is not greater can hardly create surprise when it is remembered of what poor material these men are made, the inexperience of farm work peculiar to most of them, the dislike of work of every kind peculiar to nearly all, and the fact that most of the Colonies have necessarily to support far more mouths than the land itself can possibly feed or employ remuneratively.

It is impossible to ascertain precisely the cost of the Wilhelmsdorf colonists, inasmuch as this institution is part of a system of philanthropic agencies working hand in hand, including a branch Colony at Freistatt for able-bodied men, and two homes for inebriates. In the Report for the financial year 1905-6 it is stated that the receipts of the affiliated Wilhelmsdorf agencies amounted to £2,750, exclusive of the proceeds of the colonists' labour, £1,018 being contributed by public authorities and £1,284 consisting of subscriptions, donations, and collections. There was a deficiency for the year of £1,049 on all the Wilhelmsdorf institutions, and the Colony itself was reported to have incurred expenditure of £1,279 beyond the proceeds of its labour, apart from its share of general administrative charges. It is not clear, however, how far the deficit was caused by capital expenditure. The Report states :—

"The Labour Colonies will never be able to do without subsidies. The human material with which they have to deal consists for the most part of labour of fourth-rate efficiency, though it should be remembered that by employing these half-incapables, whom no employer will take into his service, our Colonies relieve the public funds of heavy Poor Law burdens."

It is a somewhat sinister fact that the Wilhelmsdorf institutions have during recent years sunk ever deeper in debt, though the assets in real estate, at their "book value," are shown in the last balance-sheet to cover the liabilities, in amount £69,708. Pastor von Bodelschwingh writes :—

"To our distress we are unable to conceal the fact that our debts have again increased considerably. The Government at Minden rightly warn us that we must devise means of avoiding further debt. We do not see how it can be done, however, without harm to the people of the province and especially to the most necessitous among their number, the unemployed, the cripples, the aged, and the poor abandoned inebriates."

THE BERLIN INDUSTRIAL COLONY.

Of the three Industrial or Town Labour Colonies in Germany, that at Berlin is the oldest (1883), though not the largest, having accommodation for 142 persons, while that at Magdeburg (1888) accommodates 120, and that at Hamburg (1891) 170. From its establishment to June 30th, 1907, the Berlin Colony had admitted 12,462 persons, the Magdeburg Colony 7,131, and the Hamburg Colony 6,025.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.*

The Industrial Colonies are intended to afford immediate and temporary work to the urban unemployed, and the class of people admitted by them is different from that found in the rural Colonies, whose visitors generally arrive at the Colony gates at the end of a long round of tramping. As far as possible, employments are followed which do not offer injurious competition to private enterprise.

At the Berlin Colony three kinds of employment are in operation :—

(1) The more skilled men are set to trades and occupations on the premises, such as plain joinery, the making of brushes, brooms, mats, straw ropes and bottle cases, letter writing, envelope addressing, etc., while the inferior men are put to fuel-cutting.

(2) The labour of the colonists is farmed to outside employers, who provide materials and in some cases tools, the colonists working, however, on the premises.

(3) A good deal of casual work is done outside, such as snow sweeping, ice carrying, unloading barges on the river, carting sand, etc.

In addition, a large number of men are always engaged upon work for the Colony itself. Of the three paid forms of employment the first is principally encouraged, while the plan of sending men out to work is not willingly resorted to, since in the absence of strict control the men are exposed to temptation, and the otherwise beneficial influence of Colony life is sacrificed. During the year 1906, the majority (sixty-six) of the colonists were employed in the joiners' workshop, in the making of kitchen furniture and boxes; thirty were employed in brush and broom making; twenty in making straw ropes and bottle cases; and others in cutting wood for fuel. The largest number of colonists at one time, in that year, was 142, the smallest 81, and the daily average 111.

Several years ago the Director of the Berlin Industrial Colony, Herr A. F. Schlunk, wrote the history of this institution, and some of his observations may be quoted here :—

"Although it was originally intended to admit into the Colony only those who were sent by members of the Association, and for whom at least a small contribution would therefore be paid, yet, as things have turned out, only very few are now sent by members, while the great majority ask for admission of their own accord or because they have been recommended to do so by someone who has left the Colony. In addition to persons who are in actual want, many other individuals come merely because they are out of work and expect to obtain employment from us, just the same as they might from ordinary employers. These men have rarely remained for the full period for which they had bound themselves to stay at the Colony, because the comforts and conveniences provided and the scale of pay in force in the Colony do not satisfy them.

"The institution is certainly not intended for such people, nor for the sick who wish to be nursed back to health, nor for idlers, who are quite willing to do their share of eating and sleeping but wish to do as little work as possible. Again, what is called 'light work' is seldom available for colonists except to a very limited extent. The people to whom the Association is pleased to open the doors of its institution are those who are in good health, but are really in need of help, and are willing to work, irrespective of whether they do or not belong to Berlin and its environs, or whether they are Germans or foreigners, Protestants or Roman Catholics, Jews or heathens; they are all welcome so long as there is room and work for them. Where on account of want of room or work a selection has to be made from among the applicants for admission, those who are sent by members of the Association and those belonging to the neighbourhood are given preference,

"Admission to the Colony takes place up to 4 p.m. on every day except Sundays and festivals, and also except Saturdays and the days immediately preceding festivals.

"Everyone admitted is required at once to cleanse his person; and his clothes are disinfected by steam. He must report himself in person to the police. Those whose relatives are unable to contribute towards the cost of their maintenance in the institution are kept free of charge; but for those whose relatives possess some means, a monthly contribution of 15s. towards the cost of their maintenance is required. Under special circumstances the amount of this contribution can be reduced. Unfortunately, the request for payment of this contribution is generally ignored. Even families which are grateful and happy at seeing their black sheep join our flock, to be kept from straying and put in the way of leading a good and industrious life, refrain from contributing towards the upkeep of the institution; while others, to whom we do not have occasion to render such direct service, are ready and willing to give us support whenever requested. This should not be the case. However, nobody is ever refused admittance or discharged because payment for his maintenance is not forthcoming."

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

The order of the day observed in the Berlin Colony is as follows :—

5.45 a.m.	-	-	-	Bell rings as a signal for getting up, washing, and bed-making.
6.15 a.m.	-	-	-	First breakfast, consisting of bread with coffee or soup. Short religious service, conducted by the chaplain.
7.0 a.m.	-	-	-	Work begins.
9.0 a.m.	-	-	-	Breakfast, consisting of bread with dripping or margarine.
9.15 a.m.	-	-	-	Work resumed.
2.0 a.m.	-	-	-	An hour for dinner, which consists of meat and vegetables.
1.0 p.m.	-	-	-	Work resumed.
4.0 p.m.	-	-	-	An interval for coffee, with bread and dripping.
4.15 p.m.	-	-	-	Work resumed.
6.50 p.m.	-	-	-	Work ceases.
7.0 p.m.	-	-	-	Supper, consisting of soup and bread, or potatoes and herrings, with coffee and bread.
				Interval for recreation and smoking.
9.0 p.m.	-	-	-	Prayers and bed.
9.30 p.m.	-	-	-	Lights out.

On Saturday afternoon work ceases at six o'clock, so as to give time for mending clothes, cleaning boots, etc., and on Sunday and festivals the colonists rise an hour later. On Sunday service is held in the Chapel, but Roman Catholics are allowed to go to a church of their own in the neighbourhood. In the afternoon many of the colonists go out on leave, while the others amuse themselves with music and games, and occasionally dramatic performances.

It is the practice of the Berlin Colony to keep a debit and credit account for each colonist. In the first place, the fixed charge of 5s. 3d. per week is made for board and lodging, and against this minimum wages of 6s. per week are paid from the commencement of his stay in the Colony. With ability and diligence, however, a colonist can earn as much as 10s. and even 12s. weekly if on time-work, and on piece-work considerably more. The gross earnings of the whole of the colonists during 1906 amounted to £2,142, equal to 7s. 10d. per head per week. After deduction of the cost of board, etc., there remained to be placed to the colonists' credit about 2s. 2d. per head per week.

There are further deductions on account of insurance, clothing, and extras, and the balance to a man's credit is allowed to accumulate until his departure. Provided he leaves under creditable circumstances the sum due is then handed over to him, or to a friend, or a portion may, with his consent, be expended in the purchase of tools, though it often happens that the money is unwisely used. Should he, on the other hand, be expelled for misconduct or leave the Colony before the expiration of the term stipulated, his accumulated earnings are forfeited. The sums paid to departing colonists vary greatly according to the length of stay and the skill and thrift of the workman, but it is stated that, as a rule, a man is able after six months' residence to accumulate from £2 to £3, though as much as £7 and £7 10s. is paid in individual cases.

The men admitted into the Berlin Colony have for the most part followed trades and handicrafts, sixty of which are enumerated in the classification for 1906, when the trade groups most largely represented were :—joiners, forty-three; fitters, thirty-two; painters, twenty-one; tailors, twelve; and bakers, ten. In addition, fifty-eight men were described simply as "workmen," most of them probably being unskilled labourers, and fifty-seven as having been engaged in business or as book-keepers.

Of 390 men admitted in 1906 only sixty were born in Berlin; of 366 admitted in 1905, forty-seven; of 383 admitted in 1904, sixty-four. By way of comparison it may be stated that of 421 men admitted into the Hamburg Colony in 1906 only 76 were born in Hamburg, and of 394 admitted in 1905 only 85 were born there.

When the Colony was established no definite duration of stay was imposed, but the colonists were allowed to come and go as they would. Absence of system was found, however, to be as injurious to discipline as to the work of the Colony, for whatever commissions might be in hand there was no guarantee that the men engaged upon them would

APPENDIX No. XXI. (I).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 93827)*

complete their tasks. A minimum term was, therefore, imposed, and gradually this was extended where longer discipline seemed desirable.

"Since it was found," writes Herr Schlunk, "that four to six weeks are often necessary to teach a man a new trade, and because it was our duty to accustom the men, as much as practicable, to habits of discipline, order, industry, regularity and sobriety, so as to make their stay in the Colony of lasting benefit, we found ourselves induced some years ago to make a rule that every man admitted for the first time should agree to stay for at least three months and to give eight days' notice before leaving, which he would only be allowed to do on one or two specified days in each week. If a man could give satisfactory evidence of being able to obtain work and wages outside, he would be allowed to leave before the expiration of the three months. But, on the other hand, the period of obligatory stay in the Colony would be extended, according to circumstances, to six, nine or more months for those who had already repeatedly visited our own or other Labour Colonies, and had kept on coming back without having received any apparent benefit from their stay. Unfortunately, the number of men of this class has been by no means small. We possess no power to exercise any compulsion to make the men obey the rules as to length of stay or the other regulations in force in the institution. Those who are unwilling to remain, or who decline to comply with the regulations, quit the Colony; but if men act in this manner, or are guilty of other misbehaviour, they do not receive any money whatever on leaving. As an additional disciplinary measure, to meet the case of gross misconduct, besides discharge from the institution without payment of wages, recourse is had to the system of entering a man's name in a punishment book or black list. A copy of this list is sent to all Labour Colonies throughout Germany, and a man whose name appears in this list is not allowed to enter our own or any other Colony for a period of five years. However, a man who repents and begs forgiveness can be struck off the list by the Colony which put him on it, and this not infrequently happens."

The majority of the colonists now remain from one to four months, but as great efforts are made to carry on the workshops as profitably as possible, useful men are often encouraged to stay a longer time. The following table shows the length of time the colonists discharged during the past four years had remained :—

DURATION OF STAY IN COLONY.

Length of stay when discharged.	Number of colonists who had been in the Colony for the periods mentioned in the first column.			
	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
Under 1 month - - - - -	115	107	98	109
Over 1 and under 2 months - - - - -	134	75	54	60
" 2 " 4 " - - - - -	111	97	94	} 166
" 4 " 6 " - - - - -	71	54	57	
" 6 " 8 " - - - - -	30	29	} 44	} 45
" 8 " 12 " - - - - -	15	17		
" 12 " 16 " - - - - -	3	2	15	} 9
" 16 " 20 " - - - - -	1	1	5	
Over twenty months - - - - -	—	2	3	
Total - - - - -	480	384	370	389

If inquiry be made into the efficiency of the Berlin Industrial Colony as a means of relieving the genuine unemployed workmen of normal ability, filling regular callings, and only temporarily "down on their luck," the published data, when examined, yield discouraging results. In the first place a heavy percentage of the colonists have at one time or another suffered imprisonment, often repeatedly; further, many have to be summarily expelled every year on account of bad behaviour and laziness; and finally a large number of the colonists admitted in any given year are "ins-and-outs."

Writing in 1903, Herr Schlunk said :—

"The executive committee has never attempted to deny that the great majority of the inmates of the Colony have themselves to thank for the wretched position in which they find themselves. Many of them have either never learned a regular trade of any kind or else have no desire to work and no capacity for work, are drunkards, idlers by profession, quarrelsome fellows, and devoid of all earnest purpose."

He adds :—

"The task of drawing the line between the men of good character and industrious habits, and the men of evil disposition and idle habits, has not only to be performed prior to admission into the institution, but frequently goes on afterwards. It is absolutely necessary that, happen what may, habits of discipline, industry, sobriety, and good behaviour shall be maintained; and if quiet reasoning is of no avail, disciplinary measures must inevitably be resorted to. On the whole, it has turned out to be easier to enforce compliance with the regulations than is generally supposed to be the case, especially among the older people; the lads are more troublesome. It may be added that the adoption in serious cases of measures of rigid discipline unavoidable under the circumstances, and also the refusal of admission to applicants rejected at times when no room can be found or no work can be provided for them, are among the most painful of the various duties which have to be performed by the Colony authorities."

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

Of colonists admitted in recent years the following acknowledged having been imprisoned :—1906, 267 out of 390 ; 1905, 222 out of 366 ; 1904, 227 out of 383 ; 1903, 266 out of 421 ; 1903, 296 out of 513 ; and 1902, 320 out of 586.

The circumstances under which the colonists have departed during the same years are shown in the following table. It will be seen that the expulsions for bad conduct and laziness numbered 138 in 1906, equal to 35·5 per cent. of all discharges :—

CIRCUMSTANCES ATTENDING DISCHARGE OF COLONISTS

Circumstances of Discharge.	Number of persons who left the Colony under the circumstances stated in the first column.					
	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
Discharged at own desire - - - - -	167	193	135	116	78	80
Found work through the Colony - - - - -	48	17	38	35	32	23
Found work themselves - - - - -	71	69	86	67	76	57
Rejoined their families - - - - -	16	16	19	5	14	11
Discharged as incapable of work - - - - -	6	7	15	5	9	9
Laziness and refusal to work - - - - -	59	35	66	21	42	104
Bad behaviour and intemperance - - - - -	101	93	54	56	27	34
Sickness - - - - -	22	14	9	15	13	8
At request of authorities - - - - -	27	17	19	11	16	18
Left without notice - - - - -	51	35	26	53	62	44
Died - - - - -	2	1	1	—	1	1
Other reasons - - - - -	40	1	12	—	—	—
Total - - - - -	610	498	480	384	370	389

NUMBER OF COLONISTS READMITTED.

In the following table the colonists admitted during the years 1901 to 1906 are classified according to the number of times they had previously been in Labour Colonies :—

	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
Never previously admitted to a Colony - -	402	309	226	194	219	212
Previously admitted - - - - -	184	204	195	189	147	178
On one occasion - - - - -	103	108	113	92	70	84
„ two occasions - - - - -	38	50	41	46	38	40
„ three „ - - - - -	19	19	18	31	18	20
„ four „ - - - - -	8	7	11	7	6	11
„ five „ - - - - -	6	8	8	6	7	6
„ six „ - - - - -	4	7	3	2	3	5
„ more than six occasions - - - - -	6	5	1	5	5	12

The only statistical evidence of success—and even here the evidence is to some extent inferential—is that afforded by the numbers of colonists who go out to situations obtained either by themselves or by the Colony authorities for them. The numbers have been as follows during the past six years :—1901, 119 ; 1902, 86 ; 1903, 124 ; 1904, 102 ; 1905, 108 ; 1906, 80.

A Labour Registry has always been conducted in connection with the Berlin Labour Colony, though Herr Schlunk admits that it has never succeeded as much as was hoped.

“ In the first place,” he writes, “ most of the colonists, including those of the better class, are ashamed of having sunk so low as to have been forced to take refuge in a Colony ; they therefore conceal or deny the fact. Consequently, so long as they are still in the Colony, they are unwilling to look for work outside, and prefer not to obtain employment through the agency of the institution. On the other hand, the public as a rule does not look with a very favourable eye upon men who have been inmates of the Colony, but ranks those men—unfortunately, not without reason—with the inmates of tramp wards.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

"As a matter of fact, we receive very few inquiries for workmen, and when we do they are usually for artisans or agricultural labourers. Either there are no men of these classes in the Colony, or if we have such men, we cannot recommend them to an employer. We have often been at pains to persuade our people to seek for work on the land instead of in the town. This attempt has met only a temporary and quite partial degree of success. Our factory operatives do not want to go into the country, and indeed are in some cases unsuited to take up such work as is required in the country. Lately, many persons who have recognised this fact have declared that they had decided not to employ workmen from the towns. Therefore, willing as the institution is to promote the success of its labour registry, it is prevented from doing so by force of circumstances. In any case it is the business of our registry to make the interests of our own colonists its first and foremost consideration, and we are therefore rarely in a position to procure employment for men who are out of work and have been sent to us merely in order that we may get situations for them."

The gross expenditure on the Berlin Colony in 1906, without allowing for the produce of the colonists' labour, was £11,437, and the income being £11,520, a balance of £83 remained. The earnings of the Colony in various ways amounted to £8,533.

THE JEWISH COLONY IN BERLIN.

At Weissensee, near Berlin, there is an Industrial Colony for Jewish labourers only, but it is not connected with the National Labour Colony Association. It is largely used by immigrants from Russia and Austria. During the five years of its existence ending with December, 1906, it had received 1,922 persons, 535 falling to the year 1906. Of 529 men who left the Colony during that year, 91 went into situations obtained for them by the Colony authorities, 110 went to work found by themselves, 206 returned to their families, 41 went abroad, 14 were discharged owing to sickness, 40 were discharged at their own wish, and only 10 were expelled for bad behaviour. The great majority of the men were foreigners, principally Galicians, Russians, and Austro-Hungarians. Here, too, wages are paid, and in 1906 they averaged 8½d. per day, against only 5d. in 1905, the increase being attributed to "the expansion of industry, but also to an increased love of work."

"HOME" COLONIES.

One other species of Labour Colony which has been established in Germany may be mentioned. This is the Home Colony, the object of which is to provide a more or less permanent abode for men of regular habits. Such men are allotted separate dwellings with land, which they are expected to cultivate.

There are two Colonies of this kind, the oldest that of Friedrichs-Wilhelmsdorf, near Bremenhaven, established in 1886, and accommodating thirty-seven colonists, and that of Schäferhof, near Pinneberg, in Holstein, with accommodation for 100 colonists, established in 1888 as a branch of the Hamburg Industrial Colony.

The objects of these Home Colonies were thus explained by a member of the Hamburg Labour Colony Association at the annual meeting of the Central Labour Colony Board held in Berlin in November, 1903:—

"On November 1st of that year, out of ninety-seven home-colonists (at Schäferhof) there were forty-seven who had returned to that colony for the second time, and all of them have, without ado, agreed to a two years' contract. As we have ascertained by experience that 90 per cent. of our colonists are permanently unfit to lead a life of self-dependence, respectability, and honesty, it is clear that if, knowing all this, we permit these men, after a short stay, to take to the road again with all its dangers, then our conduct in so doing is unkind to a still greater degree than thoughtless almsgiving. If we really wish to be kind to our colonists, we must bind them by contract to stay with us for as long as possible, and we must manage our Labour Colonies in such a manner that these men shall find their stay in the Colony pleasant, and that although the contract by which they have bound themselves be for a long period. We shall then succeed in stopping, to a material extent, the circulation of our colonists through the Labour Colonies, the almshouses, the houses of correction, and the prisons, which, if only we could secure the adoption of the necessary measures for providing a general check system as between all the Colonies, would, in many cases, be altogether put an end to. The restless and roving itinerant would then learn to value the advantages to be derived from a settled mode of life.

"If our system be reorganised on this new basis, the Labour Colonies will not lose but gain by the change; indeed, so far as concerns certain branches of industry, the advantage which would ensue to a Colony by such a change is quite self-evident. Whereas up till now the Colonies have had a constant succession of inmates, who, on account of their want of strength and skill, have been hardly able to do as much as one-half or one-quarter of a man's work, we have in our permanently settled inmates at our home Colony at Schäferhof got together a set of workmen who have, so far, done really wonderfully good work. Our home colonists, who now number 100, not only do all the agricultural work on the Schäferhof estate of over 875 acres, but also, even in the first four years, when there were many fewer colonists, helped us to build a big cow-house to accommodate beasts, a colonists' house with cubicles for sixty men, and a splendid greenhouse, which last indeed, they built entirely themselves. Besides this they have, in the same period, put 113 acres of heath

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

and moorland into cultivation, and have macadamized a length of 2,040 yards of field roads, which they carried out in an altogether satisfactory manner, and for which they broke up about 400 cubic yards of stone. In the last two years they have planted out and tended 7,854,500 saplings for other people, and 83,000 oak, fir, apple, and pear tree saplings for the Colony. We, the Executive Committee and officials of Schäferhof, give our home colonists unstinted and unqualified praise for industry, capability, and good conduct ; and we desire nothing more ardently than to be placed in such a position as would enable us to employ 500 home colonists at Schäferhof instead of 100 as at present, because we know that, in the surroundings of the Home Colony, not only would these men do a fair day's work, but they would receive from us a remuneration for their work the amount of which would increase as time went on." *

It would not appear, however, that the Home Colonies have, to the extent hoped, attracted permanent settlers. From its establishment until June 30th, 1907, the Friedrichs-Wilhelmsdorf Colony had admitted 1,503 colonists, and 1,479 had left, while the Schäferhof Colony had admitted 1,646, and had discharged 1,558, showing in each case almost as regular a circulation of labour as in the case of the normal Farm Colonies.

During the year 1906, 150 persons were admitted to the Schäferhof Colony and 143 were discharged. Of the latter, nine went to situations, eighteen were discharged at their own wish ; forty-five were expelled for breach of contract ; six for bad conduct ; one on the demand of the police ; twenty were discharged on account of sickness, or died in the Colony ; while the remaining thirty-nine left because the stipulated period of their stay had expired. Of the 104 remaining on December 31st, thirty had been in the Colony a year and upwards, but fifty had been less than six months.

THE GERMAN PENAL WORKHOUSES.

Germany has a large number of Penal Workhouses intended for the reception of mendicants, vagrants, and other persons of irregular life. Most of these institutions are situated in the open country, and agricultural work generally finds employment for a portion of their inmates, but here their resemblance to the free Labour Colonies ends. These Workhouses are, in fact, supplementary to the prisons, and the persons committed to them must already have served a sentence for one of several indictable offences. The Imperial Penal Code (Sections 361 and 362) defines these offenders as follows :—

"Whoever wanders about as a vagabond.

"Whoever begs or causes children to beg or neglects to restrain from begging such persons as are under his control and oversight and belong to his household.

"Whoever is so addicted to gambling, drunkenness, or idleness that he falls into such a condition as to be compelled to seek public help himself or for those for whose maintenance he is responsible.

"Any female who is placed under police control owing to professional immorality when she acts contrary to the police regulations issued in the interest of health, public order, and public decency, or who, without being under such control, is guilty of professional immorality.

"Any person who, while in receipt of public relief, refuses out of sloth to do such work suited to his strength as the authorities may offer him.

"Any person who, after losing his past lodging, fails to procure another within the time allotted to him by the competent authority and who cannot prove that in spite of his best endeavours he has been unable to do so."

It is provided that such persons, and, by an amendment of the law dated June 25th, 1900, procurers and *souteneurs*, shall be put to work suited to their capacity either within prisons or outside, and that, *after the period of their incarceration has expired*, they may be handed over to the State police authority, which may sentence them to be further detained for any period up to two years in a Workhouse, or to be employed under police control upon useful public works for a like time. Should a person be sentenced to detention in a Workhouse for a term less than the maximum, that term may be prolonged to the full two years should the Director report unfavourably upon his conduct.

Institutions of this kind exist in all parts of Germany, and while the majority are intended to serve for complete States or provinces several are municipal, as at Berlin and Dresden. Prussia has twenty-four of these Workhouses. In some of them provision is made for the reception of a certain number of persons for whose maintenance the Poor Law authorities are responsible, also for young people in respect of whom those authorities have assumed the rights and duties of guardians.

On April 1st, 1903, there were in the whole of the twenty-four Prussian Workhouses 8,833 men and 1,131 women, together 9,964 persons ; there entered during the administrative year 1903-4, 9,218 men and 1,145 women, together 10,363 persons ; and there were discharged during the year 9,070 men and 1,209 women, together 10,278 persons ; leaving

* "Der Wanderer," March, 1904, pp. 87, 88.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

detained, on March 31st, 1904, 8,981 men and 1,067 women, together 10,048 persons. The aggregate period of detention was for men 3,225,613 days, giving a daily average of 8,813 male inmates, and for women 393,237 days, giving a daily average of 1,074 female inmates, or 9,887 inmates of both sexes. The offences for which 8,803 male and 1,121 female inmates were committed to the Workhouses were as follows :—

	Males.	Females
Vagabondage - - - - -	326	50
Begging - - - - -	5,983	79
Begging and vagrancy together - -	1,059	51
Sloth - - - - -	93	6
Professional immorality - - -	179	851
Laziness - - - - -	12	2
Homelessness - - - - -	1,151	82
	8,803	1,121

It appears that of the 8,803 male offenders above enumerated 7,574, or 85·7 per cent., had been detained in a Workhouse before, 2,430 of them more than three times ; of the 1,121 female offenders, 753 had been detained in a Workhouse before, 173 more than three times.

The ages of the offenders were as follows :—

	Males.	Females.	Totals.
Under 18 years - - - - -	36	2	38
18 to 21 „ - - - - -	269	162	431
21 „ 25 „ - - - - -	312	165	477
25 „ 30 „ - - - - -	712	184	896
30 „ 40 „ - - - - -	2,187	271	2,458
40 „ 50 „ - - - - -	2,723	222	2,945
50 „ 60 „ - - - - -	1,994	97	2,091
60 „ 70 „ - - - - -	533	15	548
70 years and upwards - - -	37	3	40
Totals - - - - -	8,803	1,121	9,924

The initial periods of commitment were as follows :—

	Males.	Females.	Totals.
Three months or less - - - - -	27	2	29
Over three months to six months - -	2,857	457	3,314
Over six months and under two years -	3,997	522	4,519
Two years - - - - -	1,920	140	2,060
Totals - - - - -	8,801	1,121	9,922

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

A typical Workhouse of this kind is that of Rummelsburg, which serves for the city of Berlin, and is combined with a large hospital and infirmary to which helpless and indigent persons of an inferior class are sent. It has accommodation for some 2,000 persons, and during the administrative year 1905–6 1,888 persons were admitted by judicial order, viz., 1,710 males and 178 females, for the following offences :—

	Males.	Females.	Totals.
Vagabondage - - - -	6	—	6
Begging - - - - -	815	8	823
Professional immorality - -	—	139	139
Homelessness - - - - -	823	31	854
<i>Souteneurs</i> - - - - -	66	—	66
Totals - - - - -	1,710	178	1,888

Of the male offenders thirty were classified as belonging to agriculture, etc., 825 to industry, mining, or the building trades, 171 to commercial occupations, and 660 were simply described as “labourers” or “day labourers.”

At the close of the year 1,841 male and 123 female inmates remained in the Workhouse.

A large proportion of the able-bodied men are employed upon the city irrigation works; others follow workshop occupations, such as tailoring, shoe-making, clogging, wood-working, basket and brush making, lock-smithry, tinning, straw-plaiting, book-binding, etc.; wood-cutting is done by the less skilled men; and old men are put to light employments like coffee-bean and feather sorting. Most of the women not engaged in housework are employed in sewing and washing for municipal institutions, like the hospitals, shelters for the homeless, the cattle market and abattoir, etc. The order of the day is as follows :—Between 5 a.m. to 5.45 a.m. all inmates must rise and dress; 6 a.m., first breakfast; 6.15 a.m. to 9 a.m., work; 9 a.m. to 9.30 a.m., second breakfast; 9.30 to 12 noon, work; 12 noon to 1.30 p.m., dinner and rest; 1.30 p.m. to 5 p.m., work; 5 p.m. to 5.30 p.m., tea; 5.30 p.m., to 6.45 p.m., work; 6.45 p.m. to 7 p.m., preparation for bed; and at 7 p.m. all retire. Work ceases at 4 p.m. on Saturdays and the evenings preceding festivals.

The discipline imposed is represented as severe but salutary. One of the rules which the inmates are required to observe runs as follows :—

“The inmates shall live together in peace and quiet, none interrupting another in his work, but rather by industry, order, and decent moral behaviour encouraging each other to reformation of life and setting each other a good example. Conversation upon past misdemeanours may under no circumstances take place; nor may one inmate reproach another with any crime which he may have committed during his career.”

Every endeavour is made to encourage discharged prisoners to live regular lives, and a Prisoners’ Aid Society of the English type works hand in hand with the authorities to this end.

The entire cost of the Rummelsburg Workhouse during the administrative year 1905–6 was £40,655, of which £11,212 was covered by receipts, leaving £29,443 as a charge upon the rates of Berlin.

SWITZERLAND.

Two Labour Colonies of the German type have been established in Switzerland by philanthropic societies. They are Tannenhof, near Witzwyl, in the canton of Neuchâtel, dating from 1889, and Herdern, near Frauenfeld, in the canton of Thurgau, dating from 1895. Both Colonies receive yearly grants from cantonal and municipal bodies, but the bulk of their revenue is derived from the sale of produce, the farming of labour, subscriptions and donations, and church and other collections. The Colonies are agricultural in character, Tannenhof having an area of 160 acres, for the most part

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).*

cultivable land, and accommodating fifty inmates, and Herdern having an area of over 218 acres, and capable of accommodating 100 inmates when fully equipped. Between the years 1901 and 1905, the Tannenhof Colony passed through a crisis; it was found impossible to provide a sufficiency of remunerative work in winter; deficits accumulated; and at one time the idea was entertained of disposing of the estate. The working of the Colony was, however, reorganised in 1904, with the result that its fortunes have again taken a favourable turn.

According to the statistics of the Berne Labour Colony Association, the Tannenhof Colony is intended to "offer a temporary home, by the carrying on of a farm, to unemployed men seeking work, and to discharged convicts of the Berne penitentiaries, where in return for shelter, food, and wages they will be required to perform agricultural work until they find permanent occupation elsewhere." In practice, however, all comers are received, especially in summer, when work is plentiful and labourers are few. On entering, every colonist is required to sign a contract, by which he binds himself to remain at least two months (at Herdern it is only four weeks), and if his work and conduct are satisfactory he is paid at the rate of 50 centimes (4·8d.) per day. After deductions for clothing, tobacco, and other extras supplied the accumulated earnings are paid on discharge, and, whenever possible, a colonist is persuaded to remain until he has earned the cost of a decent outfit of clothes and the necessary tools of his trade, so as to facilitate his search for work.

The day's routine at Tannenhof is as follows:—At 4.0 a.m. in summer (May to October) and at 5.0 a.m. in winter (though at 3.0 a.m. in May and harvest time) the colonists rise, and, after prayers work begins. At 6 o'clock in summer and 7 o'clock in winter comes breakfast. Work then continues to 9.0 a.m., when there is an interval of ten minutes for refreshment. Dinner is from 12.0 noon to 12.30 p.m., and from 1.0 p.m. to 4.0 p.m. there is work, when another interval of ten minutes takes place for refreshment, followed by work again until 7.0 or 8.0 p.m., according to the season. Supper and prayers then end the day. The dietary is plain but ample in quantity. Bread without stint may be eaten at every meal, and milk is supplied freely; there are two vegetables with soup for dinner all the year round; and twice a week there is fresh meat.

Great stress is laid, as in the German Colonies, upon the preservation of a religious atmosphere. Scripture reading precedes the principal meals, there is evening prayer, on Sunday the colonists attend neighbouring churches, and local clergymen pay frequent visits.

The bulk of the colonists are engaged in farm work, according to their capacity, but the less robust are employed in tailoring, shoe-making, and the hawking of peat and fuel in the adjacent town of Neuchâtel. All the needful joinery and smith's work is done on the premises; so is the baking; and the woolelip keeps the Colony supplied with stockings. The weak part of the economy of the Colony lies in the fact that when farm work is most pressing labour is deficient, and when there is least to do outside a rush of colonists sets in. On one occasion the director found himself during three months of summer left with but eleven colonists, only one of whom knew anything about agriculture. The report for 1906 states that in August the number of colonists fell to thirteen, so that the harvest work could only be done by the help of Polish labourers lent by a neighbouring landowner.

On the other hand, the Colony is full in the winter months, and for the more remunerative employment of the men who then seek admission, several simple handicrafts, like basket-making, straw-plaiting, and wood-working, have been introduced.

In 1905 a good deal of drainage work was done on the moor by the colonists of Tannenhof for cantonal and communal authorities, and excavation work was done for private persons.

Of the two Colonies, Tannenhof would appear to be specially frequented by the rural class of unemployed, Herdern by labourers from the towns. Of 136 persons admitted to the Tannenhof Colony in 1905, forty-one were agricultural labourers, twenty-five were unskilled labourers, and the majority of the remainder had followed handicrafts or trades, fourteen being watch and clockmakers. Of 148 admitted in 1906, sixty-two were agricultural labourers, four were unskilled labourers, twenty-nine were watch and clockmakers, ten shoemakers, and the remainder followed miscellaneous skilled occupations.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

“Tannenhof is more and more used as a temporary place of sojourn for seasonal workers—vineyard and harvestmen,” says the report for 1905. “They come in November and December and go in the middle of March. About the middle of May they return again, and in the middle of June they go to the harvest work. Such colonists have a certainty of work at a certain period and they do not need situations. Watch and clockmakers and artisans stay longer. For the most part they are men who have only half-learned their trade and cannot live by it further. Here they have an opportunity of learning agricultural work thoroughly.”

Of the 152 colonists newly admitted to the Herdern Colony in 1905, twenty-two were specially described as agricultural labourers, and twenty others as unskilled labourers (day labourers, etc.); while of 141 admitted in 1906, nineteen had followed agriculture, and twenty-four others were unskilled labourers.

The following classification of the colonists according to age shows that middle-aged and elderly men form a larger proportion than in the German Colonies :—

Age at Admission.	Tannenhof.		Herdern.	
	1905.	1906.	1905.	1906.
Under 20 years - -	1	0	11	4
20 to 30 „ - -	9	11	33	27
30 „ 40 „ - -	21	21	33	26
40 „ 50 „ - -	36	31	29	26
50 „ 60 „ - -	34	54	32	38
60 „ 70 „ - -	33	28	13	17
Over 70 „ - -	2	3	1	3
Total - -	136	148	152	141

It will be seen that of an aggregate of 577 persons admitted in two years, those above the age of fifty years numbered 258, equal to 44·7 per cent. of the whole, comparing with 24·9 per cent. in the case of the German Colonies during the same period.

A considerable proportion of the colonists have suffered imprisonment; at Tannenhof the discharged prisoners form about one-half of the whole. Insubordination occurs at times, but the general conduct of the colonists is good. The severest penalty for misdemeanour is expulsion, and it was applied in fourteen cases at Herdern in 1906, against eleven in 1905, and six in 1904. The director reports, however, that “It is often gratifying to notice how, after a few days, people who have followed disorderly lives readily conform to the rules of the Colony.” Many of the colonists are recidivists, and with these the authorities deal leniently if their previous records have been fairly satisfactory. Re-admission is, however, refused when the applicant has been expelled for bad behaviour.

The great majority of the colonists remain between two and three months. Should a man leave before the time stipulated at his entrance he forfeits his earnings. The average stay at Tannenhof in 1905 and 1906 was sixty-one days; and at Herdern, it was 103 days in 1906, and ninety-seven days in 1905.

Every endeavour is made to procure work for colonists of reliable character, but it would appear that the efforts of the men are more successful in this respect than those of the Colony authorities. The following colonists discharged from Herdern during the five years named went direct to situations :—

Year.	Number of Colonists who went to Situations.				
	Total Number discharged.	Found by the Colony Authorities.	Found by themselves.	Total.	Percentage of all discharged.
1906 - -	141	8	45	53	37·6
1905 - -	154	24	42	66	42·9
1904 - -	167	13	59	72	43·1
1902 - -	222	31	55	86	37·7
1901 - -	203	23	31	54	26·6

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

The cost of the colonists at Tannenhof in 1905 was about 10½d. per head per day and in 1906, 10¾d. per day. The entire revenue in 1906 was £1,400, and the expenditure £1,300, leaving a balance to the good of £100. Of the revenue, £202 came from private subscriptions and donations, and £170 was contributed by the canton and town of Berne. The cost at Herdern in 1906 was 1s. 1¼d. per head per day, and in 1905, 1s. 2d. The revenue in 1906 amounted to £2,604, and the year ended with a credit balance of £46. Of the receipts, £940 came from subscriptions and donations, £420 being from cantonal governments.

In addition to the Free Labour Colonies there are in Switzerland a number of forced labour institutions, carried on by the cantons and municipalities in conjunction, for the detention of mendicants, loafers, dissolute and disorderly persons, and persons who seek to evade their responsibilities to those for whose maintenance they are legally liable. Their internal economy does not greatly differ from that of the German Penal Workhouses, though more attention is given to agricultural work. The Kühlewyl Poorhouse, belonging to the town of Berne, is notable as being a Workhouse of the English pattern with compulsory powers of detention. It has a counterpart in Germany in the Dresden Workhouse, which likewise combines Poor Law functions with systematic discipline on semi-penal lines.

HOLLAND.

The Labour Colonies in Holland are of two kinds—Penal Colonies, now managed by the State, for the reception of offenders of certain classes, and Free Colonies, of the agricultural type, offering more or less permanent homes to families and single men. The first of these two classes of Colonies will be passed over briefly.

The establishment of both kinds of Colonies was the work of the Dutch Society of Beneficence (*Maatschappij van Weldadigheid*) which, founded in 1818 at Frederiksoord, has still its chief centre there. The Society originally carried on disciplinary Beggar Colonies as well as Free Colonies, in which agricultural families were permanently settled, but the Beggar Colonies were taken over by the Government in 1859, since when the Society has worked on purely philanthropic lines.

The State has now three Penal Colonies, two for men at Veenhuizen and Hoorn, and one for women at Leiden. Agriculture, forestry, and gardening, with carpentering, masonry, smith's work, boot-making, tailoring, and weaving, are the principal sources of employment. The prisoners enjoy a certain measure of liberty, and wages are paid, the unexpended balance being handed over on discharge.

The two Labour Colonies conducted by the Dutch Society of Beneficence are at Frederiksoord and Willemsoord, and two classes of colonists are admitted:—

(1) Free farmers, who are encouraged to remain permanently on small oldlands provided for them on easy terms; and

(2) Free labourers, who work on the home farms of the Colony and who, if married, live in separate cottages, and, with such members of their families as can work, are paid wages at a rate lower than that for outside labour.

The principle of permanent settlement has been in operation so long that the Colonies may be regarded as small independent communities.

An analysis of the records of fifty families of free farmers and labourers made in 1893, and represented as being typical of the whole body of colonists, gave the following result:—

Number of cases in which <i>both</i> parents had been	
born in the Colonies	11, or 22 per cent.
Number of cases in which <i>one</i> parent had been	
born in <i>one</i> of the Colonies	23, or 46 per cent.
Total number of children in fifty families	265
Number of children born to colonists prior to entry	
into Colony	28, or 10·6 per cent.
Number of children born to colonists in Colony	237, or 89·4 per cent.
Number of children per family	5·3
Number of colonists without children	1

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—*Continued**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 93827).*

Many residents are said to have been born, grown to maturity, married, brought up families, and died in the Colonies.

It would appear that the colonists are in general taken from grades of the labouring class superior to those which furnish the German Colonies with the bulk of their inmates. The majority of the colonists both of Fredericksoord and Willemsoord are, indeed, unskilled labourers gathered from the unemployed of the cities, Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and The Hague, but if they are drawn from the ranks of surplus labour they are to some extent the cream of this labour, and do not belong to the shiftless residuum.

Writing in 1893, Professor Mavor said :—

“The labourers are admitted on the recommendation of charitable associations in the cities. If they are infirm or incapable of work, the society which recommends their admission is expected to pay a subsidy to the Colony to help to maintain them. There are a few vacancies for labourers every year. Each labourer's family is housed in a separate cottage with a garden, and those of the family who are capable of labour work upon the Colony farm, receiving wages at the rate of 40 cts. per day in winter, and 60 cts. in summer (8d. and 1s. respectively). The labourer rarely earns sufficient to support himself and his family until after he has been in the Colony for two years. After he has been there for five or six years, if there is a vacancy, and if his conduct has been good, he may be promoted to the second class, that of free farmers (*vrijboeren*)

“The free farmers are peasants cultivating small holdings upon what is practically a life tenure. They pay rent to the Colony, and receive stock and seed on credit from it. If the free farmer misconducts himself, he may be degraded to the position of a colonist, or he may be dismissed. Should a free farmer die, his widow is permitted to retain the holding, if she can cultivate it herself, or if there is a member of the family who can do so he may be admitted into the Colony for the purpose of cultivating the holding and supporting the widow. The holdings of free farmers are also occasionally inherited by their daughters, who marry sons of colonists, who are thus permitted to take up the succession of the farm and so to avoid the rule of expulsion at maturity. While this is the practice in certain cases, the free farmers have no judicial right to their holdings, and may be expelled without compensation for improvements. A free farm consists of $2\frac{1}{2}$ hectares ($6\frac{1}{4}$ acres). For this the free farmer pays an annual rent of from 35 florins to 75 florins (£2 18s. 4d. to £6 5s. 0d.). The rent is payable in January.”*

It is usual to supply a free farmer on entering his holding with a cow valued at £10 and rye sown in land to the value of £4 3s. 4d., and he is expected to repay the debt at the rate of 12s. 6d. per annum.

The free farmers have also in some cases several milch sheep, and they generally fatten four or five pigs. Their other principal produce is potatoes, of which from an average farm from 100 to 200 hectolitres (or 275 to 550 Imperial bushels) are sold each season. Butter, to a small extent, is also marketed by the free farmers.

Loans are made to the free farmer in case of need. Some of the earlier loans have proved irrecoverable, but for many years the Society has protected itself by lending only on security of the farmers' farm stock. Various Poor Law authorities and Charitable Societies board pauper and orphan children with the colonists, who are allowed to retain the whole of the maintenance money.

At the Willemsoord Colony that portion of the estate which is not divided into small holdings, worked by the free farmers, is worked by the labourers, assisted by the free farmers, in so far as they can spare the time, but no agricultural labourers are employed on ordinary wages. The hours of work on the home farms are as follows :—

Summer—

4 a.m. to 6 a.m.
9 a.m. to 12 noon.
1.30 p.m. to 4 p.m.
4.30 p.m. to 6 p.m.

Winter—

6 a.m. to 12 noon.
1.30 p.m. to 6 p.m.

In addition to agricultural, horticultural, and forest work, and turf-cutting, various trades and handicrafts are carried on, including joinery and carpentry, basket-making, blacksmithy, mat-making, tailoring, masonry, and brick-making.

It is characteristic of these Colonies that the efforts of their conductors are specially directed towards the young. It is said that the adult colonist is “invariably regarded as a hopeless case.” Hence the Society of Beneficence looks for results in the rising generation. No stress is laid upon the creation of a distinctive religious atmosphere, as is the case of

* “Report on Agencies and Methods,” etc. (C.—7182 of 1893), pp. 310, 311.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

the German and Swiss Colonies, but the careful education of the children is insisted on. Elementary schools are maintained at the expense of the State, and attendance at day or evening school is compulsory. In addition, the Willemsoord Colony has :—

“Established a school of horticulture and schools for needlework, drawing, and advanced courses of elementary education. Boys are trained in various handicrafts (as carpenters and joiners, painters, and blacksmiths). After being trained in the Colony schools, children are sent to situations, which they are said to obtain easily.” *

The following is a statement of the population of these Free Colonies and its movement during the years 1889 to 1906 :—

Year.	Total Population.	Number of Births.	New Families.	Number of Deaths.	Young Persons who left Colonies, having obtained Employment.	Labourers who became Free Farmers.	Number of Free Farmers' Families.	Number of Labourers' Families.	Number of Boarders (orphans and children of Pauper parents).
1889	1,791	33	5	32	64	5	206	83	153
1890	1,830	35	7	23	50	6	209	87	132
1891	1,813	29	10	22	61	2	212	87	164
1892	1,863	45	8	16	65	2	214	91	198
1893	1,826	35	3	24	27	1	199	85	165
1894	1,763	28	—	26	37	1	190	83	176
1895	1,705	28	2	25	26	—	171	90	170
1896	1,616	33	1	45	33	—	170	91	174
1897	1,525	24	1	18	49	—	159	77	149
1898	1,504	19	4	13	40	—	158	78	137
1899	1,497	11	2	14	53	—	155	78	167
1900	1,489	10	—	9	36	—	151	78	197
1901	1,471	16	1	14	42	—	149	78	198
1902	1,460	11	—	8	32	—	148	77	224
1903	1,453	13	2	11	36	2	149	73	244
1904	1,463	11	—	13	22	3	147	74	278
1905	1,445	11	—	15	33	—	134	66	297
1906	1,380	6	2	24	49	—	133	64	289

The significant fact is brought to light by these figures that the number of free farmers and labourers has for some years gradually declined, yet few labourers have been raised to the *status* of a free farmer. A certain number of persons leave the Colonies every year for situations, but the majority of these are probably members of the families settled there. Finally, there would appear to be an increasing readiness to take foster-children.

Mr. Schloss' report on the Colonies, published in 1904, summarised their work in the following words :—

“A small number of men, mostly drawn from the ranks of the unskilled, have been taken away from the towns and established on the land. A few privileged agriculturists have been enabled to practise their occupation practically free from financial worries, none of whom display the slightest desire to exchange their protected position in the Colony for an independent life outside its limits. The attempt to raise labourers into the superior position of free farmers appears to meet with failure. A certain number of children have received a good education in the Colonies, and a small number of young persons (thirty-two in 1902, or one-half as many as in 1899) have, after being trained in the Colonies, been started in the world to earn their living in independence if possible. On the whole, it can scarcely be said that the Dutch Free Labour Colonies, regarded as agencies for dealing with unemployed workmen, exhibit any conspicuous appearance of substantial success.” †

So far as a calculation is possible the cost to the Dutch public of the Colonies is about 30s. annually for each colonist, man, woman, and child, without taking account of interest on capital expended.

* “Report on Agencies and Methods,” etc. (C.—2304 of 1904), p. 228.

† “Report on Agencies and Methods,” etc. (C.—2304 of 1904), p. 232.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—Continued

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

FRANCE.

The only Labour Colony tried in France was that of La Chalmelle, established in 1892 and discontinued in 1905 owing to the heavy cost of maintenance. The Colony was founded by the Municipality of Paris for the reception of unemployed persons who had drifted from the country to the Metropolis and eventually had found their way to the public Night Refuges (*asiles de nuit*). The rules of the Colony stipulated that inmates should be “selected from workmen having some knowledge of agriculture.” The colonists were thus picked men, and hence men of a superior type to those who enter the German and Swiss Colonies, which discriminate but little between the applicants for admission. The underlying purpose of La Chalmelle was to send back to rural life such of the unemployed seeking help as had in earlier years followed agricultural occupations. One part of the scheme was the eventual settlement in the Colony of married men with their families in separate cottages, each with garden ground.

Of the Paris Night Refuges for men which sent to La Chalmelle its colonists it is sufficient to say that they offer a temporary home, in return for work, to needy applicants, and for the most part correspond to the Night Shelters of London and Berlin. The largest of the Refuges (the *Asile Nicolas Flamel*), is a workshop as well as a retreat. The more skilled of its inmates are employed at joinery, blacksmithing, painting, tailoring, bookbinding and other work for municipal institutions, while the less capable are engaged in the making of resinous faggots for the public service. It has accommodation for 212 persons, and as many as 10,000 pass through it in the course of a year. There are also Refuges for women, who are principally engaged in sewing, mending, and laundry work, for public and philanthropic institutions.

The Colony of La Chalmelle was purely agricultural in character and consisted of a farm of 367½ acres, for the most part poor land, situated in the Forêt de Traconne, about fifty miles from Paris. The buildings comprised a main block containing offices, linen-room, kitchen, dining-room, dormitories, library and recreation-room, blacksmith’s shop, and carpenter’s shop; three houses adjacent, used for the accommodation of the employees; a bakehouse; an agricultural shed; a building for preparing food for cattle, with a loft for fine straw; a generating shop for electric lighting; a wash-house, and a house for isolating patients suffering from contagious diseases, with a bath-room. There was accommodation for fifty-five men at one time.

The past occupations of the colonists admitted during the years 1892 to 1899 were as follows :—

Year.	Connected with Agriculture.	From other Occupations
1892 	38	23
1893 	35	31
1894 	73	14
1895 	69	31
1896 	73	29
1897 	101	6
1898 	64	24
1899 	62	27

These figures show that of a total of 700 persons who entered the Colony during eight years 515, or 73·6 per cent., had been connected with agriculture.

It would appear that the principle of selection applied also to the age of the colonists. Old men were not taken, and of 700 admissions between 1892 and 1899 only nine were above the age of fifty years. Of 143 men admitted for the first time in 1900–1, thirty-four were between twenty-five and thirty years old, thirty-nine between thirty and thirty-five years, twenty-four between thirty-five and forty years, and forty-six between forty and forty-five years.

Nominal wages of 50 centimes (4·8d.) per day were paid, but out of their earnings the colonists were expected to buy their own clothes, with the exception of a suit supplied to them on admission.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

There was no fixed limit of stay, though as the Colony was regarded as a half-way house to settled employment the majority did not remain longer than two months. Thus 820 of the 850 persons admitted between 1892 and 1899 stayed for the following periods:—

Length of stay in Colony.	Number of Admissions.
Less than two months - - - - -	436
Two and less than four months - - - - -	249
Four and less than six months - - - - -	71
Six and less than eight months - - - - -	28
Eight months and less than one year - - - - -	26
More than one year - - - - -	10
Total - - - - -	820

Most of those who stayed longer than four months were said to be men who wished to learn their work more thoroughly, or men who had no aptitude whatever for agricultural labour.

The percentage of those who left the Colony in order to take up situations was high, far higher, indeed, than is the case with the German Labour Colonies, though in favour of La Chalmelle was the fact that its colonists were sifted men who had for the most part followed agriculture before, and were encouraged to return to that employment. During the years 1892 to 1899, 820 colonists were dealt with as follows :—

	Per cent.
Obtained situations - - - - -	59·9
Left of their own accord - - - - -	33·0
Went to hospital - - - - -	1·9
Left for military service - - - - -	0·5
Died - - - - -	0·2
Expelled - - - - -	4·5

At the same time there was a considerable proportion of re-admissions. Of 700 colonists who entered between the years 1892 and 1899, 150, or 21·4 per cent., had been admitted before, and after having gone to situations had, for various unexplained reasons, returned to the Colony.

Year.	Number of Persons who entered the Colonies for the first time.	Number of Persons who, after finding situations, subsequently returned to the Colony.
1892 - - - - -	61	—
1893 - - - - -	66	63
1894 - - - - -	87	20
1895 - - - - -	100	11
1896 - - - - -	102	16
1897 - - - - -	107	14
1898 - - - - -	88	14
1899 - - - - -	89	12
1900 - - - - -	143	31

In order to facilitate the permanent employment of the inmates a list of the available men, with a statement of their capacity and the wages required, was sent every month to the principal Agricultural Syndicates of the department (Marne) in which La Chalmelle was situated. Where necessary, the travelling expenses of departing colonists were found, and clothes given to them.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98327)*

When the Colony was established its founders predicted that in a short time it might be expected to be self-supporting. No such good fortune was, however, experienced. On the contrary, as the number of colonists increased, the expense to the municipality likewise became greater, and it was the continued insolvency of the Colony which led to its abandonment.

BELGIUM.

All the Labour Colonies which exist in Belgium save one are penal in character, and on their present basis are indeed intended to carry out the Law of November 27th, 1891 (operative since January 4th, 1892), for the repression of vagrancy and mendicity.

This law required the Government to organise correctional institutions to be known as :—

- (a) Beggars' Depôts (*dépôts de mendicité*);
- (b) Houses of Refuge (*maisons de refuge*); and
- (c) Reformatory Schools (*écoles agricoles et maisons spéciales de réforme*).

The institutions (a) and (b) are substantially Labour Colonies in character, with the difference, nevertheless, that they are judicial institutions. The principal Beggars' Depôt is at Merxplas, near Antwerp, and the principal House of Refuge is at Wortel, but at Bruges there are institutions of both types for women.

The Beggars' Depôt is a home of correction pure and simple. It is intended for the reception on magisterial order of "persons not suffering from incapacity, who, instead of providing themselves with the means of existence by labour, abuse the charity of the public by habitual mendicancy, those persons who, through laziness or drunken or immoral habits, pass their lives in vagrancy, and those who live on the earnings of vice (*souteneurs de filles publiques*)."

Detention is for not less than two nor more than seven years, except in the case of vagrants or beggars sentenced by a Criminal Court to confinement in such a Depôt after expiration of a term of imprisonment, and here detention may be from one to seven years.

The House of Refuge, on the other hand, is intended for the reception of :—

- (a) Persons handed over to the Government for seclusion in such a place by a judicial authority; and
- (b) Persons whose seclusion shall be asked for by a Communal Authority, though, if over eighteen years of age, such persons must enter voluntarily.

In general, the inmates are "persons who may be discovered to be in a condition of vagrancy, or may be found begging, but who in other respects do not come within the categories of persons whom the law directs the magistrates to send to be confined in a Beggars' Depôt. In short, the type of man for whom internment in a House of Refuge is provided by the law is the man who has no work to do, but who would be willing to work if he could secure employment."* The maximum term of confinement in a House of Refuge, except with the consent of the person concerned, is twelve months, and on discharge every person receives a certificate, with a note of good conduct, should his behaviour have been satisfactory.

The Minister of Justice may order the immediate release of any person detained either in a Beggars' Depôt or a House of Refuge, although the term for which he was ordered by the Court to be detained may not have expired, should he be of opinion that further confinement would be useless.

The cost of persons sent to a Beggars' Depôt or a House of Refuge by order of a judicial authority is borne in equal shares by the State, the Province, and the Commune in which the person confined has his settlement; only in the case of persons suffering from incapacity does the entire cost fall on the Settlement Commune. Where seclusion in a House of Refuge is at the request of a Communal Authority, this authority bears likewise the total cost. Under certain circumstances the cost of maintenance can be recovered from the person concerned, or those legally liable for his support.

* "Report on Agencies and Methods," etc. (Cd. 2304 of 1904), p. 198.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

The Beggars' Depôts follow a mixed economy of agriculture and industry, and "so far as possible every effort is made to employ the inmates each in his own trade."

Both in the Depôts and the Refuges small wages are paid, the accumulated earnings being handed to an inmate on his departure, partly in money and partly in the form of clothing and tools.

The following have been the admissions to these institutions during the years 18 1904 :—

ADMISSIONS TO BEGGARS' DEPOTS.

ADMISSIONS TO HOUSES OF REFUGE.

Year.	Number of Admissions.			Mean Number of Inmates.	Year.	Number of Admissions.			Mean Number of Inmates.
	Male.	Female.	Total.			Male.	Female.	Total.	
1892 - -	6,147	666	6,813	3,564	1892 - -	6,139	775	6,914	2,043
1893 - -	3,482	352	3,834	4,324	1893 - -	4,411	942	5,353	2,145
1894 - -	4,141	393	4,534	4,193	1894 - -	4,593	519	5,112	2,902
1895 - -	3,722	333	4,055	4,529	1895 - -	4,559	414	4,973	2,766
1896 - -	3,224	292	3,516	4,430	1896 - -	3,805	360	4,165	2,314
1897 - -	3,115	266	3,381	4,076	1897 - -	3,745	323	4,068	1,876
1898 - -	3,339	284	3,623	4,208	1898 - -	3,770	343	4,113	1,983
1899 - -	3,018	215	3,233	4,248	1899 - -	3,398	258	3,656	1,823
1900 - -	3,547	253	3,800	4,058	1900 - -	3,586	266	3,852	1,691
1901 - -	4,348	275	4,623	4,542	1901 - -	4,174	261	4,435	1,761
1902 - -	4,514	252	4,766	4,864	1902 - -	4,389	252	4,641	1,876
1903 - -	4,649	386	5,035	5,055	1903 - -	3,428	278	3,706	1,733
1904 - -	4,615	275	4,890	5,132	1904 - -	3,546	221	3,767	1,620

The only Free Labour Colony in Belgium corresponding at all to the German Colonies already described is a small Colony (*Colonie ouvrière libre*) at Haeren, near Brussels, established and maintained by a philanthropic society, subsidised by the municipality of Brussels, known as "Oeuvre de l'assistance par le travail pour hommes." Three agencies of assistance are conducted by the society, a Labour Exchange (*Bourse du travail*), established in 1889, a House of Work (*Maison du travail*), with a branch for women, established in 1893, and the Haeren Labour Colony, which dates from 1896. The reason for the establishment of the Colony was (to quote the words of a recent Report) the fact that "not one of the Government's Labour Colonies—Merxplas, Hoogstraeten, and Wortel—can claim the title of a Free Colony." In contrast to these penal institutions, the Haeren Colony is a temporary home, conducted on a benevolent basis, to which unemployed persons are able to resort voluntarily.

It is important to note that the three institutions of the "Oeuvre de l'assistance par le travail" work hand in hand. Unemployed persons for whom the Labour Exchange is unable to find situations are referred to the House of Work. The system adopted has been thus described :—

"Every solvent person, who asks for them, receives from the institution a book of 100 tickets, each of which entitles the holder to receive 20 centimes (about 2d.) in exchange for one hour's work. When an unemployed workman is given one or more tickets, he goes to the House of Labour and is there employed for as many hours as he presents tickets, the performance of an amount of work not falling below a fixed minimum being insisted on. The institution pays the men at the end of each day, and at the end of the month collects the amounts paid on the tickets from the persons who gave the tickets to the men."*

The Home of Work is not a lodging-house. Most of the applicants for help receive work, but live in their own homes. Those without homes are, if willing, sent to the Labour Colony. Other colonists are sent by the subscribers to the society, by magistrates, and by the police authorities; hence a considerable proportion consist of discharged prisoners.

The Colony was begun as an agricultural Colony, and for a few years farm work, nursery gardening, and the cultivation of vegetables for home consumption provided employment for a large proportion of the colonists, but wood-cutting for fuel is now at least equally important as a source of revenue, and agriculture is gradually taking a subordinate place.

* "Revue du Travail," February, 1896, p. 156.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—Continued.

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827).

A small payment is made to the colonists, but it is regarded as a premium to encourage industry, and not as wages. The amount is left entirely to the discretion of the director.

From the establishment of the Colony in 1896 to the end of the financial year 1905-1906, 3,435 colonists had been admitted.

The admissions and discharges during the past six years have been as follows :—

Year.	Admitted.	Discharged.
1900-1901 - - -	322	324
1901-1902 - - -	261	259
1902-1903 - - -	197	204
1903-1904 - - -	193	193
1904-1905 - - -	175	174
1905-1906 - - -	148	146

Of the men admitted in the year 1905-6 only seven followed agriculture or horticulture, twenty were described as unskilled labourers and without occupations, and the majority of the remainder had been engaged in trades and handicrafts. Formerly a considerable number of foreigners—chiefly labourers from France—were admitted, but of late years very few. The following table shows the ages of the colonists admitted during the past six years :—

Age.	1900-1.	1901-2.	1902-3.	1903-4.	1904-5.	1905-6.
Under 20 years - - -	19	5	5	4	—	3
20 to 30 years - - -	70	50	34	39	30	19
30 to 40 „ - - -	73	75	42	53	36	30
40 to 50 „ - - -	89	74	59	44	55	45
50 to 60 „ - - -	58	48	47	48	41	36
Over 60 „ - - -	13	9	10	5	13	15
Totals - - -	322	261	197	193	175	148

The majority of the men admitted are therefore between thirty and fifty years of age.

Their conjugal condition was as shown below :—

Condition.	1900-1.	1901-2.	1902-3.	1903-4.	1904-5.	1905-6.
Single - - -	216	168	127	116	114	95
Widowers - - -	34	21	24	22	16	14
Married - - -	58	64	37	48	36	36
Divorced - - -	8	7	7	4	8	1
Separated - - -	6	1	2	3	1	2
Totals - - -	322	261	197	193	175	148

With the decrease of admissions the average duration of stay has increased, but it is still much below the period usual, and indeed insisted on, in the German Colonies. In the year 1905-6 it was 43½ days ; in the year 1904-5, 38 days ; 1903-4, 32½ days ; 1902-3, 34 days ; 1901-2, 28 days ; and 1900-01, 32½ days.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

The number of recidivists has also steadily increased during the past five years, as the following table shows :—

Admitted.	1900-1.	1901-2.	1902-3.	1903-4.	1904-5.	1905-6.
For the first time - - -	267	195	127	126	97	83
„ second time - - -	37	39	38	40	38	31
„ third time - - -	12	20	13	12	13	10
More than three times - -	6	7	19	15	27	24
Totals - - -	322	261	197	193	175	148

Thus, while the percentage of recidivists in the financial year 1900-01 was 17·1, in the following years it was 25·3, 35·5, 34·7, 44·6, and 43·9, respectively.

The great majority of the colonists at Haeren have been convicted for crime or misdemeanour. Of those admitted in the year 1905-6 only 21 per cent. had not been punished, and 60 per cent. had been detained in Beggars' Depôts or Houses of Refuge. Nevertheless, the conduct of the colonists is reported to be uniformly good.

No statistics have been kept as to the number of colonists for whom situations have been obtained, though many of them are said to find work in the country.

The balance-sheet of the Colony for the financial year 1905-6 showed receipts of £1,200, of which £459 came from the sale of faggots, £153 from agricultural produce, and £562 from subscriptions and donations. The expenditure amounted to £1,224, including subsidy to the Bourse du Travail of £47, and there was a deficit on the year of £25.

When the Haeren Colony was opened, the promoters took care to warn its friends that it would be impossible to count on such results as had been obtained in Germany, since there was not the same opportunity in Belgium of settling upon large unreclaimed tracts of land, and counting upon a long and undisturbed tenure. This prediction has proved correct, for the land originally enclosed by the Colony has been gradually encroached upon, owing to public works, roads, and buildings, so that in 1906 most of the farm land and garden, which the colonists had in the course of ten years brought to a high degree of cultivation, had been appropriated, and there remained to the Colony "only a scrap of about 150 ares (about $3\frac{3}{4}$ acres) hardly large enough to produce the vegetables necessary for the Colony. We can therefore no longer speak either of an agricultural or a horticultural Colony, and our institution is becoming simply a philanthropic House of Work, differing from that in the Rue de l'Allée Verte (Brussels) in that we lodge and feed our *protégés*, while the latter institution gives them work in return for wages." As a result of this development, the Colony has been re-organised, and the character of its inmates has changed. The idea is to send to Haeren for the future all suitable able-bodied applicants for work who seek help at the Brussels House of Work and especially those who, when left to their own devices, fall into slothful and irregular ways, yet who are capable of sustained, if not intense, work if subject to supervision.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS.

THE DIFFERENT TYPES OF COLONIES.

Summarising the account which has been given above of the Labour Colonies (variously named) now in operation in Continental countries, several distinct types need to be distinguished :—

(a) *The Free Labour Colonies of Germany, Switzerland, and Belgium.*—Of these thirty-six in the aggregate, thirty-three are farm Colonies established in the open country,

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)*

generally in the midst of moorland, while three are industrial and town Colonies. All are philanthropic in character and as a rule they lay great stress upon religious influences. They are carried on by associations, whose funds are, as a rule, supplemented by voluntary grants from public bodies (Provincial, District, and Municipal). The Colonies only offer temporary shelter to their frequenters. The farm Colonies are intended primarily to offer an alternative to vagrancy, and tramps and ex-prisoners form the bulk of their inmates. No powers of detention are possessed by the Colony authorities. Handicrafts and indoor work are subsidiary to agricultural employments in all the farm Colonies. The town Colonies are mainly recruited from urban populations, and trades and miscellaneous manual occupations are followed.

(b) *The Free Labour Colonies of Holland*, agricultural in character, which are intended to offer more or less permanent homes for their two classes of *habitués* :—

(1) Farmers settled with their families upon small holdings, which it is their business to cultivate ; and

(2) Labourers, who work on the home farms and with their families live in separate cottages.

Here, no serious hope of influencing the adult colonists would appear to be entertained ; efforts are rather directed towards the training of the young, who are educated in the State schools, and when old enough are put to situations. These Colonies likewise are supported by private philanthropy, helped by public grants.

(c) *The now defunct Free Farm Colony of La Chalmelle in France*, whose residents were recruited from the Paris Municipal Shelters, and were for the most part “ selected from amongst workmen having some knowledge of agriculture.” This was a municipal institution, and its object was to offer to respectable men of agricultural upbringing a chance of returning to rural life and work.

(d) There are, finally, the Penal Workhouses of Germany and Switzerland and the Forced Labour Colonies of Belgium and Holland, which are intended for the detention of habitual mendicants, vagrants, and people of irregular life. In the case of the Belgian Colonies voluntary admission is provided for, but the number of those who enter of their free-will is reported to be steadily decreasing, and it forms an insignificant proportion of the whole. These institutions all form part of the judicial systems of the several countries to which they relate, and are strictly penal in character, in which respect they have nothing in common with the Labour Colonies which exist for the sake of the unemployed.

CONCLUSIONS.

The following conclusions seem to be justified by a consideration of the work of the Continental Labour Colonies from all sides :—

1. The Free Colonies do not in general receive the genuine unemployed, *i.e.*, those who are out of work against their will. The great majority of their frequenters are the shiftless loafers who, in the severer seasons of the year or times of special distress, seek the shelter they offer, rather than expose themselves to continued want or run the risk of entering the Penal Workhouse.

2. So long as there is little or no discrimination in the admission of colonists, which is the case in Germany and Switzerland, the lower elements of society are bound to take possession.

3. But so long as the vagrant and loafer predominate in the Colonies, the self-respecting workman who has temporarily fallen on evil days will not enter except under great pressure. Nor is his daily contact with such people socially desirable.

APPENDIX No. XXI. (L).—*Continued.*

Handed in by the Board of Trade. (Q. 98827.)

4. It is held that for the unemployed of the towns, the industrial Colonies are more suitable than farm Colonies, and conversely that the agricultural labourer can be more advantageously employed in the country than retained in a town Colony. The Colony of La Chalmelle, maintained by the Municipality of Paris, was for this reason specially reserved for men of agricultural antecedents.

5. The effect of the discipline of the Colonies upon many of their inmates is good, but doubt must be entertained as to its permanency owing to the brief period of sojourn.

6. Recognising this, many Continental advocates of Labour Colonies contend that the usual period of stay, which is less than four months, should in the case of recidivists be prolonged to from twelve months to two years, according to individual circumstances.

7. In order to carry out this policy of special treatment it would seem that two types of Colonies would be needed :—

(a) Colonies for short term men, who would be able to take their discharge at any time ; and

(b) Colonies in which detention would be prolonged.

Colonies of the latter type would obviously correspond to some extent to the Beggar Dépôts of Belgium and the Penal Workhouses of Germany and Switzerland, and would be reserved for the confirmed vagrants and loafers who now overrun most Continental Labour Colonies.

APPENDIX No. XXII. (A).

Handed in by Mr. J. F. L. Blankenberg, Amsterdam. (Q. 100020 (I))

A DUTCH CHARITY ORGANISATION SOCIETY.*

“LIEFDADIGHEID NAAR VERMOGEN” AT AMSTERDAM.

The principle of the Dutch Poor Law gives the first place in all philanthropic work to the churches and private charity. This principle is laid down in Sections 20 and 21 of the law (June 28, 1854), running as follows :—

Section 20. The relief of the poor is left to the charity of the ecclesiastical and private institutions, subject to the regulations of this Act.

Section 21. No public administration is entitled to give any relief to the poor, unless it has, as much as possible, evidence that they cannot receive the same from ecclesiastical or private charitable institutions, and then only in the case of absolute emergency.

The aim of this legislation obviously was no other than to relieve the public services as much as possible from charitable relief, and to lay it all in the hands of the church and of private charities.

Unfortunately, this aim is not attained; the percentage of the total costs of charitable relief being as follows :—

	The State.	The Churches.	Private.
1857.	40·4 per cent.	50·4 per cent.	9·5 per cent.
1890.	42·8 „	44·7 „	12·5 „

It is not my present object to explain the working of the law, nor to deal with the general subject of charitable relief as it presents itself at the present time.

But, in pointing out these two percentages, I only wish to state that a share in the increase of philanthropic work in the Netherlands falls to the credit both of the State and of the private institutions.

Generally speaking, there is a tendency to increase the work of the private (non-ecclesiastical) institutions, which are prepared to give their support and relief without regard to church or creed.

I am also very happy to state that there has been during the last 10 or 15 years an awakening of the public mind on the subject of a better basis for charitable work, which having been for the last half-century almost in the hands of the different churches, working without co-operation and mutual understanding, was very far below the standard of real, well-planned, and sensible poor relief. In these last 10 or 15 years much has been done in the way of improvement and re-organisation, especially in the way of co-operation between different charities, mutual understanding, and union; also in the way of reforming legislation and preparing a more efficient and sensible Poor Law. An inquiry was made by private effort as to the number of different charitable institutions existing in the country, and it might be of some interest to give the result. At the end of 1898 there existed in Holland :—

Outdoor Relief.	Institutions.
State charities (i.e., municipal institutions) - - - -	1,198
Charities of 40 different churches - - - -	3,057
Private charities - - - -	1,041

Indoor Relief.	Institutions.
Old people - - - -	710
Orphanages - - - -	360
Destitute and fallen women and children - - - -	69
Hospitals - - - -	712
General Relief.	
Employment - - - -	223
Special cases - - - -	72
Foreigners - - - -	24
Total - - - -	7,476

In most of the larger cities of the country, private institutions, not attached to any church, but giving support and relief to the deserving poor without regard to creed, have been established in recent years, and one of the first places where such an institution was founded was the capital of Holland, Amsterdam. In 1871 was established the society called “Liefdadigheid Naar Vermogen,” a name expressing the idea that the society will give as much relief as its means will allow.

This institution has now existed 35 years, and works on the following lines :—

- (1) No relief is given without previous inquiry.
- (2) Constant intercourse between the society and the relieved.
- (3) Employment, gratuitous loans, and assistance towards self-support are preferable to gifts of money.
- (4) District-visiting by voluntary visitors, under adequate guidance, is preferable to professional visiting.
- (5) Co-operation and union between all charities is of paramount importance in all charitable work.

The society started work on a small scale, but succeeded in securing the sympathy of the citizens gradually, so that it is now the leading private institution of the town. The figures for 1905 are not yet published, but I may be allowed to quote the figures of the year before (1904). The society spent (gross figures) :

- £3,000 to 390 families in weekly relief.
- £2,200 to 552 families in temporary relief.
- £2,400 to 852 families in temporary relief for the account of different givers.
- £3,500 to 515 families in gratuitous loans.

These are the main figures. Moreover, it spent nearly £800 in placing destitute children in safe homes, and found employment in 275 cases for different men and women.

The total income of the society in 1904 was about £22,000.

The gratuitous loans are given on the security of one or two sureties for the purpose of small trade. A loan can never exceed £16 13s. 4d. (= 200fl.), and must be repaid in weekly instalments as a rule. At every repayment a certain small amount must also be paid

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APPENDIX No. XXII. (A).—*Continued.**Handed in by Mr. J. F. L. Blankenberg, Amsterdam. (Q. 100020 (I.)*

into the savings bank, so that when the loan is repaid a certain sum stands to the credit of the borrower.

The total amount of loans outstanding at the end of 1904 was £4,000, divided into 833 loans, which originally amounted to £6,500.

The amount due to the credit of the borrowers in the Post Office Savings Bank was £1,400. I think this a very efficient system, securing independence in the future to people who have been dependent upon loans.

In the year 1892 the society adopted the Elberfeld system as the basis of its operations. The town is divided into 34 districts, each district being ruled by a district committee, under the presidency of a district president, and including a certain number of district visitors, acting as volunteers.

I think very highly of the Elberfeld system, because it avoids the evil of red tape and officialism, because it brings the poor into immediate contact with those who desire to help them. By this system the help is really brought from man to man (as Dr. Munsterberg calls it, quite appropriately), and I think there is no other system imaginable under which the evil of giving relief wholesale is so adequately checked.

Of course, the whole machinery of the system is laid down in a set of regulations and rules, and I am happy to be able to give some extracts from them for the use of the readers of this "Review." I earnestly recommend the study of this system to every worker on the field of charity, not because it is adopted by the above-named society, but because it seems to me to be the only sensible and adequate solution of the difficult problem of giving relief where large numbers are concerned.

J. F. L. BLANKENBERG.

Amsterdam, February 12, 1906.

Extracts from Rules.

2. The society will give no assistance of any kind without previous investigation.

3. The assistance given may be:

- (a) Advice and support in the proper management of a business or household.
- (b) Assistance to obtain employment for those members of a needy family who are not too old or infirm and are not likely to be successful in obtaining it themselves.
- (c) Gratuitous loans up to an amount of 200fl. at the most, advanced in preference to small shopkeepers or when it will cause an improvement in a temporarily unfavourable position.
- (d) Donations in one sum or by instalments up to an amount of 25fl. at the most, in the course of one year to parties requiring temporary and immediate assistance, and who will not be able to pay back any money.
- (e) Continuous monetary support up to an unlimited amount and without fixing any period of continuance to aged persons, invalids, cripples, and such as for other valid reasons cannot or not sufficiently provide for their own maintenance. This support, unless in exceptional cases, will as a rule tally with the amount which the family has weekly to pay for rent and insurances.
- (f) Temporary monetary support to those who, for want of means, have to wait for the assistance mentioned in (e).
- (g) Contributions to the nursing expenses in institutions for children, cripples, aged persons, and others, to the expenses of schooling, and for other similar purposes. These contributions will be allowed on the advice of the District Committees by the Board only, which will then communicate directly with the re-

spective societies regarding the matter. As a rule, the annual contribution for one family will not exceed 50fl.

If during the winter there should be enough money on hand, or a sufficient provision of food, clothing, or covering, gratuitously received, should be available, the Board will inform the chairmen of the District Committees accordingly, in order to allow winter donations to those families for whom it is especially required.

4. The assistance mentioned in (c) is not to be combined with such as is mentioned in (e) or (f).

5. Assistance of the institution will be refused to those persons:—

- (a) Who are not residents of Amsterdam.
- (b) Who, after investigation, appear to be able with better management to get on without any assistance.
- (c) Who incur needless expenses.
- (d) Who are able to obtain the required assistance from the parish or from private parties, or who can find shelter in a charitable institution.
- (e) Who are addicted to liquor.
- (f) Who purposely conceal facts necessary for coming to a fair estimate of their situation.
- (g) Who in any way try to deceive the institution so as to obtain its assistance.
- (h) Who wilfully and without special reasons leave their work, and consequently lose their earnings.
- (i) Who, albeit able, and having been advised, are still wanting in measures to provide for themselves.

29. The district chairmen are responsible for the proper observance of the regulations and the various instructions, each as far as his own district is concerned. Supported by the devotion of the district visitors, and sincerely alive to the true significance of a sensible charity, they will, notwithstanding the great difference of persons and conditions, endeavour to maintain as much uniformity as possible in the treatment of the various cases.

They will have to guard, as a first duty, against the assistance of the institution degenerating into an unhealthy sentimental charity which breeds poverty instead of lessening it. They must judge every case critically, always aiming at raising the families concerned out of the state of moral decadence to which they have generally fallen.

Taking into account the weaknesses and faults of the poor, natural to them as to all persons, the chairmen have yet to see to it that every form of assistance rendered shall be conducive to the development of the powers possessed by the families, so that gradually they may be able to provide for their own maintenance.

45. The district visitors have to inquire into the moral and material condition of the families in their charge. They examine:—

- (a) Of how many members the family consists.
- (b) If each of them contributes to the expenses of the household according to his share and power.
- (c) What are their united receipts and expenses.
- (d) As to whether and to what extent others contribute to the expenses of the household.
- (e) What are the antecedents and the character of the family.
- (f) What is the present condition of the family.
- (g) What is the cause of the threatening or existing poverty.

APPENDIX No. XXII. (A).—*Continued.**Handed in by Mr. J. F. L. Blankenberg, Amsterdam. (Q. 100020 (I).)*

- (h) Whether the family can or does receive assistance from other parties.
- (i) By what means effective assistance might be given.
- (j) What is wanted in the clothing, feeding, housing, and bedding of the family or in the schooling of the children.

46. The district visitors have to avoid most carefully all that might hurt the families visited in their religious or political opinions. Any interference or influence in this respect is not allowed. The question as to which church they belong is only put in order to be able to find out whether or no they receive any support from their parish.

47. The district visitors have, above all, to consider that their work does not consist so much in supporting the poor as in giving them counsel and advice, so as to prevent them requiring material assistance; and should support be given, to do this in a form and direction which will put the poor in the way to help themselves afterwards.

It is of the utmost importance to point out to the poor the desirability of their membership of an institution to provide for sickness and funeral expenses, of their insuring furniture and merchandise against fire, and in general of their taking all measures of foresight, economy, and morality.

The district visitors will assist in the fulfilling of these social obligations of the families.

They, moreover, point out to the families, wherever there is cause to do so, the indispensability of cleanliness, neatness, honesty, and good management; to

the parents their duty of giving a good education to the children and enforcing their attendance at school; to the children their obligations towards their parents, monetary as well as other ones.

In this way they will endeavour by their influence to raise the families in their charge to a higher level of moral development, which may also be conducive to a material improvement of their circumstances.

48. The investigation must be as complete and thorough as possible. All information given by the members of a family has to be thoroughly investigated, and as many persons as possible have to be interrogated about the family. It is of much importance that the amount of the wages should be asked the employers. It is furthermore of the utmost importance that the families shall never be informed of any unfavourable information obtained of them.

56. If a district visitor at a first visit to a needy family should find that there is nothing to eat, or that the case for some other reason is an extremely hard one, in which delay would be dangerous, he will be allowed to anticipate the decision of the district committee and to give at once a small monetary supply. This may not exceed the sum of 2.50fl.; it will in any case be reimbursed to the visitor, and will be deducted from the supply to be granted thereafter.

57. A district visitor is not allowed to give any special donation to a family in his charge without mentioning this in his report.

58. Monetary support is handed by the district visitors at the houses of the assisted personally.

APPENDIX No. XXII. (B).

Handed in by Mr. J. F. L. Blankenberg, Amsterdam (Q. 100123).

In my statement I gave under Section 22 the percentages of the relation between public, churches, and private charity, as regards the total cost of poor relief.

Having been asked by the Chairman to give also the percentages as to the number of persons assisted, I have pleasure in quoting them, as follows :—

Year.	Public.	Churches.	Private.
1854	44.58	53.58	1.84
1857	44.47	53.43	2.10
1869	40.80	56.90	2.30
1890	37.05	58.13	4.82
1896	38.64	56.33	5.03
1900	35.43	57.38	9.19
1903	35.43	54.68	9.89

APPENDIX No. XXII. (C).

*Handed in by Mr. J. F. L. Blankenberg, Amsterdam. (Q. 100212).**Clubs in case of Sickness.*

The larger part of the poor population are members of such clubs. No statistics are available of the number of people belonging to them, or upon the financial results. But I am glad to be able to give a short *exposé* of the essence of a report, published only a week ago by the "Association of Medical Men in the Netherlands." This association appointed a committee, consisting of five of their members, to investigate as to the number of these clubs, their organisation and results, and to propose such reforms as the committee might judge to be in the interest of the members.

The report, a large volume, contains the most interesting details, but for the present purpose the following quotations will be sufficient.

There are three different groups of clubs :—

A. Clubs the management of which is entirely gratuitous.

B. Clubs established by one medical man.

C. Clubs under the management of a paid administration.

The first group (A) contains 312 clubs.

The second group (B) contains 210 clubs.

The third group (C) contains 74 clubs.

Clubs belonging to groups A and C secure to their members medical, surgical and obstetric relief, also medicaments, against payment of a weekly fee.

Clubs belonging to group B are, so to say, private enterprises of a single doctor in rural localities. He

[APPENDIX No. XXII. (C).—*Continued.*]*Handed in by Mr. J. F. L. Blankenberg, Amsterdam. (Q. 100212.)*

receives a fixed weekly fee from each member and gives in return his attendance wherever required. The doctor is the club.

Generally speaking, all these clubs have the same principles, rules, and regulations.

Before entering a club, the member must declare that he is healthy and not suffering from any illness. Sometimes a person not enjoying perfect health can be admitted against an increased fee, and with the restriction that no relief will be given to him until a certain period shall have elapsed after his admittance.

No members are admitted under the age of 16 or 18 and above 65.

The average fee charged to members amounts to 2d. per week for adults, and $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per week for children; more

than 5 children are not charged for, so that on the average the weekly charge for a family amounts to 6d. or 7d.

Some clubs charge lower rates in winter-time, but with the condition that these rates will be higher in the summer. If members do not pay their weekly terms in time, they are generally fined.

Philanthropic societies often pay the fees for poor families, so securing them proper medical attendance in case of illness.

There is a strong feeling in the country that the organisation and control of these clubs need thorough reform, and the Report referred to confirms such conclusions.

But I presume that for the present purpose these conclusions are not of interest.

APPENDIX No. XXII. (D).

Handed in by Mr. J. F. L. Blankenberg, Amsterdam. (Q. 100298.)

The number of assisted poor, quoted in Section 33 of my statement, relates to outdoor relief. Having been asked to give also the number of assisted poor, by *indoor relief*, the following figures have been extracted from the Government official statistics:—

Year.	Number.	Old people.	Invalids.	Children.
1887	28,911 from which	13,585	2,224	13,102
1892	30,449 " "	13,782	2,338	14,329
1896	31,260 " "	14,496	2,614	14,150
1901	24,050 " "	11,774	2,133	10,022
1902	25,782 " "	12,828	2,190	10,764
1903	25,724 " "	12,678	2,233	10,813

In giving these figures, I must repeat my remarks (*see* Section 32 of my statement) as to the deficiency of these statistical figures. It would be misleading to form conclusions upon them.

PART I.—COMPOUNDING AND ASSESSMENT.

APPENDIX No. XXIII.

REPLIES by Mr. J. T. BAKER, Senior Rate Collector for the Metropolitan Borough of Islington.

Question I.—Is composition by owners for the payment of rates the rule in your district?

Answer I.—In reference to your first question, it has lately been the rule in Islington not to grant commission to owners under the Poor Rate Assessment and Collection Act or otherwise. Formerly it was the custom to allow it to a limited extent under Section 3 of the Act, but the loss on the general collection of the rate being so small, it was considered to be unadvisable to continue the practice. The ceasing to give commission has resulted in a large saving, and consequently a benefit to the ratepayers generally.

Question II.—Is direct payment by occupiers (a) possible, and (b) advisable? If, in your opinion, it is impossible, would you kindly say on what grounds?

Answer II.—Since commissions have ceased to be granted we have collected the rates direct from the occupiers, with very little loss; our quarterly statement for Michaelmas last shows a loss of only 8s. 4½d. per £100, and sometimes it is less; it has been as low as 4s. 7d. per £100.

When the commission was abolished,* in the greater number of cases the owners continued to pay the rates, receiving allowances only for empty property. We have in Islington proved the possibility of collecting direct from the occupiers of small property, and the advisability of doing so is found to be the saving effected, amounting to a considerable sum. I do not think it would be advisable to recur generally to the former practice, but only to grant commission in a few cases where the loss from empties is abnormally high.

Question III.—Do variations in the rates affect rents where composition is the rule?

Answer III.—No doubt the increase of rates tends to raise the rent of houses where the owners have agreed to pay the rates, but I think this is governed more by the demand for houses. At the present time, owing to the number of empty houses in Islington, the tendency is for the rents to go down.

Question IV.—Can you trace any effect of the direct payment of rates by occupiers on the interest they take in local government; and what attitude do the occupiers of small properties take towards local government when they do not pay the rates directly?

Answer IV.—My position renders it undesirable that I should take any active part in local politics, so that I am not well able to give an opinion; but I should think that the direct payment of the rate creates an interest in local affairs, and tends to a more economic administration than would be the case if the owners paid. In those cases where the owners pay the rate voluntarily, the fact that the tenants are liable and therefore receive the demands, which have printed on them the purposes for which the rate is levied, gives them an interest in local government, and perhaps prevents support being given to extravagant schemes.

Question V.—Have you any experience of a weekly collection of rates from occupiers? Would such be possible?

Question VI.—Assuming a weekly collection, would the cost be greater than the allowance now made for compounding?

Answers V. and VI.—I have had no experience of a weekly collection of rates, and I do not think it at all desirable. It would lead to a greater loss than our present system of collection in advance; it would be difficult to enforce where the weekly instalments were not regularly paid, and the collection would be more expensive. It would, of course, be possible, but would require a much larger staff than the present

one. It would be difficult to fix the limit of rateable value where the collection should be weekly. If it were fixed for houses rated at £20 and under, the value to which the provisions of the Poor Rate Assessment and Collection Act apply, then it would be open to the objection of dealing differently with the same class of tenant, for there are as many working people, speaking of my own district, living in houses rated above that sum as there are in houses of that amount.

In Islington we have 46,795 assessments and thirteen rate collectors, each collecting the rates from 3,000 to 4,500 assessments. The work of making the demands, attendance at our offices to receive the rates, the attendances at the various committee meetings, and taking measures for the enforcement of the rates, fully takes up the whole time of the quarter. To collect weekly would require a very much larger staff, and the expense of the collection in Islington would certainly be greatly in excess of the amount of commission now paid to owners. Quoting again from the Michaelmas statement, no commission at all was paid to owners for that quarter; but during the last quarter a limited number of agreements with owners have been made, the amount of commission paid being trifling compared to the outlay which would be required for a weekly collection.

Question VII.—Has the system of compounding any effect upon the value for rating purposes of the property compounded for?

Answer VII.—The system of compounding has no effect on the rating of the houses; they are rated in accordance with the scale that applies to weekly rents, such scale being fixed at a conference of the various Valuation and Assessment Committees in conjunction with the representatives of the King's Tax Authorities and the London County Council prior to each quinquennial re-assessment.

Question VIII.—In the event of occupiers paying their rates direct, should an allowance be given for payment in advance?

Question IX.—Does the practice of demanding payment of rates considerably in advance tell unduly on occupiers paying direct?

Answers VIII and IX.—I do not think that any allowance to occupiers for prompt payment—which would be rather difficult to define—would much alter the existing state of things. My experience, extending over 38 years, is that the greater number of ratepayers pay fairly promptly, that is, before the end of the second month of the quarter; and there are others—a smaller proportion, but usually the same people—who are summoned quarter after quarter. Though the rates are payable at the beginning of the quarter, and in advance, the greater proportion is paid during and towards the end of the second month, leaving three months between each payment; so I do not think it presses more hardly than would a weekly collection. Experience shows that the more thrifty lay aside a weekly sum for the payment of the rate, while others meet it by means of their lodgers' rents and a part of two weeks' earnings prior to payment of the rate.

Generally, I attach great importance to the fact that the rate in Islington is due and made payable at the beginning of each quarter, and collected within the quarter. This system has now been for many years in force, and has been the means of collecting the rate with much less loss than formerly, and with less hardship to the poorer ratepayers. Before this system was adopted it was a common thing for goods to be taken under the Distress Warrants, while now it is quite exceptional. The number of cases in which the rate has to be recovered by means of the bailiff has been considerably reduced in consequence of the more prompt collection.

* Although the commissions to owners were abolished and the liability fell upon the occupiers, the rates being demanded and collected from them, it was found in many cases that an understanding had been come to between the owner and occupier for the payment of the rate by the owner.

This is merely an understanding between owner and occupier and in no way affects the liability of the occupier to the Borough Council.

APPENDIX No. XXIV.

REPLIES by Miss CONSTANCE R. BARILETT (Chelmsford) to questions submitted to her by the Commission.

COMPOSITION BY OWNERS FOR PAYMENT OF RATES.

Question I.—Is composition by owners for the payment of rates the rule in your district?

Answer I.—In the district with which I have had to do, owners, as a rule, compound for the payment of rates in all property let to the working classes on weekly or monthly tenancies. There are a few exceptions, among those owners who wish to educate their tenants in local government and expenditure.

Question II.—Is direct payment by occupiers (a) possible, and (b) advisable?

If, in your opinion, it is impossible, would you kindly say on what grounds?

Answer II.—Direct payment by occupiers is both possible and advisable.

(a) In the district above mentioned it has worked well for many years among some of the thrifty occupiers of cottages, whose appreciation of their tenements induces them to overcome the difficulty of quarterly payments. It is not easy to work among the very poor or thriftless, whose custom is to spend each week's income as it comes. The plan of direct payment being exceptional, tenants who object to it have only to move to another house, and, owing to slackness in collecting debts, the unprincipled can usually escape payment of the quarter's rates by doing so. This moving of tenants and loss of rates would be avoided if the system were general. The success of the experiment among occupiers of the more popular houses—many of them quite poor—goes to show that the more generally it was adopted, the more practicable direct payment would become.

(b) It is advisable, as creating a more intelligent interest in local government, and tending to economy in administration.

Question III.—Do variations in the rates affect rents where composition is the rule?

Answer III.—Variations in the rates do affect rents where composition is the rule, but not in such a way as to be intelligible by indirect ratepayers. Rents are fixed on such a scale as to allow for existing rates or with some margin for their probable rise. When rates continue to rise rents are eventually raised in proportion, but only once in several years, so that the relation of the rise in rents to that in rates does not appear to the occupier, who usually supposes that the increase all goes to the owner.

Question IV.—Can you trace any effect of the direct payment of rates by occupiers on the interest they take in local government; and what attitude do the occupiers of small properties take towards local government when they do not pay the rates directly?

Answer IV.—The effect of direct payment of rates by occupiers on the interest they take in local government can be noticed at once, and is very marked. Until they receive the claims of the councils and guardians they have not realised what public work is being done nor what it costs, and have supposed they make no contribution to the so-called "free" undertakings. Finding that they share the expense stimulates them to take a share in responsibility—in an intelligent use of their votes and in following the action of their governing bodies. Learning that they have a right to demand that the work should be well and economically done, they begin to criticise extravagance and slackness, and to take action themselves in matters that concern them, e.g., in reporting to the authorities when the cleansing of the back streets in which they live is neglected, or when dustbins are left too long unemptied. They also begin to consider whether schemes which substitute various forms of rate aid for the independence of the working classes are for their ultimate advantage or not.

The attitude of occupiers of small property towards local government when they do not pay the rates directly is often one of ignorance and indifference, or on the other hand of favouring the party which appears to promise most in the working class interest, without real information as to methods or cost, or knowledge of the incidence of rates. Local elections are made matters of party politics, the men who take an interest in politics voting on party lines, without considering on their merits the questions of local government that are at issue, or the capacity of the candidates to deal with them.

Question V.—Have you any experience of a weekly collection of rates from occupiers? Would such be possible?

Answer V.—I have had some experience of weekly collection of rates from occupiers by owners, both in cases where they were direct ratepayers and where they were not. In the former case, on occupiers first being made direct ratepayers, the weekly proportion of the rate was collected with the rent, and given back to them when due to be paid. This plan was useful at first in accustoming them to put by the necessary amount weekly, but among the more thrifty it became unnecessary after a time. In the latter case the owners, while still compounding and collecting the rates, kept a separate account of rent and rates in the tenants' books, the former being a fixed amount, the latter varying with the half-yearly rate. This plan has lately been adopted in other districts, and is useful as showing the tenant what proportion of his payments goes to the owner and what to local expenditure. Both these plans are possible only when the landlords are willing to incur the extra trouble involved, for the sake of educating the tenant. I have not heard of any weekly collection by the local authorities. In the better class houses occupied by the thrifty, or better to do, a quarterly collection should be sufficient.

Question VI.—Assuming a weekly collection, would the cost be greater than the allowance now made for compounding?

Answer VI.—Assuming a weekly collection by the rate-collectors, it is a question whether the cost would be greater than the allowance now made for compounding, this allowance having been much reduced of late. A much larger staff of collectors would seem to be necessary; but taking the allowance at 12 to 15 per cent., it would not appear that salaries would necessarily exceed this amount. By weekly collections at regular times bad debts would be avoided, and also the necessity and the expense of repeated calls and summonses, very usual with quarterly collections. As in collecting rents, when the people know that payment is expected regularly at stated times, and will eventually be enforced, a second demand seldom has to be made.

Question VII.—Has the system of compounding any effect upon the value for rating purposes of the property compounded for?

Answer VII.—The system of compounding in itself has no necessary effect upon the value for rating purposes of the property compounded for, assessments being defined by law, irrespective of direct or indirect payment of rates. But weekly tenancies being more expensive than others to keep in repair, and liable to more loss and unlets, are usually assessed lower than others, in accordance with a scale published by the London County Council. This reduced scale, though adopted by most local bodies, is not obligatory by law, and unfortunately some borough councils, being opposed to the abolition of compounding, have raised the assessments of property where the tenants have been made direct ratepayers, thus adding to the amount of their rates, while no value has been added to the property.

APPENDIX No. XXIV.—Continued.

Question VIII.—In the event of occupiers paying their rates direct, should an allowance be given for payment in advance?

Answer VIII.—In the event of occupiers paying their rates direct, an allowance made to those paying quarterly in advance might be an encouragement to prompt payment, and if given only to those who pay on the first demand, might save some trouble and expense in second demands and summonses. It would, however, hardly be necessary if direct payment became the rule instead of the exception. In the case of those paying weekly, the incentive to regular payment would not be necessary, though an allowance to those who paid punctually throughout the quarter or half year might be found helpful. It would seem fair that those who caused unnecessary trouble and expense in collection, should by this plan pay at a slightly higher rate than others.

Question IX.—Does the practice of demanding payment of rates considerably in advance tell unduly on occupiers paying direct?

Answer IX.—The practice of demanding payment of rates considerably in advance, is a great inconvenience and sometimes a hardship on occupiers, when first becoming direct rate-payers. They are not prepared to pay the whole quarter's rates on first entering a house, as they are called upon to do, and they often do not understand that in the event of leaving before the end of a quarter, the balance will be repaid to them

on their claiming it from the local authorities. Here, again, if direct payment became the rule, the difficulty would be diminished. All would then know the amounts and dates of payments, and have the opportunity of preparing to meet them; while at the same time the need for payment so long in advance might decrease in so far as its purpose may be to avoid bad debts.

On the whole, though there would be perhaps considerable initial difficulty in abolishing compounding, it would appear to be practicable. It would also be likely to stimulate the interest of voters, and to tend to efficiency and economy in administration, through an increased sense of responsibility and a more accurate knowledge of the incidence of rates.

Fear may be entertained by some, that this measure would lead to too great a reaction in favour of economy. Or, again, it may be thought that the result would eventually be to cause a demand for such a reform of local taxation, by graduated rates or other means, as would relieve the working classes of their present share in local expenditure. But whether or not these are ends to be desired, there seems to be little to justify the present system, under which a considerable proportion of those who possess votes, remain so indifferent as to neglect to use them, or so ignorant of the issues involved, as by their votes to increase expenditure, which they would be the first to condemn if they realised how much of it must sooner or later be repaid by themselves.

APPENDIX No. XXV.

**STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO COMPOUNDING BY MR. GEORGE WILLIAM CLARKE,
BARRISTER, TOWN CLERK OF STEPNEY.**

1. I submit a brief statement of my experience and views upon the subject of composition by owners for payment of rates.

2. At the outset, I should like to remind the Commission that since the passing of the Poor Rate Exemption Act of 1840 (3 and 4 Vic. c. 89), a temporary Act continued in operation from time to time by Expiring Laws Continuance Acts—the person *prima facie* rateable to the relief of the poor and to rates required to be collected and enforced in the same manner as the poor rate, is the occupier (beneficial and exclusive) of rateable hereditaments. The principal exceptions to this rule and in which the “owner” becomes liable in place of, or side by side with, the occupier, are the following:—

- (a) Tithe rent charge and advertising stations—which have no application to the point submitted to me.
- (b) Under agreement pursuant to Section 3 of the Poor Rate Assessment and Collection Act, 1869—within specified limits of rateable value—whether the hereditaments include a dwelling house or not. The occupier still remains liable under this section, but a collateral liability is, by virtue of the agreement, imposed upon the owner.
- (c) Where “owners” of *all* rateable hereditaments which *include* a dwelling-house—within specified limits of rateable value—are by order rated *instead* of the occupier (Section 4 (1). This liability extends during the period of occupation only, unless under Section 4 (2) the owner agrees, in return for a deducted commission, to pay the rates whether the dwelling house be occupied or not. Although owners are so rated the goods and chattels of the occupier are still, under certain conditions, liable to be distrained and sold (Section 12).

3. I pause for a moment to remind the Commission that under Section 1 of the Poor Rate Assessment and Collection Act, 1869, an occupier of a hereditament let for a term not exceeding three months is enabled to deduct the rates demanded of him from the rent due to his landlord. No rateable liability is directly imposed upon the *owner* in this instance, the occupier being the person made liable to pay to the rating authority.

4. From the date of the passing of the Representation of the People Act, 1867, until the decision of the Divisional Court (Lord Alverstone, C.J. and A. T. Lawrence, J.) in the case of *Davis v. Wallis* (1908) (2 K.B. 134), considerable doubt existed upon the point whether, in respect of “tenement” houses “wholly let out in apartments or lodgings not separately rated,” situate in a Parliamentary borough and coming within the words of exception embodied in Section 7 of the Act mentioned, owners were required to be rated instead of occupiers. From the terms of the Court's decision in *Stamper v. Sunderland Overseers* (1868) (L.R., 3 C.P., 388; 37 L.J.M.C., 137; 18 L.T., 682; 16 W.R., 1063; 32 J.P., 439), it was in some quarters concluded that owners were legally rateable in respect of such houses and such opinion was acted upon, but the Divisional Court has now expressed the view that the Act of 1867 is a *franchise* Act and not a *rating* Statute and that “it only deals with rating as incidental to the qualification for the franchise.” Moreover, the Court expressed the opinion that in order to legally rate owners instead of occupiers, a rating authority must now do so under, and make the allowances prescribed by, the sections of the Poor Rate Assessment and Collection Act, 1869, to which reference has been made above.

5. Turning to the question of compounding under the Act of 1869, I should distinctly emphasise that compounding is most advisable in a borough like Stepney, having regard to its convenience, and because it un-

APPENDIX No. XXV.—*Continued.*

doubtedly saves the ratepayers from loss. In some boroughs—such, for instance, as Islington, where for about seven years I held the position of chief assistant to the vestry clerk (afterwards the Town Clerk)—compounding, having regard to the respectability and position in life of the bulk of the inhabitants, can be well dispensed with to the benefit of the general body of ratepayers and the saving of the commission. In Stepney, however, having regard to the itinerant wanderings and “hand-to-mouth” habits of a large proportion of the population (nearly 300,000), to attempt to dispense with it and to look to the occupiers for payment would mean considerable financial loss to the rating authority. Again, for a rate collector to enter certain of the courts in this borough for the purposes of his collection is a matter attended with no small degree of danger, which is avoided if payment is obtained from the owner of the houses therein. Again, as indicated above, tenants in this class of property are continually shifting and the attendance of the collector at each house for rate-col-

lecting purposes would have to be not less frequent than once or twice a week.

6. I think compounding should be allowed, where necessary, under agreement as contemplated by Section 3, for it enables the rating authorities to pick and choose. If well advised, they would not allow compounding where rates are collectable from the occupiers without difficulty, and at an expense less than what would be allowed in commission. It follows that I do not advocate compounding under Section 4 where the owners of *all* rateable hereditaments, which include a dwelling house coming within the compounding limit, must be rated instead of the occupier.

7. Where approved, a compounding allowance of 20 per cent. is made to owners in this borough on a rateable value in the case of each hereditament not exceeding £15. This allowance represents a loss in collection of about £3,700 per quarter, or about 2½ per cent. of the total amount of rate to be accounted for each quarter, which approximates £170,000.

APPENDIX No. XXVI.

REPLIES by Mr. WALTER POTTER, Chief Collector for the Borough of Brighton, to Questions submitted to him by the Commission.

1. When appointed collector I felt the great necessity, in order to make a successful collection, of assisting the poorer ratepayers by a system of deposit. This I found acted beneficially to the Corporation as well as the payee; but, unfortunately, one of the receiving clerks embezzling some of these deposits, the custom was ordered to cease, after being in practice nearly forty years. This I greatly regret, believing it the right way to assist the poorer class of ratepayers. I know it has saved much that would otherwise have been lost.

2. While acting as collector, my experience has been that a weekly tenant, not under composition, getting into arrears of rent, the landlord, although agreeing to pay rates, has refused to do so, although but a week or two in arrear, with the result that proceedings to recover from tenant terminated in the bailiff's return—no effects. The landlord, ascertaining this, has refused to pay proportion even upon rent received, and has possibly re-arranged rental. This, though within my knowledge at the time, I cannot now prove. But the tenant, if staying on, seldom again paid rates, preferring to run the risk of proceedings as before, until the arrears of rent procured tenant notice to quit, or left the premises to evade payment.

3. In making landlords or agents responsible for the payment of rates under composition, care would necessarily have to be taken that the collectors obtained tenant's name for the purpose of registration on voters' list. This is done under the system we have in our rate books, a special column being provided for owner's or agent's name.

4. I would respectfully suggest that the compound system be retained on £14 or not less than £12 rateable value, and compulsory on owners or agents.

Question I.—Is composition by owners for the payment of rates the rule in your district?

Answer I.—Yes, optional to owners; allowance one-quarter of Poor, District, and Library rates, but not on Water.

Question II.—Is direct payment by occupiers (a) possible and (b) advisable?

Answer II.—(a) Possible. (b) Not advisable, for reason that this class of ratepayers, in my opinion, do not till late in the rate understand their responsibility.

Question III.—Do variations in the rates affect rents where composition is the rule?

Answer III.—I should think it does, but could not prove it.

Question IV.—Can you trace any effect of the direct payment of rates by occupiers on the interest they take in local government; and what attitude do the occupiers of small properties take towards local government when they do not pay the rates directly?

Answer IV.—My experience in this is that the poorer class of ratepayers fail to consider the outlay on the town generally as beneficial, except where it touches their own particular locality. If they do not directly pay rates, they are aware their rental includes such charges, and many who do pay their rates resent by protest when paying.

Question V.—Have you any experience of a weekly collection of rates from occupiers? Would such be possible?

Answer V.—Had no experience as to weekly collection. From my appointment in 1868 I started a system of deposit, for the purpose of meeting the charge, to save the town loss, and ratepayers costs. It worked well, in my opinion, but such deposit business has been ordered to cease. But 10s. on account is at times accepted, receipt given, and entered direct to the rate account in the rate book.

The deposits mentioned I retained till completed, then paid in.

Very frequently the depositor removed after paying in for some time. If not traced, such cash received was paid into the account, and remainder written off.

Question VI.—Assuming a weekly collection, would the cost be greater than the allowance now made for compounding?

Answer VI.—I should say yes, as it would require a specially appointed collector, and then very doubtful if it would be successful.

Question VII.—Has the system of compounding any effect upon the value for rating purposes of the property compounded for?

Answer VII.—I do not quite grasp this question, but believe the answer is “No.” I submitted this question to the parochial valuer, whose reply is: “The system of compounding for rates does not have any effect whatever in estimating the value of property for rating purposes. The gross rental is based on its present value, and, whether the rates are compounded for or not, is not taken into consideration.”

Question VIII.—In the event of occupiers paying their rates direct, should an allowance be given for payment in advance?

Answer VIII.—Occupiers of houses of compound value, not compounded for, by payment of rate before the end of second month of date of rate, might be allowed rebate, not exceeding amount of composition.

Question IX.—Does the practice of demanding payment of rates considerably in advance tell unduly on occupiers paying direct?

Answer IX.—Our practice here is two rates in the year, combining Poor Rate, District, and Library Rates, also water charges, receivable by two quarterly payments. I therefore consider the charges do not unduly press upon the ratepayers. Still they could be assisted, as stated in reply to No. 5.

APPENDIX No. XXVII.

REPLIES from Mr. SAMUEL COLLIER POTTS, Treasurer for the Borough of Huddersfield, to Questions submitted to him by the Commission.

My views are formed upon 35 years' experience in connection with the collection of borough rates and administration of the Finance Department of the Borough of Huddersfield during that period.

The Huddersfield Corporation Act of 1871 empowers the Corporation to lay a borough rate for all their purposes, and by Section 342 gives the Corporation the option of rating the owner instead of the occupier where the rateable value of the property does not exceed the sum of six pounds.

The sections are as follow:—

Section 336.—Power to levy Borough Rate.

"In case the Borough Fund is at any time insufficient to pay the expenses payable thereout, the Council shall from time to time, annually or oftener, as and when they think fit, estimate as correctly as may be the amount in addition to the Borough Fund, which will be sufficient to pay those expenses, and shall raise the same by means of a rate called the Borough Rate; and accordingly such a rate the Corporation shall, annually or oftener, as and when they think fit, make, assess, and levy on the occupiers of all such kinds of property as by the laws in force for the time being are assessable to any rate for the relief of the poor according to the net annual value of such property; and the Corporation may levy any such rate either in one sum or payment or by such number of instalments of such amounts, and to be paid at such times, as they shall from time to time fix and determine at the time of making such rate, and in the case of a rate payable by instalments, the demand note shall, in addition to other requisite particulars, state the times appointed for payment of such instalments; and all the powers and remedies of the Corporation for the recovery of rates shall extend and apply to each instalment as fully as if the same were a separate rate."

Section 342.—Power to Rate Owner.

"The owner instead of the occupier of the property may from time to time, at the option of the Corporation, be rated in the following cases, namely:—

- (1) Where the rateable value of the property rated does not exceed the sum of £6.
- (2) Where buildings are let in separate apartments.
- (3) Where the rents become payable or are collected at any shorter period than quarterly.
- (4) Where the property rated is a mill, manufactory, machine shop, or other work wherein or in any part whereof steam power is supplied by the owner.

And where the owner is so rated he shall be entitled to a deduction of 10 per centum on the amount of the rates when paid by him."

The foregoing provisions have been amended by the Huddersfield Water Works and Improvement Act, 1876, s. 120.

The following is a copy of the Section:—

RECOVERY OF RATES AND RENTS.

Section 120.—"With respect to the provisions of Section 342 (power to rate owner instead of occupier in cases described) of the Improvement Act of 1871, the following provisions shall have effect—that is to say,

The owner of any property rated in the borough rate instead of the occupier thereof shall not be entitled to the reduction of 10 per cent., unless he pay the rate within one calendar month after the same shall have been demanded.

Where an owner pays any rate to the Corporation the occupier shall repay to him the amount thereof, unless it shall have been agreed between them that the owner is to pay such rate, and such amount, if not so paid on demand, may be recovered as arrears of rent could be recovered, from the occupier by the owner.

The owner of a mill, manufactory, machine shop, or other work, who supplied steam power thereto, or to any part thereof, shall for all purposes of rating under the Improvement Act

of 1871, be deemed the occupier thereof, and shall not, except the Corporation specially so order, be deemed to be the owner thereof within the meaning or effect of Section 342."

Question I.—Is composition by owners for the payment of rates the rule in your district?

Answer I.—The rating of owners of property in respect of items of a rateable value of £6 and under has been in operation in this Borough since the passing of the Local Act of 1871, previously referred to, and has facilitated the collection of the Borough rates to a very considerable extent. In fact, I am not only strongly in favour of its continuance, but I am of opinion that if the amount of £6, which forms the limit at present, were increased to £8, it would bring into operation a large number of assessments on back-to-back houses where the rates are paid by the land lord, and where the tenants prefer the more gradual payment of local taxation through the medium of the rent, and would be beneficial to all parties, and of great assistance in the collection of the rates.

Question II.—Is direct payment by occupiers (a) possible and (b) advisable?

If, in your opinion, it is impossible, would you kindly say on what grounds?

Answer II.—Direct payment by occupiers is, of course, possible, as the Corporation have the option of rating the owner, but I do not think it advisable owing to the difficulty of the collection of the amounts, and where proceedings have to be taken for the recovery thereof, with the attendant costs, a certain amount of resentment is bound to ensue, both against the authority and its officials. I think it is desirable to take advantage of the easiest possible method both of payment by the occupier and collection by the authority, and in respect of small assessments, where the occupiers are of the poorer class, and the rent usually paid weekly, this medium seems to me to be the best and most agreeable for both sides.

Question III.—Do variations in the rates affect rents where composition is the rule?

Answer III.—The variations in the rates are no doubt adjusted in the rents between landlord and tenant from time to time where the composition is in operation.

Question IV.—Can you trace any effect of the direct payment of rates by occupiers on the interest they take in local government; and what attitude do the occupiers of small properties take towards local government when they do not pay the rates directly?

Answer IV.—I do not think the direct payment of rates by the small occupiers would make much, if any, difference in their interest in local government. There are so many other matters affecting the health and convenience of residents and voters of much greater importance than the rates, which promote interest in the work of the Council, and I expect and believe this will increase rather than diminish in the future.

Question V.—Have you any experience of a weekly collection of rates from occupiers? Would such be possible?

Answer V.—I have no experience of a weekly collection of rates from occupiers. A very large increase in the collecting staff would be required to carry it out, and I do not think it would be appreciated by our ratepayers.

Question VI.—Assuming a weekly collection, would the cost be greater than the allowance now made for compounding?

Answer VI.—The cost would, I think, be greater.

Question VII.—Has the system of compounding any effect upon the value for rating purposes of the property compounded for?

Answer VII.—I do not think the system of compounding has any material effect upon the rateable value.

APPENDIX No. XXVII.—*Continued.*

Question VIII.—In the event of occupiers paying their rates direct, should an allowance be given for payment in advance?

Answer VIII.—We tried for one year, 1896-7, as an experiment, a system of discounts for early payment of Borough rates, but it was not a success, and beyond the allowance to owners, I am not in favour of any further development in that direction.

Question IX.—Does the practice of demanding payment of rates considerably in advance tell unduly on occupiers paying direct?

Answer IX.—The Borough rate here is levied annually, and ample time is allowed for payment, varying from three to six months after the demand notes are delivered. The delivery of these demand notes is made about the same time in each year, so that the ratepayers know when to expect their accounts. Payments on account are always accepted and welcomed, so that I do not see that there can be any hardship on occupiers paying direct or on any other ratepayers so far as the period allowed for payment is concerned.

APPENDIX No. XXVIII.

REPLIES from Mr. EDMUND SHERIFF, Rating Superintendent for the Borough of St. Marylebone, to Questions submitted to him by the Commission.

Question I.—Is composition by owners for the payment of rates the rule in your district?

Answer I.—This borough adopts the permissive section (Section 3) of the Poor Rate Assessment and Collection Act, 1869, Cap. 41. It is generally taken advantage of by the owners, the amount of the allowance being 15 per cent. There is an increasing tendency on the part of the latter, however, to terminate the agreements on the ground of the inadequacy of the percentage to cover their losses. See also answer to No. 6.

Question II.—Is direct payment by occupiers (a) possible and (b) advisable?

If, in your opinion, it is impossible, would you kindly say on what grounds?

Answer II.—Direct payment by occupiers (a) is, of course, possible, (b) but, in my opinion, most inadvisable from a financial standpoint. See also answer to No. 6.

Question III.—Do variations in the rates affect rents where composition is the rule?

Answer III.—The owners in this borough, with the exception of those of quite a few large blocks of industrial dwellings, made especially attractive to the tenant, are complaining that they cannot increase rents to correspond with the steady and continued rise in the rates, there being no demand for their empty rooms. An increase of 1d. in the £ on rates for the highest valued tenancy of the class under discussion—viz., £20, equals 1s. 8d. for the half year, or 77 of a 1d. (virtually three farthings) per week—does not lend itself to an ad valorem increase of rent. For example, rooms at 9s. 6d. per week would be raised to meet a 1d. increase of rates to 9s. 9d. or 10s. I have never heard of rents at, say, 9s. 7d. or 9s. 8d.

Question IV.—Can you trace any effect of the direct payment of rates by occupiers on the interest they take in local government; and what attitude do the occupiers of small properties take towards local government when they do not pay the rates directly?

Answer IV.—I have been brought into contact with the class of ratepayers whose rates are paid for them for some twenty years in the course of the work of registration of voters, and at the polling stations. I have been struck with the apathy shown by these as to both their political and local privileges. To a certain extent the same indifference (but as to their local interests only) is noticeable in the upper classes, who pay their own rates, and who are, by reason of the amount involved, deeply concerned in economical local administration, but in the case of the poorer class, the subject of this question, I am of opinion that their improvident habits would induce them to disregard additions so trifling as a penny per week. Undoubtedly there is evidence of a slight improvement in their attitude towards local government, but I am convinced that the end to be attained must be the result of

further education, and that the expensive collection of trifling amounts of rates per week from the tenants would not expedite it.

Question V.—Have you any experience of a weekly collection of rates from occupiers? Would such be possible?

Answer V.—A direct weekly collection of rates is quite possible. I have had no experience of such, but in the next answer quote the information I have obtained from a rent collector with a large business, and from the facts so obtained, and for other reasons set forth in the next answer (No. 6), deem the suggestion from a financial point of view quite impracticable.

Question VI.—Assuming a weekly collection, would the cost be greater than the allowance now made for compounding?

Answer VI.—To reply to this question I have obtained information from a house agent who collects about 2,000 weekly rents. For this purpose he keeps two men for outdoor work, and three girls for the clerical work. It is the practice in the case of the collector of rents from block of flats, for one tenant, usually the caretaker, to receive the rent of the whole ten or twelve occupiers and hand them to the collector; this enables the latter to collect a larger number than a rate collector who must call on each individual tenant. Again, rent collectors merely initial the rent book. In the case of rates separate printed receipts must be given, and note taken of tenants leaving and efforts made to recover arrears at their new addresses if known. I think, therefore, instead of the two collectors sufficient for the rent collection, four collectors would be needed at a cost of £7 to £8 per week. In the case of rent not nearly the writing would be required as is necessary for rate books and the preparation of receipts, and it must not be overlooked that where the landlord's collector has only to take a broker with him to recover arrears, all the cumbrous procedure connected with the preparation of summonses, distress warrants, and committals has to be done by the Town Hall indoor staff, where the cheap labour of girls is not possible. At least four men would be required at, say, £7 per week. Total for eight men, say, £15 per week, or £390 for half year. In addition there is to be added the item of printing, 2,000 by 26, equals 52,000 receipts, some 4,000 or 5,000 demand notes and other official forms, the half yearly cost of collection would be considerably over £400. I have taken an average block of 12 compounded lettings, the rates for the half year at 3s. 6d. being £27 16s. 6d.; this would be for 2,000 lettings, approximately, £4,637. The allowance thereon of 15 per cent. is £695, to include all "empties."

As I mentioned in Answer No. 1, some of the owners have given notice of their intention to withdraw from agreement with the Council on account of their losses exceeding the 15 per cent. allowed. One firm of agents placed their books at our disposal and proved that the "empties" and losses were 21 per cent. of the total collection. If this figure is applied to the £4,637 the borough in collecting the rates weekly would lose £927 in losses and empties during the half year,

APPENDIX No. XXVIII.—*Continued.*

The result of the preceding estimates is as under :—

Under Agreement with Owner. Rates for 2,000 Assessments.	Estimate of Cost for the half year if Collected from Tenants weekly. Rates for 2,000 Assessments.	
Rates for the half year : £4,637.	Rates : £4,637.	
	Cost :—	
	Four collectors for £8 weekly	- £ 208
	Four clerks for £7 weekly	- 182
	Estimate cost of printing, say	- 20
		410 equal 8·8 per cent. of the rates (£4,637).
	Empties and loss average 20 per cent. on £4,637	- 927 equal 20·0 per cent. of the rates (£4,637).
Cost 15 per cent., £695		1,337 equal 28·8 per cent. of the rates (£4,637).

The number of assessments rated under Section 3 in this borough is 4,148.

Question VII.—Has the system of compounding any effect upon the value for rating purposes of the property compounded for?

Answer VII.—No. The effect is upon the payment of rates upon a value already ascertained and fixed. At the Quinquennial Revision of Assessments, or at the initial assessment of the premises when brought into assessment, no regard is had to the existing or to the possible subsequent agreement with the owner, and I am quite sure that few, if any, owners manipulate their rents to bring their rateable values within the scope of Sections 3 and 4 of the Act. This may be so in boroughs where Section 4 of the Act is in operation, although I do not see that compounding can affect the value in this case.

Question VIII.—In the event of occupiers paying their rates direct, should an allowance be given for payment in advance?

Answer VIII.—As rates are due and payable in

advance, no allowance should be made to ratepayers for doing what they are required to do. If it is suggested that the concession might attract earlier payment, the rate of interest possible would be so small as to induce but few in addition to those who already pay promptly after application to respond. Further, gradually diminishing periods of interest as payments were received would have to be calculated as time extended towards a certain period in the half-year's collection when allowance ceased. The clerical cost of working this out would have to be considered.

Question IX.—Does the practice of demanding payment of rates considerably in advance tell unduly on occupiers paying direct?

Answer IX.—In this borough notice is given to compounding owners that the middle of the half-year, viz., 31st December and 30th June, are the dates by which the rates must be paid, or the allowance (under the agreement) will be forfeited. Generally also, throughout the borough, pressure is put on occupiers paying direct on or soon after the same date. Thus there is no irregularity of treatment.

APPENDIX No. XXIX.

REPLIES by Mr. C. WILLIAM TAGG, Town Clerk for the Borough of Camberwell, to Questions submitted to him by the Commission.

Question I.—Is composition by owners for the payment of rates the rule in your district?

Answer I.—The Camberwell Borough Council compound with owners of properties under Section 3 of the Poor Rate Assessment and Collection Act, 1869, and the number of assessments which are subject to a compounding agreement is about 12,783, out of a total of 44,000 assessments.

Question II.—Is direct payment by occupiers (a) possible and (b) advisable?

If, in your opinion, it is impossible, would you kindly say on what grounds?

Answer II.—Direct payment by occupiers is of course possible, but certainly not advisable in cases where weekly premises have been let to poor tenants. It has been found, when circumstances have required it in these cases, most difficult to collect the rates. The poor get the habit of paying rents weekly, and it is very exceptional to find those who are able to save up enough money to pay a month's or a quarter's rates. What happens now is that the landlord collects the rates weekly with his rent.

Question III.—Do variations in the rates affect rents where composition is the rule?

Answer III.—I have known cases where rents have been increased in consequence of an increase in the rate, and this applies to small properties

whether compounded or not. I do not think, however, that I can point to any reduction in weekly rentals in consequence of a reduction in the rate.

Question IV.—Can you trace any effect of the direct payment of rates by occupiers on the interest they take in local government; and what attitude do the occupiers of small properties take towards local government when they do not pay the rates directly?

Answer IV.—I cannot trace that the direct payment of rates by occupiers tends to make them take more interest in local government than where an indirect payment is made. The occupiers of small properties do not apparently take much interest in local government from the amount of rates point of view, but rather from trades union rate of wages and other factors that appeal direct to the working man. He also appreciates the Parks and Public Gardens, Public Baths, Libraries, and Housing Reform.

Question V.—Have you any experience of a weekly collection of rates from occupiers? Would such be possible?

Question VI.—Assuming a weekly collection, would the cost be greater than the allowance now made for compounding?

Answers V. and VI.—I have no experience of a weekly collection of rates from occupiers, and think it is not possible without an immense staff of collectors and

APPENDIX No. XXIX.—*Continued.*

accountant clerks; and I am of opinion that the present system of making an allowance to owners (chiefly 10 per cent. in this borough, but regulated by the class of tenants and property) is preferable. Indeed in a borough such as this, with a population which is constantly shifting, it would be most inadvisable to endeavour to carry out a weekly collection system.

Question VII.—Has the system of compounding any effect upon the value for rating purposes of the property compounded for?

Answer VII.—No.

Question VIII.—In the event of occupiers paying their rates direct, should an allowance be given for payment in advance?

*Answer VIII.—*I am against such a proposal, which appears on the surface to be an attractive one, but which really means that to those who are able to afford to pay their rates at once a discount would be given which would have to be added to the amount

of rate to be raised, and the proportion of the discount added to the charges of the poorest ratepayer. The local authority have to raise a certain amount of money, and when a discount is given, the penny in the pound produces that amount less.

Question IX.—Does the practice of demanding payment of rates considerably in advance tell unduly on occupiers paying direct?

*Answer IX.—*Rates, though demanded, are not collected considerably in advance; in practice the collection is taking place actually when the money collected is being spent and precepts have to be met. The occupier is certainly not prejudiced, but the landlord paying rates for weekly tenants may be, to a certain extent, because—after he has paid the rates—there is generally a few more weeks' rent to collect to the end of a quarter, and local authorities have often to make allowances afterwards for empty premises for which he has paid rates. The landlord also in some cases loses rent by non-payment, for which he has paid the rates.

APPENDIX No. XXX.

REPLIES by Mr. WILLIAM WADE, Chief Cashier and Manager of the Rates Department of the City of Leeds, to Questions submitted to him by the Commission.

So far as I know, little real knowledge is available as to the effect of direct rating, which is only to a small degree known in practice, but I do not doubt that direct rating would act as a check on extravagance.

In Leeds the payment of rates by landlords is increasingly common, and it would be exceedingly difficult to enforce direct payment by occupiers unless the intervention of the landlords were made a punishable offence.

Question I.—Is composition by owners for the payment of rates the rule in your district?

*Answer I.—*Yes; over 26 per cent. of the assessments in Leeds are subject to compulsory compounding, and over 45 per cent., in addition, are paid by the owners under voluntarily agreement. These figures refer to the Consolidated and Highway Rates only, and which have a present compounding limit of £6. The Poor Rate compounding limit of £8 would show different proportions in each of the four Unions contained in the City limits.

Question II.—Is direct payment by occupiers (a) possible, and (b) advisable? If, in your opinion, it is impossible, would you kindly say on what grounds?

Answer II.—(a) Yes, provided that all property owners act in concert and in favour of direct rating. Such harmonious action is, however, scarcely possible, and therefore legal coercion of both owners and occupiers would be requisite to produce direct rating. (b) Yes, if it were made penal for the landlords to intervene.

Question III.—Do variations in the rates affect rents where composition is the rule?

*Answer III.—*No. There may, of course, be exceptional cases.

Question IV.—Can you trace any effect of the direct payment of rates by occupiers on the interest they take in local government; and what attitude do the occupiers of small properties take towards local government when they do not pay the rates directly?

*Answer IV.—*No. We deal with the owners of compounded property and not with the tenants, and so

have no opportunity for acquiring reliable knowledge on the matter.

Question V.—Have you any experience of a weekly collection of rates from occupiers? Would such be possible?

Answer V.—(a) Yes, to a small extent, as we have occasionally arranged to accept weekly instalments of rates from tenants whose landlords have failed to meet their voluntary obligations. (b) Yes, but probably at a higher average annual cost than the present compounding allowance.

Question VI.—Assuming a weekly collection, would the cost be greater than the allowance now made for compounding?

*Answer VI.—*In times of depression the cost would probably be greater, but when trade is good and property well let, there might be some gain to the local authority in direct rating, but hardly in a weekly collection, unless the rent agents, at small cost for their services, could be appointed subsidiary rate collectors for the estates they administer.

Question VII.—Has the system of compounding any effect upon the value for rating purposes of the property compounded for?

*Answer VII.—*No, none whatever.

Question VIII.—In the event of occupiers paying their rates direct, should an allowance be given for payment in advance?

*Answer VIII.—*An allowance for payment in advance would probably be beneficial, in that it would reduce leakage and cost of collection and produce some revenue from bank interest. It is quite conceivable, therefore, that there might be some ultimate gain in allowing a reasonable discount on early payments.

Question IX.—Does the practice of demanding payment of rates considerably in advance tell unduly on occupiers paying direct?

*Answer IX.—*Not if payment is accepted about the same date each year (say October to December, for a rate covering April to March following).

APPENDIX No. XXXI.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY MR. WILLIAM ALFRED WILLIAMS, HACKNEY.

1. He is Town Clerk of the Metropolitan Borough of Hackney.

2. The Council of that Borough, like other metropolitan borough councils, are the Overseers of the Parish, which is coterminous with the Borough, but owing to the Poor Law Union not being wholly within the Borough his Council do not appoint the Assessment Committee, which is still appointed by the Board of Guardians. (London Government Act, 1899, Section 13.)

3. This state of things has given rise to considerable inconvenience and difficulty, and he is of opinion that these difficulties can only be overcome by his Council being empowered to appoint the Assessment Committee.

4. In illustration of the disadvantages of the state of things existing in his Borough in regard to assessment matters, he would mention the following points :

5. Owing to the Assessment Committee being appointed by the Board of Guardians instead of by the Borough Council, a longer time elapses between the making and confirmation of the Valuation Lists. When an assessment is made or altered the procedure is as follows :—

6. The Council, through the proper Committee, with the assistance of their rating surveyor, who is a permanent official, and of the rate collectors, who have an intimate knowledge of the district, considers the circumstances and fixes the assessment. If the ratepayer is dissatisfied he is given an opportunity of attending, at a later date, before the Committee, who hear and decide upon his objection. The new assessments are thereupon entered in a Provisional Valuation List and sent to the Assessment Committee, to whom the ratepayer can appeal (Valuation [Metropolis] Act, 1869, Section 47). After considering objections, the Provisional Valuation List is approved by the Assessment Committee and returned to the Council, and the necessary alterations are then made in the Rate Book. The time that elapses between the first consideration of the assessment and the settlement by the Assessment Committee is usually three months, and is sometimes longer. If the Assessment Committee were appointed by the Council, in many cases one appeal would be saved, and the period between the making and confirmation of the Valuation List would in all cases be reduced.

7. During the year ended 5th April, 1907, his Council considered 1,543 applications for a revision of assessment, and reduced 1,189 of them. The Assessment Committee during the same period heard 152 objections against the Council's decisions and confirmed the Council's figures in only 39 cases.

8. The Assessment Committee consists of 12 members, who are all members of, and are appointed by, the Board of Guardians (Union Assessment Committee Act, 1862, Section 2), and some of them represent and are resident in the adjoining Parish of Stoke Newington, and are not so conversant with local affairs as those members who reside in and represent the Parish of Hackney.

9. The members of the Board of Guardians are elected to administer the Poor Law, and their control of rating matters is, as far as London is concerned, at the present time an anomaly.

10. At the time of the passing of the Union Assessment Committee Acts, the overseers consisted of individuals who were appointed for the various parishes in the Union by the Justices of the Peace (Poor Relief Act, 1601, Section 1), and the Guardians were at that time almost the only elected body to whom the appointment of the Assessment Committee could be given.

11. By the London Government Act, 1899, Section 11, the Borough Councils became the overseers for their respective Boroughs and the personal overseer was abolished.

12. If the Council appointed the Assessment Committee a large proportion of the expenses now chargeable to the rates would be saved, as the staff employed by the Borough Council would be at the disposal of the Assessment Committee.

13. The cost to the individual ratepayer is also greater under the present system on account of his having to appear before two separate bodies (the Survey and Valuation Committee of the Borough Council and the Assessment Committee of the Guardians). In many cases, owing to the intricacies of the law of rating, he is obliged to be professionally represented before both bodies.

14. One of the greatest difficulties which has been experienced under the present assessments is the different manner in which the Borough Council and the Assessment Committee interpret the decisions that have been given by the superior Courts as to the circumstances which justify a revision of the assessments during the quinquennium. In many cases, during the last five years, assessments have been reduced by the Borough Council, but restored to their original figure by the Assessment Committee, owing to their different interpretation of the law. (See *Ellis v. the Camberwell Vestry*, 1900 A.C. 510.)

15. If the Assessment Committee were appointed by the Borough Council, the principles which they laid down would be followed throughout the proceedings, with the result of the saving of much time and expense, and the ratepayer would not be perplexed and harassed by having his assessment reduced and afterwards raised again, owing to the conflict between the two authorities.

16. The greater number of the metropolitan borough councils appoint the Assessment Committee for their own borough.

17. The Boards of Guardians appointing Assessment Committees in the metropolis are as under :—

UNION.	BOROUGH.
Wandsworth	{ Battersea. Wandsworth.
Hackney	{ Hackney. Stoke Newington.
Holborn	{ Finsbury. Holborn (part of).
Lewisham	{ Lewisham. Woolwich (part of).
Woolwich	{ Woolwich (part of). Greenwich (part of).
Greenwich	{ Greenwich (part of). Deptford.

A map is submitted showing the boundaries in these areas.*

18. The City of London Guardians formerly appointed the Assessment Committee in the City, but, by the City of London (Union of Parishes) Act, 1907, the power of appointing the Assessment Committee was conferred upon the City Corporation.

19. In the cases of Wandsworth and Hackney the Union is coterminous with the combined area of two boroughs, the Wandsworth Union including Battersea, and the Hackney Union including Stoke Newington.

20. In other cases the matter is complicated by the overlapping of areas. For instance, the Holborn Union consists of part of the Borough of Holborn and the whole of the Borough of Finsbury, the remaining part of the Borough of Holborn comprising the St. Giles and St. George's Union.

21. The Lewisham Union comprises the whole of the Borough of Lewisham and part of the Borough of Woolwich. The Woolwich Union comprises the remaining part of the Borough of Woolwich not included

* Not reproduced.

APPENDIX No. XXXI.—*Continued.*

in the Lewisham Union, and part of the Borough of Greenwich. The Greenwich Union comprises the remaining part of the borough not included in the Woolwich Union and the whole of the Borough of Deptford. In the case of Holborn, the matter is further complicated by the fact that the Borough Council, under the existing law, appoints the Assessment Committee for that part of the borough which is situate in the St. Giles and St. George's Union, while the Holborn Board of Guardians appoints the Assessment Committee for the area comprising the remainder of the borough and the Borough of Finsbury.

22. In January, 1906, his council convened a meeting of representatives of such metropolitan borough councils as did not appoint Assessment Committees to discuss the position.

23. The following councils were represented at the

conference:—Deptford, Finsbury, Greenwich, Hackney, Holborn, Lewisham, and Wandsworth.

24. The Councils of Battersea, Stoke Newington and Woolwich, which were in favour of the suggested amendment of the law, were not represented on the ground that the matter would be dealt with by the Valuation Bill, which was then about to be introduced by the Government.

25. As a result of this conference, which was held at the Town Hall, Hackney, on the 7th February, 1906, it was unanimously resolved:—

“That in the opinion of this Conference the appointment of Assessment Committees by certain of the Metropolitan Boards of Guardians is an anomaly which should be removed at the earliest possible date, and that each Metropolitan Borough Council should appoint the Assessment Committee for the whole of the borough.”

APPENDIX No. XXXII.

**STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO COMPOUNDING BY MR. EDWARD H. BALDEN, AGENT
AT BIRMINGHAM TO THE RT. HON. LORD CALTHORPE.**

1. I do not know that I can add anything which will assist your Commission, as on the estate controlled from here there is no small house property but what is still held on building lease, and as I act only for the ground landlord I possess no information as to the terms under which the houses referred to are let.

2. There are, however, many real cottages of which the letting devolves on me, and for such I am never short of applicants. Some of our cottage tenancies are of 20, 30, 40, and more years' standing, and the old-fashioned weekly rents still remain, in spite of necessary repairs of an extensive character inseparable from old cottages.

3. The rates and water rents are paid by the landlord, and I have only two cottages which do not come within the figure allowed for compounding for rates, and in our case, where voids are unknown, the landlord obtains a small advantage from the compound.

4. The direct payment of rates by occupiers, in

urban and suburban districts, whose tenancies are only weekly, may be possible, but their collection would entail an enormous amount of additional trouble and expense, owing to the very great number of removals which are continually going on amongst weekly tenants of ordinary small house property.

5. I hold the view that a person who occupies a house at a weekly rent much prefers to know that all liability is met when the rent is paid. A direct payment of rates would not increase the interest taken in local affairs.

6. A variation in rates does not affect weekly tenancies on this estate, but the reverse may be the case where small owners are entirely dependent on their rents, and the rates variation is upward.

7. In more than 25 years' experience on various properties I have always paid the rates on small house property, as representing the owners.

APPENDIX No. XXXIII.

**REPLIES by Mr. F. B. CROUCH, Secretary to the Peabody Donation Fund,
to Questions submitted to him by the Commission.**

I beg, first, to reply as concisely as possible to the four points put to me, especially with the view to studying the convenience of the Commissioners, and, secondly, to deal in a memorandum of greater length with assessments upon low-rented dwellings, and the direct payment of rates by occupiers, considerations, in my opinion, bearing vitally upon the question of the relief of distress.

The Peabody Trust is a self-supporting charity, with accumulated funds of over £1,500,000, earning 2½ per cent. net at the end of the year 1906. It then provided 5,469 separate dwellings of 12,328 rooms, besides bathrooms, laundries and lavatories. The average population was 19,737, and the average weekly earnings per family £1 1s. 9d., the rent per room being 2s. 3½d., including rates and free use of water, laundries, sculleries, and bathrooms. Out of the 5,500 tenants under the Trust, there are over 1,000 whose weekly earnings do not exceed 15s.

The Governors allow the tenants the full amount of the compounding commission granted by the rating authorities—a practice which, to the best of my belief, is specifically adopted by no other institution.

I would also point out that the cost incurred in the repairing and keeping in order of the various yards and roadways, and of the lighting of the Peabody properties, is borne by the Trust, thus contributing in a great degree towards the relief of the rates.

Further particulars can be obtained from the enclosed copy of my Governors' report, on the last page of which appear the separate apportionments, according to the number of rooms, of the rates per week to each tenement, no additional charge beyond the actual rent and rates being made upon the tenants.

I will now proceed to deal with the four points laid before me. I understand that the Commission would not wish me to confine myself to these points.

APPENDIX No. XXXIII.—*Continued.*

If I did, it would be impossible to do justice to the main consideration—the housing of the poor—which question, presumably, comes well within the scope of the Commission's investigation, and in respect of which my Governors have of late years taken exceptional steps as regards the method of payment of the rates.

Question I.—On the estates with which you are acquainted, does the owner pay the rates on (1) allotments; (2) other tenements of small value, or do the occupiers pay them? Has the local authority ordered that the poor rate on such property must be paid by the owner?

Answer I.—In the estates of the Peabody Trust the Governors have now reverted to paying the rates on all the tenements except in the case of two groups of buildings, where the occupiers have paid them direct to the local authorities since the year 1902, on account of an insufficient compounding allowance being offered by the borough councils. These two estates comprise 366 tenements only (776 rooms), the remainder of the Trust property consisting, at the end of 1906, of 5,103 tenements (11,552 rooms).

Only one local authority has ordered the poor rate (extending to the other rates) to be paid by the owners (the Peabody Governors). This order, however, affected six groups of buildings out of a total of nineteen. (For general information, see "Times" article, *Appendix No. XXXIII. (A)*).

Question II.—Is the direct payment of rates by the occupier (a) possible; and (b) desirable? If in your opinion it is impossible, would you kindly say on what grounds?

Answer II.—The direct payment of the rates by the occupier is possible, as already pointed out, and, in my opinion, desirable as being by far the best means of bringing home to his mind the cost of local administration. It is, however, naturally irksome to tenants, who only earn a few shillings a week, to make quarterly payments upon exorbitant assessments, and who are, in addition, deprived of the benefit of any compounding allowance.

If monthly rate collections were established, the system of composition entirely abolished, and a greatly reduced scale of assessments upon low-rented dwellings, in common justice, substituted, then, in my opinion, the direct payment of the rates upon compulsory lines would be wholly desirable.

These are the suggestions roughly dealt with, but to

the best of my ability, in the very limited time at my disposal, in the accompanying memorandum, to which I earnestly beg to draw the Commissioners' patient attention. (*See Appendix No. XXXIII. (B).*)

I may here explain that the Peabody Trust has been able to enforce direct payment of rates on the part of the tenants largely owing to the lowness of the rents charged. Where owners exact full rents, the occupiers leave the buildings rather than submit to the annoyance of saving up and paying direct to the rate collector. Were it to be enacted that all occupiers shall pay rates direct to the local authorities, such general exodus would, of course, be impossible.

Question III.—Do variations in the rates affect rents where composition is the rule?

Answer III.—Variations in the rates affect the total weekly charges in the case of the Peabody Trust, unless the variation is small enough to be dealt with at the time by means of special rate collections, as set forth in *Appendix No. XXXIII. (C)*. Every quinquennial valuation renders necessary a revision of these total weekly charges.

Question IV.—Can you trace any effect of the direct payment of rates by occupiers on the interest they take in local government; and what attitude do the occupiers of small properties take towards local government when they do not pay the rates directly?

Answer IV.—The most striking instance in connection with the Peabody Trust of the effect of the direct payment of rates by occupiers on the interest they take in local government is that of the action of the 433 tenants of one of the Peabody estates in the year 1903, when they all voted in favour, and procured the return, of the six candidates who pledged themselves to attempt to obtain an acceptable compounding allowance from the borough council in order to admit of a reversion to the payment of rates with their rents.

A further interesting account of the action of the tenants of certain other estates is contained in my report to the Governors. (*See Appendix No. XXXIII. (D).*)

Unfortunately, no sooner have the tenants been allowed to revert to the payment of rates with their rents than they have entirely relapsed into their previous state of indifference. Although the separation of the amounts appertaining to rents and rates both in notices and rent receipts is decidedly a step in the right direction, up to the present it has made little or no difference in the interest taken by the tenants in local government matters.

APPENDIX No. XXXIII. (A).

Handed in by Mr. F. B. Crouch, Secretary to the Peabody Donation Fund.

PEABODY DONATION FUND.

THE HOUSING QUESTION AND LOCAL RATES

Copy of an Article appearing in "The Times" of April 2nd, 1902

The governors of the Peabody Donation Fund have just carried out an important scheme for the housing of London workers of the poorer class. Instead of contenting themselves with raising blocks of tenements in some already densely populated districts of London proper, they have acquired an area 20 acres in extent at Herne Hill; and on a portion of this land, representing about 8 acres altogether, they have constructed in four groups, and at a total cost of £70,000, twelve blocks of artisans' dwellings, of which three are now ready for occupation. There is room on the 8 acres for a total of forty-eight blocks, but only the twelve in question have been erected at present. The dwellings are in Rosendale Road, Norwood Road, within two minutes'

walk of Brockwell Park; and alike in the completeness of their internal arrangements, in the open situation in which they stand, in their immediate proximity to so attractive a playground, and in their thoroughly suburban character in general, they constitute the most noticeable development yet brought about in the beneficent labours of the Peabody Fund governors. The new departure is the more noteworthy because of the suggestion it offers for a solution of the problem as to how London workers can be housed in healthy surroundings on sites to be secured at a comparatively low price, and still be within easy reach of London itself. Thus from Herne Hill to the City or to Victoria there is an excellent service of early morning workmen's trains, the journey to either

APPENDIX No. XXXIII. (A).—*Continued.*

point can be made within about twenty-five minutes from the time the workman leaves his dwelling, while the charge for a workman's return ticket is only twopence. The governors of the fund, who comprise the Duke of Devonshire (chairman), the United States Ambassador, Lord Ashcombe, Lord Revelstoke, Mr. W. H. Long, M.P., Mr. E. A. Hambro, Mr. J. P. Morgan, jun., and Mr. Victor Cavendish, M.P., have thus afforded to London toilers advantages which can hardly fail to meet with appreciation; and the outcome of their efforts will doubtless be watched with interest by all who are concerned in the housing problem.

Each of the twelve blocks consist of nineteen tenements—three of one room each, eleven of two rooms each, and five of three rooms each, a total of forty rooms per block. A single-room tenement is available for husband and wife and one child under five years; a two-room tenement for husband, wife, and four children under twelve; and a three-room tenement for husband, wife, and six children under twelve. On this basis the twelve blocks can accommodate 1,380 persons, without overcrowding; while the whole forty-eight blocks which could be put on the 8 acres (allowing a space 60 feet between the various groups of buildings) would lodge 5,520. Any boy or girl over twelve, or any adult relative living with tenants, is regarded as equivalent to two young children. The occupations most largely represented in the Peabody dwellings are those of labourers, porters, charwomen, and needlewomen. Unless in exceptional circumstances no tenants are accepted whose earnings exceed 30s. a week, the actual average being 22s.

The accommodation provided at Herne Hill is excellent of its kind. The rooms are large for this class of building, they are well lighted, without even a single exception, and there are good arrangements for securing ventilation. Each of the two-room and three-room tenements has not only a cooking-range or kitchen, with boiler and oven, but is also supplied with a good-sized gas-stove, which may be used or not as the tenant pleases, the gas being obtained by means of a penny-in-the-slot meter fixed against the wall. The single rooms have the cooking range without the gas stove, but a gas pipe is fixed so that the tenant may easily make his own arrangements for cooking by gas if he so desires. Every tenement, too, is provided with cupboards, meat safe, coal bunker, and gas fittings. On the top floor of each block there is a commodious laundry and drying room.

The rents charged for the new dwellings are: for one room, 2s. 9d. per week; for two rooms, 5s. 3d. per week; for three rooms, 6s. 6d. per week. But these various sums do not include the rates, which will have to be paid by the tenants themselves; and thereby hangs a tale of considerable public interest. Till quite recently the owners of blocks of workmen's dwellings in London paid the rates in a lump sum, charging them to the tenants in the rents and being allowed, as a rule, from 20 to 25 per cent. off for the trouble and cost they saved to the authorities. Thus at Blackfriars Road the Peabody Trust, a few years ago, had a discount of 25 per cent., empty rooms being paid for as well as those that were occupied. This allowance was afterwards reduced to 15 per cent., and the governors submitted; but they declined to accept a further reduction to 12½ per cent. The desire of the local authorities in the country generally to make the rates as productive as possible is only natural in view of the steady increase of local expenditure; but the attitude taken in Southwark and in the other districts concerned by owners of block dwellings was that, owing to the increased cost of building and the decreased margin for making any profit at all, short of an undesirable increase in the rents, they could not agree to any further reduction of the compounding allowance. How the position of affairs was effected by the greater cost of building construction, owing to the larger sums paid for wages and materials, can be well illustrated by the case of certain of the Peabody buildings. The Whitecross Street dwellings, opened in 1883, cost £187 per tenement, or £84 per room; the Stamford Street dwellings (new), opened in 1889, cost £226 per tenement, or £119 per room, while the Herne Hill group, just completed, have cost £290 per tenement, or £138 per room. From a purely business standpoint, perhaps, this increased cost of

construction should have been met by the imposition of higher rents; but the Peabody Fund governors have been reluctant to adopt this course; and so it comes about that, while at the end of last year they had provided for the artisan and labouring poor of London 11,439 rooms, besides bath-rooms, laundries, etc., and were lodging a total population of over 19,000 persons, their profit for the year was only 2·44 per cent., this being the lowest on record. The return for 1900 was 2·80 per cent. That a certain profit should be secured from the working of the fund is an undeniable obligation on the governors, for in the second trust deed, that of 1869, it is stated:—

"The operation of the fund is intended to be progressive in its usefulness. It will act more powerfully in future generations than in the present. It is intended to endure for ever; and it is the ardent hope and trust of the said George Peabody that within a century the annual receipts from rents for buildings of the improved class hereby authorised may present such a return that there may not be a poor labouring man in London of good character who could not obtain comfortable and healthful lodgings for himself and his family at a cost within his means."

In view of the increased cost of construction and the steady advance in local rates, and seeing that the "return" from which the founder had expected so much was falling so low, the governors of the Peabody Fund found themselves in a position sufficiently serious even without any reduction of the allowance made to them for compounding the rates. In this connection one may recall the fact that thirty-seven years ago the Peabody trustees (as they were then called) said in their first Report:—

"The trustees cannot conclude this sketch of their proceedings without expressing their regret on discovering one obstacle to their usefulness interposed by the large amounts levied on their buildings for poor rate, inhabited house duty, income-tax, and general assessments for sewers and drainage. Looking to the fact that the fund they administer operates to the repression of the rates for the poor in proportion to the number whom it saves from becoming chargeable to the public, it seems to present a reasonable ground for exemption; but as the levy is made conformably to law, they are content to express a hope that the legislature may be induced to take the subject into consideration with a view to the early application of a remedy."

In 1865, when these remarks were made, the proportionate burden of rates and taxes was far less heavy than it is at present. Since that date the legislature has granted to the owners of charitable dwellings for artisans, such as those of the Peabody Fund, a complete exemption from the income-tax; and it has conceded an exemption from the inhabited house duty in the case of all artisans' dwellings the rental of which does not exceed 7s. 6d. per week. But notwithstanding these concessions by the State, the increased cost of building construction and repairs and the increased burden of the local rates have combined to bring about a much more serious position than that complained of in 1865. No further proposal for the purchase of land can at present be entertained by the Peabody governors; and, if rents should be raised to meet the greater expenditure, the difficulty of housing "the poorer poor" will become still more acute. While, too, as already shown, a certain amount of relief has been obtained from the Imperial Government, there has been little or none from the local authorities. On the contrary, not only has there been a substantial increase in the rates themselves, so that the gross rates on the whole estate of the Peabody Trust now amount to over £12,000 a year, but, as is illustrated by the reduction of the compounding allowances in various parishes, local authorities have sought to get out of artisans' dwellings every penny they could extract. They have also, through their by-laws or their officials, imposed refinements of building regulations and of sanitary conditions which have tended to make the buildings much more costly to erect than they ought to be if the rents are to be kept low; while the local authorities often handicap more or less the efforts of the various trusts, funds, or companies by themselves

APPENDIX No. XXXIII (A).—*Continued.*

erecting municipal dwellings, which, however, cost more to build than those put up by private enterprise, and cannot be let at the same rents. The following table—based on the calculation that the rates are in each case

included in the rents—is especially instructive as showing the comparative weekly rentals and the comparative areas of rooms in trust dwellings and municipal dwellings respectively :—

	Areas in square feet.		Weekly rents.		
	Living rooms.	Bedrooms.	One room.	Two rooms.	Three rooms.
Peabody Trust :—Herne Hill ...	153 to 180	117 to 132	2s. 6d.	6s.	7s. 6d.
Stamford Street (new) ...	152 to 177	114 to 125	3s.	5s.	6s. 6d.
Guinness Trust (latest) ...	140 to 150	100 to 126	2s. 10½d.	4s. 9d.	5s. 9d.
L.C.C. (latest)... ..	154	97½	5s.	6s. 6d. to 7s.	8s. to 9s.

The action of the Southwark Borough Council in reducing the compounding allowances from 15 to 12½ per cent. led to a revolt on the part of owners alike of block-dwellings and of small-house property, and they decided to leave the council to collect the rates direct from the tenants. This policy had, in fact, already been decided on in the case of the Peabody buildings in Islington, where the borough council had declined to allow more than 10 per cent. The Peabody governors reduced the rents of their tenants by the amount, as near as possible, that the latter would have to pay to the rate collector; but, as the tenants had to pay in full, they paid a little more than the governors had done under the operation of the 15 per cent. reduction which had been allowed to them for compounding. Thus in the case of the Blackfriars Road buildings the 15 per cent. made a difference of £2 3s. 11d. per week, which has now to be made up jointly by 367 tenants. The new arrangement was regarded with much disfavour by the tenants, many of whom strongly objected to the idea of having to put by so much a week for the rate collector when he called at the end of the quarter, and declared that they would rather go back to the old system even if they paid more. In the case, too, of certain properties belonging to private owners there were complaints that the rents had not been reduced in anything like a fair proportion to the amount of the rates to be paid by the tenants, and that the landlords in question were working the new system to their own advantage. So strong was the feeling excited on the matter that it led to the formation in Southwark of a "Tenants' Protection League."

But, however distasteful the change was to the tenants, the results must have been much more unpleasant for the local authorities. In the case of the Peabody buildings in the borough of Southwark, for instance, the rate collectors have now to call at over 600 tenements once a quarter (without counting the clerical and other work involved) to collect the rates from that number of occupants, instead of merely receiving a cheque from the governors of the fund for the full amount due. This in itself means increased cost of collection, as well as the additional trouble involved, while losses are sustained besides, as many of the tenants are getting into the habit of moving out just before quarter day without leaving their new address behind them for the rate collector. Even when they do not disappear in this fashion a goodly number get behind in their payments, and summonses for the non-payment of rates have been issued by the thousand. Theoretically, the increased cost of collecting the rates should have been more than met by the fact that the 15 per cent. off was no longer allowed by the local authorities; but it is believed that practically the result has been very different.

In all these circumstances it is not surprising that the Southwark Borough Council should have offered to revert to the former system of allowing the landlords 15 per cent. if they will compound for the rates, "empties" to be paid for in addition to the tenements that are occupied. By this time, however, the occupants of the Peabody Buildings affected by the new arrangements had been required to sign agreements by which they undertook to pay the rates to the local authorities, and not to deduct the amount from the rent. Certain owners who had not made such agreements with their tenants found themselves in a dilemma, and accepted the offer of the authorities. But, after all the trouble gone to in

the making of special agreements with so many tenants, and in view of the further trouble involved in reverting to the former system, and, more especially, in view of the present financial position of artisans' dwellings, the Peabody Trust has resolved to decline the offer, unless, in addition to the 15 per cent., an allowance is also made to them for empties, as contemplated by the Assessed Rates Act. This allowance would be equal to probably another 2½ per cent.; and the governors say, in effect, that in existing circumstances this is the least they can accept. The Southwark authorities have not seen their way to accept the terms suggested; and consequently the tenants are being left to pay their own rates—a fact which they will lament all the more, inasmuch as the local rates have just been increased from 6s. 4d. to 7s. in the £. In Bermondsey, where the rates are being raised from 8s. 8d. to 9s. 4d. in the £, the Peabody tenants will be required, after the present quarter, to sign agreements undertaking to settle with the rate collector themselves. In Westminster, where the Peabody Trust have six groups of buildings, accommodating 1,836 tenants, the rates are going up 4½d. in the £; and there, again, the Peabody governors will require their tenants to pay the rates, the rents being in each case reduced on the principle already stated. It may be added that, if the local authorities should take legal action to compel the landlords concerned to compound for the rates, they would have to concede the same conditions as those now asked for by the Trust, which therefore claims that it is acting strictly within its legal rights as well as in accordance with the necessities of its position.

Meanwhile, the same policy of leaving the tenants to pay the rates, and making them sign agreements undertaking so to do, is being followed in the case of the Herne Hill dwellings, inasmuch as the Trust was not satisfied with the arrangements proposed by the Lambeth Borough Council. It is hoped in some quarters that the policy in question will be persisted in, and that it may even become general, at least for a time, because of the objection it would give to the working-class community as to the nature of rates and the way they are being constantly increased by local authorities—too often because of the provision by them of all sorts of municipal luxuries in the special interests of the "people," or because of adventure into all kinds of municipal trading. The inconvenience which may be caused to individuals is regretted; but it is argued that where the rates are paid through the rents, the working classes fail to realise the true bearing of local expenditure, while, if a landlord should increase the rents to cover the increased demands, it is he who gets the discredit, and there is a disposition to think he is putting more money in his own pocket although he may be doing no more than protecting himself against loss. Apart, therefore, from any question as to the precise nature of the allowances that should be made for compounding, there is an idea that it would serve a useful purpose to allow artisan voters, who are too often so ready to support all kinds of "progressive" schemes, regardless of cost, to settle direct with the rate collector, and so learn more clearly what the bearing of increased and still increasing local taxation really means.

In regard to their Noel Park estate, at Wood-green, N., occupied by 1,400 cottage tenants, the Artizans', Labourers' and General Dwellings Company (Limited), who had already increased the rents 1s. a week on account

APPENDIX No. XXXIII (A).—*Continued.*

of the heavy rates, have received notification from the local board of the district that the compounding allowance which they hitherto made would not be continued, and that the company must pay the full rating. The company have replied to this by leaving the tenants to pay the rates themselves, the rents being reduced proportionately. In announcing this fact at the last meeting of the company, Sir Richard Farrant said:—

“I do not think that the company will be injured by the change, but I am sorry to say that some of the tenants will a little, because the new rate, without the compounding allowance, will be a little more than the rate which has been payable in the past. On the other hand, it will have this advantage. The tenants on our estate have hitherto paid their rent to our rent collector, and have never seen any tax collector. The consequence is that they have ceased to take any interest whatever in public affairs. They do not care who represents them, what the rates are, or anything at all about the details of local administration. I think the result at Noel Park of the tenants’ being called upon to pay their rates will be to make them keenly alive to the necessity of economy and of choosing the right representatives.”

Another speaker, Mr. F. Ashmead, a director of the Victoria Dwellings Association (which also is making its tenants pay the rates), said he had been closely connected with parish affairs, and had seen how the votes were given in favour of tradesmen or employers who might benefit the people by giving them an increase of wages. “They do not,” he added, “think in the slightest degree about the increase in the rates and taxes.” Still another speaker, the Rev. Sidney Bott, said:—

“It is essential that the people should feel the effect of rates. Here you have large estates, consisting of 2,000 or 3,000 tenants, who are entirely unaffected by a change in the rates. It is true that they have felt it just now in this rise, but practically they only feel it by their rents being raised. Therefore, I think we must not be too slow in trying to get rid of compounding. A man must be led personally to feel the pinch of increased rates. He will feel then a greater interest in municipal work, and he will be able to look upon it, not simply as a matter of what is desirable to spend, but how it should be spent in the best way.”

It may be added that at Marylebone, where there are very large blocks of artisans’ dwellings, the local authorities are reducing the compounding from 20 to 15 per cent.

APPENDIX No. XXXIII (B).

Handed in by Mr. F. B. Crouch, Secretary to the Peabody Donation Fund.

PEABODY DONATION FUND.

THE SECRETARY’S ADDITIONAL MEMORANDUM REGARDING ASSESSMENTS UPON LOW-RENTED DWELLINGS, AND THE DIRECT PAYMENT OF RATES BY OCCUPIERS.

The assessments on all Metropolitan dwellings are based on Section 4 of the Valuation Act, 1869, reading as follows:—

“(1) The term ‘gross value’ means the annual rent which a tenant might reasonably be expected, taking one year with another, to pay for an hereditament, if the tenant undertook to pay all usual tenant’s rates and taxes and tithe commutation charge, if any, and if the landlord undertook to bear the cost of the repairs and insurance, and the other expenses, if any, necessary to maintain the hereditament in a state to command that rent.

(2) The term ‘rateable value’ means the gross value after deducting therefrom the probable annual average cost of the repairs, insurance, and other expenses aforesaid.”

Roughly interpreted, the gross value is taken to be the annual rent, presumably at ‘market value’ excluding the gross annual rates; the rateable value being ascertained by deducting from the gross value all the other annual expenses, namely, repairs, insurance and sundries.

Schedule 3 of the Act, p. 28, provides various examples of hereditaments with the deductions that may be allowed from the gross in order to arrive at the rateable values.

Having for a basis these two definitions, together with the schedule just referred to, most of the London local authorities have agreed upon a scale of uniform assessments, the latest of which is contained in a pamphlet issued by the London County Council, entitled “Assessment Conference, 1904,” the assessments on the total weekly charges, *i.e.*, rent including rates, appearing under a heading styled “Table A” (p. 4).

I will now take, in illustration, the actual case of a widow, residing by herself in a one-room tenement under my governors. She is seventy-two years old, and has lived in the buildings for sixteen years, during which time she has never been in arrear of rent. Her income amounts

to the pitiful sum of 6s. a week, allowed her by her sons, with an occasional 6d. from time to time when she looks after their children, who live away from the buildings. She resides in one of the estates where the governors pay the whole of the rates each quarter to the local authorities under a compounding commission, and receive through the superintendent the apportionments of the rates, less the compounding allowance, each week from the tenants with their rents, according to the number of rooms in the tenement. These apportionments are kept separate both in the rent receipts and in the statements issued to the superintendent for the general information of the tenants.

This widow’s weekly *fixed* rent is 2s. and her present apportionment of rates 4d., making a total charge of 2s. 4d. a week. Were she not allowed her share of the compounding commission she would have to pay on her actual assessment 6d. a week in respect of her rates, making the total charge 2s. 6d. instead of 2s. 4d.

The factors at the very outset creep in that militate greatly against a favourable assessment of the widow’s one-room tenement. In the first place, Table A commencing with a total weekly charge of 1s. does not thenceforward supply the assessment of any subsequent charge, under an advance of 6d. This is to say that assessments are only provided for total weekly charges of 1s., 1s. 6d., 2s., 2s. 6d., etc., etc., all including rates. Secondly, any fractional part of a pound sterling in the gross and rateable values is ignored.

Then, in a more hidden fashion, come the wildly irregular allowances in respect of “contingency” balances, a matter briefly touched upon in Footnote 1 (next page of this Memorandum) explaining the methods of assessment, from which “contingency” benefit the widow’s tenement is entirely excluded.

To complete the tale of grievances against the demands of the local authorities, they furthermore wholly exclude her from any benefit in respect of the mysterious word “service,” as explained in Footnote 2, which favour

APPENDIX No. XXXIII (B).—Continued.

is lavishly allowed in the case of residents of better-class "flats."

There is yet another complaint regarding the onerous assessment of this poverty-stricken woman's tenement, which lies at the door of the legislature itself. I refer to the allowance in respect of the deduction from the gross assessment of a tenement in order to arrive at the rateable value. For reasons mentioned in Footnote 2 (*see below*) the whole of the annual cost of repairs, insurance and sundries were intended to be allowed for, whereas by the actual interpretation of the Act by various decisions of the Hight Court, the utterly inadequate maximum of 25 per cent. only can be granted.

I will now place side by side :—

- (a) The present method of calculating the gross and rateable values of the widow's tenement, in which case the 2s. 6d. assessments are adopted as being the nearest provided in the table to the total weekly charge of 2s. 4d.
- (b) A more precise approximation based upon the original intentions of the legislature, as well as upon a favourable disposition on the part of the local authorities—a frame of mind that for many years past appears to have been almost non-existent.

(a) Present method.				(b) More reasonable method.			
Rates being taken at 6s. 6d. in the £.							
52 weeks at 2s. 6d.	-	-	£ s. d. 6 10 0	52 weeks at 2s. 4d.	-	-	£ s. d. 6 1 4
<i>Less.</i>				<i>Less.</i>			
Rates at 6s. 6d. on £4	-	1 6 0		Rates at 6s. 6d. on £2	-	0 13 0	
Water rate at 5 per cent. on £4	-	0 4 0		Water rate at 5 per cent. on £2	-	0 2 0	
		-----	1 10 0			-----	0 15 0
			5 0 0				5 6 4
Contingency Balance	-		Nil.	Contingency balance (15·4 per cent.)	-	-	0 16 4
			(<i>see</i>				
Gross Value	-	-	5 0 0 foot- note 1)	Gross value	-	-	4 10 0
Deduction of 20 per cent. only in lieu of 25 per cent. maximum	-		1 0 0 (<i>see</i> foot- note 2)	Caretaking and lighting at 3d. a week	-	0 13 0	
				Repairs, insurance, and sundries (£18,845, 12,328 rooms)	-	1 10 7 2 3 7	
				Rateable Value	-	-	2 6 5
				Say £2 0 0			
				or £2 10 0 (excessive)			
Rateable value	-	-	4 0 0				

It would thus appear that the demand for rates upon this poor widow's one-room tenement is twice, or nearly twice, as much as it ought to be. In other words, were she responsible for her rates direct to the local authorities, the poundage since the last quinquennial valuation having increased from 6s. 6d. to 7s., she would have to pay 28s. a year (£4 at 7s.) instead of 14s. (£2 at 7s.), or at the most 17s. 6d. (£2 10s. at 7s.). To contend that a saving of 14s. a year is an insignificant trifle to a woman whose income is 6s. a week would be ridiculous.

So far, then, from the local authorities coming to the widow's assistance by relieving her, either wholly or in part, from what, strictly speaking, might be considered the proportionate amount of her liability in respect the rates, she is forced to drudge for the community by bearing a double burden upon her back.

I may here remark that the Imperial authorities many years ago exempted the Trust from the payment of income-tax and inhabited house duty.

Footnote 1.—This "contingency balance" is supposed to represent an allowance on account of the value of an *annual* rent being less than the sum of the fifty-two weekly rents, the additional weekly expenses being taken into consideration. Its principal use is to reduce the assessment to a round number of pounds sterling in the gross value. To quote the words at the bottom of the "contingency balance" table (pp. 24 and 25 of the London County Council pamphlet, "Assessment Conference, 1904"), the result is "to show great irregularity in the proportion of contingency balance allowed in the scale, especially in respect of the low-rented properties." Nothing at all is allowed by the authorities on the widow's tenement, whereas 16·7 per cent. is deducted from a 3s. weekly charge, and elsewhere in the table appears a deduction of 20·9 per cent.

Considering that preference is given to the poorest applicants in the case of the Peabody Trust, and not to those who can better afford to pay their rents regularly, one might have supposed that the "contingency balance" in the present instance ought to have shown as high a percentage as any in the table.

Footnote 2.—The local authorities in some instances, but nowhere in the case of the Peabody Trust, allow a deduction of from 3d. to 6d. a week per tenement to be made in order to arrive either at the gross or rateable value. This charge is in respect of "the expense of caretaker, dust-removal, cleaning, lighting and watching the common staircase and yard of the artisans' dwellings" (p. 21, "Assessment Confer-

ence, 1904"), a service contributing in a great degree towards the relief of the rates. Deductions for this purpose of "service" are freely allowed in the case of "flats"—not so, however, as regards the widow's assessment.

The remaining expenses actually incurred in the case of the Peabody Trust, namely, repairs, insurance, and sundries, accord with those contained in the definition of "rateable value" in the Act. Together with the charge for "service" they amount to £2 3s. 7d., or 48·4 per cent. of the gross value of my approximation (£4 10s.). I may here remark that the expenses incurred by the Peabody Trust are necessarily much higher in proportion to the rents than is the case in regard to any commercial undertaking, partly on account of the lower rentals themselves, and partly because of the excellent state of repair, sanitary and otherwise, in which the governors feel bound to keep the buildings.

All that is actually allowed off the gross value of £5 shown by the local authorities is 20 per cent., or £1. Very briefly explained, the reason of so inadequate an allowance being made in the case of blocks of artisans' dwellings lies in the adverse interpretation of the law by various decisions of the High Court. It might well have been imagined and, doubtless, the legislature intended that block buildings would have come under the definition of "*houses or buildings let out in separate tenements*" appearing at the end of the third schedule of the Valuation Act, in which case the whole of the expenses might have been deducted from the gross in order to arrive at the rateable value.

APPENDIX No. XXXIII. (B).—Continued.

In view of the fact, moreover, that every man earning under £160 a year is entirely exempt from the payment of income-tax, it is most difficult to understand why, as regards the rates, the veriest pauper, so long as he is not actually in the workhouse, should be called upon to contribute very much more than his full share.

In order to contrast the present oppressive assessments on low rentals with those on a more reasonable basis, I beg to append a short illustrative table worked out in accordance with the method (b) of calculating the annual

values of the tenement under consideration, commencing with a total weekly charge (rent and rates) of 1s., with regular increments of 3d., instead of 6d., up to 2s. 6d., and taking into account even amounts of 10s.—not pounds sterling merely—in the gross and rateable values. The expenses of the widow's one-room tenement, £2 3s. 7d. are graduated from £1 in the case of the 1s. weekly charge up to £2 10s. in respect of the 2s. 6d. tenement. On the right side of the table appear the present assessments as shown in Table A of the Conference Book, rates being at 7s. in the £.

Total weekly charge (rent and rates).	Total amount per annum.	Reasonable basis.		Present basis (Table A).	
		Gross value.	Rateable value.	Gross value.	Rateable value.
s. d.	£ s. d.	£	£	£	£
1 0	2 12 0	2	1	2	2
1 3	3 5 0	2½	1½	—	—
1 6	3 18 0	3	1½	3	3
1 9	4 11 0	3½	2	—	—
2 0	5 4 0	4	2	4	3
2 3	5 17 0	4½	2 to 2½	—	—
2 6	6 10 0	5	2½	5	4

The "contingency balances" made use of in the calculations of the corrected assessments are moderate compared with many of the percentages shown in the table appearing on p. 24 of the Conference Book, and only vary from 5·6 per cent. up to 11 per cent.

It might be imagined that the assessments shown under "Table A" of the Conference Book are already so onerous in themselves that a further increase would have been out of the question. The action of certain borough councils at the last quinquennial valuation in dealing afresh with the rents of those of the Peabody tenants who were paying their rates quarterly to the rate collector shows

to what further lengths the local authorities can go in their endeavours to get out of artisans' dwellings every penny they can extract. They simply placed the tenants in the same category as that of quarterly or yearly householders, and arrived at the annual gross values of the weekly rentals by multiplying the latter by fifty-two, without any deduction whatever.

The following example: (1) shows the assessments on a 2s. 3d. weekly rent before the tenant paid his rates direct to the local authorities; and example (2) the assessments afterwards:—

Weekly amount of rent.	Weekly amount of rates.	Total weekly charge.	Gross value.	Rateable value.
s. d.		s. d.		
(1) 2 3	6d.	2 9	£5	£4
(2) 2 3	Tenant paying rates to local authorities.		£6	£5

In this way the authorities actually managed to increase the total previous assessments by over 21 per cent., although, owing mainly to the vigorous action of the tenants themselves, these exorbitant charges were later on reduced by about 10 per cent.

In reference to the direct payment of the rates to the local authorities by the occupiers, it is manifest that, as previously pointed out, an enactment would be required that no landlord be allowed to pay the rates on a tenant's behalf, thus necessitating the repeal of the whole of the Poor Rate Assessment and Collection Act, 1869.

Then if, in place of the system of compounding that at present serves, more or less, towards lightening the burden of the rates upon the poor, a greatly reduced scale of assessments upon low-rented properties were established, the direct payment of the rates by the occupiers would be greatly facilitated, especially if the collections were made monthly instead of quarterly. To do away with compounding allowances without any "*quid pro quo*" in their stead, as certain borough councils have recently attempted, would be, of course, the height of injustice, and nothing less than the imposition of a further drain upon the pockets of the poor for the relief of the community.

I would emphasise the importance of such assessments being based upon actual rents, as otherwise the efforts of philanthropic institutions on behalf of the poor are liable to be penalised if the rents charged are considered to be under "market value." (See definition of "gross value.")

That such a method of rate collection, especially under the favourable conditions just suggested, could be carried out by the local authorities with success and certainly at no very great additional expense to that incurred under the present compounding system is, I think, sufficiently proved by the results shown in the case

of the Peabody Trust. During the period when the majority of the tenants were paying their rates direct the local authorities were not slow in declaring that the cost of collection, together with the loss occasioned by bad debts and vacant tenements, by no means reached the amount of the compounding commission previously allowed. Dealing particularly with the two estates previously referred to in my letter, I would point to the fact that the tenants, 366 in all, have paid their rates direct for over five years and are still so paying them, an experience, to the best of my belief, absolutely unique as regards occupiers of such low-rented dwellings. If, then, in the case of tenants, whose weekly wages only average 20s. for the head of each family, direct quarterly payment of the rates under the present oppressive assessments can be enforced for so long a time at a lower cost to the borough councils than the 15 per cent. compounding commission formerly granted, how much more easily could this direct payment be carried out where wages are higher, assessments are reduced, and monthly, in place of quarterly collections are established. Any extra expense entailed by monthly collections would very possibly be more than counter-balanced in the long run by a healthier influence on the part of the ratepayers in regard to municipal expenditure. These poor people, moreover, would tend to become better citizens, not merely by taking a greater interest in local affairs, but by being made to put by their money for the rates. A great deal of mistaken sentimentality has been indulged in with reference to the hardship involved in "saving up" for the purpose just mentioned, whereas this practice has served, in reality, towards the cultivation of thrift, whilst causing the authorities themselves to show more and more inclination to deal leniently with deserving cases of arrears of rates.

APPENDIX No. XXXIII (C)

Handed in by Mr. F. B. Crouch, Secretary to the Peabody Donation Fund.

PEABODY DONATION FUND

64, Queen Street, E.C.
November 14th, 1907.

INCREASE IN THE RATES.

The rates on the Peabody Buildings, Southwark Street, for the half-year ending March 31st, 1908, amount to 3s. 6d. in the £, or 7s. in the £ for the year, being an increase at the rate of 6d. in the £ per annum upon the amount at present paid in rates by the tenants each week, corresponding yearly to 6s. 6d. in the £ on the assessments less 15 per cent.

The difference of 3d. for the half-year will be collected in three instalments on Mondays, December 9th, 1907, January 6th, and February 3rd, 1908, at the rate of 3d., 6d., 9d., and 1s. on the one, two, three, and four rooms respectively.

On each of these days the additional amount to be paid by you will be.....

As heretofore the tenants derive the benefit of the compounding allowance made to the governors.

Your tenancy can only be continued after Monday, November 25th, on condition that you pay the charge required to meet the amount of the rates in the manner above set forth; and the continuance of your tenancy after November 25th will be treated by the governors as an acceptance on your part of this condition.

F. B. CROUCH,
Secretary.

To.....

No. Block,
Peabody Buildings, Southwark Street, S.E.

APPENDIX No. XXXIII (D).

Handed in by Mr. F. B. Crouch, Secretary to the Peabody Donation Fund.

PEABODY DONATION FUND.

CONCERNING FINSBURY ASSESSMENTS.

Points advocating the lowering of Assessments or the increasing of the compounding allowance.

Present interview is at the request of the Town Clerk and purely in the interests of the tenants, the Peabody Trust not benefitting in any way whatever.

The combined assessments of the Whitecross Street and Clerkenwell Buildings were raised from £7,961 in 1900, to £9,654 in 1905, being equivalent to an increase of over 21 per cent.

Statistics have been forwarded to the Town Clerk with a view of showing the heavy extra expenses borne by the Trust as compared with other housing institutions.

No additional charge beyond the actual rent is paid by the tenants.

The Peabody Trust is not a commercial undertaking. All the profits (about 2½ per cent. per annum) are devoted to the extension of the objects of the Trust, the services of the governors being purely honorary.

Preference is given to applicants of small means, or possessing large families. The average weekly wages of the 5,000 tenants is £1 1s. 10d. Out of this number there are over 1,000 tenants whose wages reach a maximum of 15s. each, many of them being in receipt of 10s. a week only.

The Peabody governors allow the tenants the full amount of the compounding commission granted by the rating authorities. The method of carrying out this arrangement is fully described in the enclosed *pro forma* copy of notice, which is so worded that its accuracy can at any time be readily checked.

This consideration in itself should be sufficient for the local authorities to make an exception in the case of the Peabody Trust of granting an increased compounding commission, no other institution making such an allowance to the tenants.

THE SECRETARY'S SPECIAL REPORT CONCERNING THE FINSBURY ASSESSMENTS. (WHITECROSS STREET AND CLERKENWELL BUILDINGS—1,171 TENEMENTS IN ALL.)

In reference to a return to the system of weekly payment of the rates with their rents on the part of the tenants of the above-mentioned buildings, the governors on December 5th, 1905, approved of the secretary's letter to the representative of the tenants stating that the Trust would be willing to enter into a compounding agreement with the Finsbury Borough Council at 15 per cent., subject to a reduction upon the part of the local authorities to the previous scale of assessments.

The Finsbury town clerk had previously assured the assessment surveyor, who represented the Peabody

Trust, that it was hopeless to expect the council to grant a compounding allowance of 15 per cent. and impossible to reduce assessments when once fixed.

The tenants, however, bestirred themselves, procured the active assistance of their Parliamentary representative, Mr. J. A. Baker, and of the Rev. J. Ash Parsons, with the result that the borough council eventually expressed their willingness to allow a compounding discount of 15 per cent. provided that the Peabody governors paid the rates instead of the tenants.

The secretary of the Peabody Trust was unable to

APPENDIX No. XXXIII. (D).—*Continued.*

accept these terms unless, in addition, a reduction to the previous assessments was granted.

After several interviews with deputations from the tenants, Mr. Baker, M.P., the town clerk and certain of the borough councillors, the secretary and Mr. Langston, the assessment surveyor, yesterday attended a meeting of the valuation committee and agreed, subject to the approval of the governors, to revert to the direct payment of the rates provided the council reduced the present assessments by fully 10 per cent. in addition to the compounding allowance of 15 per cent. already granted.

A copy of the statement dealing with the various points bearing upon the question is enclosed. (Not printed.)

Although the full conditions laid down by the governors are unobtainable, the borough council have met them more than half way, and the concessions made are greater than the secretary originally expected.

The agreement with the valuation committee was arrived at upon the understanding that the secretary would, if possible, obtain forthwith the approval of the governors in order to permit of arrangements being

made whereby the tenants would be relieved of the liability of paying rates direct after September 30th.

For this purpose it will be sufficient if any three of the governors will signify their approval of the provisional agreement within a week's time, the matter to be reported at the next board meeting. The enclosed envelope, addressed to the secretary, contains a form of approval for the governors' separate signatures.

Should the secretary not receive the necessary three forms duly signed by the 21st inst., he will have to intimate to the Finsbury town clerk that the provisional agreement arrived at with the valuation committee must be subject to the approval of the governors at their next board-meeting, and that the tenants must continue paying the rates direct to the council pending the governors' sanction.

Preparations are being made by the secretary for the issue of the formal notices to the tenants regarding the additional weekly rate charges to their rents after the 30th inst., so that no time may be lost in the event of the governors forthwith notifying their approval.

64, Queen Street, E.C.

September 13th, 1906.

APPENDIX No. XXXIV.

REPLIES by MAJOR DANCE (late R.E.), Agent to the Marquess of Northampton, to Questions submitted to him by the Commission.

So far as my experience goes it would appear that tenants of small property, tenements, etc., who do not pay rates take very little interest in Local Government affairs, and the fact that they seldom record their votes in Borough Council elections is proving, I think, my opinion.

On the other hand, I think they are generally found "loud in their expressions of approval" of any extravagant proposals which may appear to give employment to large numbers of hands irrespective of whether or not such undertakings are for the future benefit of the locality.

Answering the questions contained in the leaflet attached to your letter, I beg to state that my experience is:—

Question I.—On the estates with which you are acquainted, does the owner pay the rates on (1) allotments, (2) other tenements of small value, or do the occupiers pay them? Has the Local Authority ordered that the Poor Rate on such property must be paid by the owner?

*Answer I.—*The owners pay the rates of all small property or tenements, although the Local Authorities do not order this method.

Question II.—Is the direct payment of rates by the occupier (a) possible, and (b) desirable? If, in your opinion, it is impossible, would you kindly say on what grounds?

*Answer II.—*The direct payment of rates by the occupiers of such property would, I think, be impossible, as they pay their rents weekly, and unless the

rent collector is careful to demand payment on Saturday or Monday morning it is found difficult to get full payment afterwards, and the fact that they often move from one tenement or small house to another in the course of two or three months, would render the recovery of portions of rates quite impossible.

Question III.—Do variations in the rates affect rents where composition is the rule?

*Answer III.—*As far as these Estates are concerned the variation of rates have not affected the rents except where it is manifest that by oversight the rents have not been adequate or the assessments are considered excessive.

Question IV.—Can you trace any effect of the direct payment of rates by occupiers on the interest they take in local government; and what attitude do the occupiers of small properties take towards local government when they do not pay the rates directly?

*Answer IV.—*I venture to think that the recent changes from Progressives to Moderates in the administration of local affairs, as shown by the late elections in the County of London, indicate that the small ratepayers are finding the pinch of the boot compels them now to take some interest in local affairs and meetings very recently held by these small ratepayers appear proof that they are becoming indignant owing to the fact that the Moderates do not appear to have effected any considerable reduction in local expenditure in spite of their loud promises to do so at the last elections.

APPENDIX No. XXXV.

**REPLIES by Mr. F. HAYWARD FIELD to Questions submitted to him
by the Commission.**

Question I.—On the estates with which you are acquainted, does the owner pay the rates on (1) allotments; (2) other tenements of small value, or do the occupiers pay them? Has the local authority ordered that the poor rate on such property must be paid by the owner?

Answer I.—(a) In the case of allotments let directly to the occupiers, the rates are paid by the landlords. *(b)* With regard to the payment of rates on cottages, it is the uniform custom upon estates with which I am acquainted, where small tenements are let direct by the owners, for the owners to compound and pay the rates; but this arrangement has been a mutual one, and in no case has the Local Authority "ordered that the poor rate must be paid by the owner."

Question II.—Is the direct payment of rates by the occupier (a) possible; and (b) desirable? If, in your opinion it is impossible, would you kindly say on what grounds?

*Answer II.—*The direct payment of the rates by the occupier is possible, but how far desirable is a matter of opinion.

Question III.—Do variations in the rates affect rents where composition is the rule?

*Answer III.—*The variation in the rates does not, as a rule, affect the rents in the case of composition.

Question IV.—Can you trace any effect of the direct payment of rates by occupiers on the interest they take in local government; and what attitude do the occupiers of small properties take towards local government when they do not pay the rates directly?

*Answer IV.—*As a rule, my experience is that the interest taken in local government by most small occupiers is very little affected, whether the rates are paid directly by the tenant, or included in the rent and paid by the landlord, especially in the case of the lettings to agricultural labourers and the purely rural occupiers. With regard to the question generally, I am inclined to think that for the cottager and allotment tenant, the composition may be most convenient, as he then knows exactly what inclusive rent he has to pay, and the set time for payment, whereas, in the event of his paying the rates, no matter how small, he is never certain what the amount may be, or when he will have to meet it.

APPENDIX No. XXXVI.

**REPLIES by Mr. H. L. FIFE, Agent to the Right Hon. Lord Barnard, to questions
submitted to him by the Commission.**

Question I.—On the estates with which you are acquainted, does the owner pay the rates on (1) allotments, (2) other tenements of small value, or do the occupiers pay them? Has the local authority ordered that the Poor Rate on such property must be paid by the owner?

*Answer I.—*On the estates with which I am acquainted the owner does pay rates on allotments, and in the majority of cases, especially in the north of England, does not pay rates on other tenancies of small value.

The local authorities have not ordered that the Poor Rate on such property must be paid by the owners.

Question II.—Is the direct payment of rates by the occupier (a) possible, and (b) desirable? If, in your opinion, it is impossible, would you kindly say on what grounds.

*Answer II.—*The direct payment of rates by the occupiers are :—(a) possible, and (b) in my opinion desirable.

Question III.—Do variations in the rates affect rents where composition is the rule?

*Answer III.—*Variations in the rates where composition is the rule, do not affect rents.

Question IV.—Can you trace any effect of the direct payment of rates by occupiers on the interest they take in local government; and what attitude do the occupiers of small properties take towards local government when they do not pay the rates directly?

*Answer IV.—*I can trace the effect of the direct payment of rates by occupiers in the interest they take in local government.

The attitude taken by occupiers of small properties towards local government where they do not pay the rates directly is very slight.

Generally, the result of my experience is against the advisability of compounding for local rates; and that where this system is in force, occupiers of small properties take even less interest in local government, and are apt to give even more support to extravagant proposals and forms of administration than where this is not the case.

APPENDIX No. XXXVII.

STATEMENT AS TO COMPOUNDING BY MR. ARTHUR MOORE, SECRETARY TO THE IMPROVED INDUSTRIAL DWELLINGS COMPANY, LIMITED.

1. In all the property owned by this company the rates are, or will shortly be, paid by the owner, under Section 3 or Section 4 of the Poor Rate Assessment and Collection Act, 1869.

2. During the past ten years, I have had to deal with the question of the practicability of the direct payment of rates by the tenant in various parts of the Metropolis. The first instance was where the Borough Council of Southwark offered us a compounding allowance less than the 15 per cent. mentioned in the Act, and which my Board declined to accept. The consequence was that the rents were reduced, and agreements entered into by the tenants by which they undertook to pay the rates. The whole of the weekly-property owners in the borough united to resist the reduction, and nearly all of them stood firm in refusing to pay the rates for less than 15 per cent. The Borough Council had very great difficulty in getting the rates from the tenants, and, after endeavouring for twelve months, they were compelled to enter into compounding agreements under Section 3, giving us an allowance of 15 per cent., we paying whether the tenements were occupied or not.

3. The next experience was in the City of Westminster, where the Council endeavoured to induce the owners to accept an allowance of 12½ per cent. This was refused, and, notwithstanding the fact that the class of tenant in Westminster was about as good a class as you could find in London, after six months they made an order on the owners under Section 4, allowing a further 1 per cent., the owner paying whether the premises were occupied or not.

4. Some six years ago the Borough of Islington tried the bold policy of abolishing compounding altogether, and declined to allow any commission, except on the poorest class of property. The result was that the tenants moved out in large numbers rather than pay the rates, and the loss by empties steadily rose at the various buildings until the percentage was from 20 to 36. It being obviously no longer an economical arrangement for anybody concerned, an agreement has been entered into with the Islington Borough Council under Section 3 of the Poor Rate Assessment and Collection Act, with an allowance of 15 per cent. from Lady Day next.

5. It is undoubtedly desirable that the rates should be paid by the occupier, but whether it is possible

or not is a difficult question. I think that before it can be possible it must firstly be universal for all classes of property, and secondly, in the case of weekly or monthly tenants, the rates must be collected weekly or monthly. It is almost impossible for the working man to save up the money for the quarter, and on a weekly tenancy he considers it a great injustice to have to pay rates in advance. Unless the practice is universal the tenant will immediately leave the premises where he has to pay his rates, for a house where he pays one lump sum for all outgoings.

6. Variation in the rate does not immediately affect the tenant where composition is in force, the landlord generally waiting until the rates have increased by an appreciable amount per week before he increases his rent, as it is very awkward and inconvenient, where you have a large amount of property to manage, to break into fractions of threepence in matters of rent collection.

7. So far as weekly tenants are concerned, I do not think that the direct payment of rates has any material effect on the tenants as regards the interest they take in local affairs, unless in force universally. So constantly will they change houses that the majority of the tenants never get a twelve months' qualification, and, therefore, whatever interest they take in local affairs is of little or no consequence, because they have no voice at the polls, and I was informed that the political agents at Islington considered that the tenants of our buildings were practically a negligible quantity.

8. While the direct payment of the rates was in force at Islington a very large number of tenants went on paying their weekly rent until the summonses were issued for rates, when they went away, owing practically a quarter's rates. This was done deliberately with a view to avoid their liabilities, and to my mind it must have had a very bad moral effect on the people.

9. At Islington we are showing upon the rent receipt the proportion of the rent which is appropriated to local rates, and it is possible that this may have the effect of educating the people to a certain extent, although as the amount they pay to us does not increase when the rate goes up a few pence in the £, they do not feel the burden of increased taxation.

APPENDIX No. XXXVIII.

REPLIES by Mr. E. J. MOSTYN, Agent at Arundel to His Grace The Duke of Norfolk, to questions submitted to him by the Commission.

Question I.—On the estates with which you are acquainted does the owner pay the rates on (1) allotments, (2) other tenements of small value, or do the occupiers pay them? Has the Local Authority ordered that the Poor Rate on such property must be paid by the owner?

Answer I.—(1) Owner pays rates on allotments.

(2) Owner generally pays rates on cottages, but in the town of Arundel, as cottages become vacant, the new tenants have to pay rates.

The Local Authority have not put in force section 4, Poor Rate Assessment and Collection Act, 1869, but agreements generally have been entered into with the Local Authority under Section 3.

On small agricultural holdings tenants pay all rates. The cottages on nearly all the large agricul-

tural holdings are let direct to the tenant of the land, who is liable to pay rates on them.

Question II.—Is the direct payment of rates by the occupier (a) possible, and (b) desirable? If, in your opinion, it is impossible, would you kindly say on what grounds?

Answer II.—(a) Yes. (b) Yes.

Question III.—Do variations in the rates affect rents where composition is the rule?

*Answer III.—*No.

Question IV.—Can you trace any effect of the direct payment of rates by occupiers on the interest they take in local government; and what attitude do the occupiers of small properties take towards local government when they do not pay the rates directly?

*Answer IV.—*It is very difficult to trace any effect

APPENDIX No. XXXVIII.—*Continued.*

of the direct payment of rates by occupiers in the interest they take in local government.

The only instance that has come prominently before my notice has been in the town of Arundel. About the year 1895 a large outlay was made by the town council in a new system of drainage and water supply which very materially raised the rating on about 160 cottages in the town owned by His Grace the Duke of Norfolk, and nearly all occupied by artisans and others employed on his estate, and on which the rates were then paid by the occupiers. The Duke of Norfolk, to relieve his cottage tenants

of this large increase in rating, agreed to pay all the rates, but added to the rents the approximate amount of rates paid by occupiers previous to the increased rating coming into force.

Previous to the increased rating coming into force, there was a very flourishing Ratepayers' Association in the town, composed principally of cottage tenants, who took a deep interest in all matters connected with local government. This association has now ceased to exist, and I attribute this, in a great measure, as due to the lack of interest shown by the occupiers of cottages since the rates were paid by owner.

APPENDIX No. XXXIX.

REPLIES by Mr. ROWLAND E. PROTHERO, Agent-in-Chief to his Grace the Duke of Bedford, to Questions submitted to him by the Commission.

1. I forward the following statement as to the Duke of Bedford's estates in London and the country.

2. As to the London estate, the Duke has no tenants of the class to which I imagine the questions refer. His tenants are all persons occupying houses of a certain rental, who always as a matter of practice pay their own rates.

3. As regard the country. The estates are :

- (i.) The Woburn Estates (Beds and Bucks).
- (ii.) The Tavistock Estates (Devon, Cornwall, and Dorset).
- (iii.) The Thorney Estates (Cambridgeshire, Northamptonshire, Huntingdon, and Lincolnshire).

4. The replies from the three Stewards of these estates (Mr. C. P. Hall, Mr. Rundle, and Mr. Forrest) to each of the four questions are given below :—

Question I.—On the estates with which you are acquainted does the owner pay the rates on (1) allotments or (2) other tenements of small value, or do the occupiers pay them? Has the Local Authority ordered that the Poor Rate on such property must be paid by the owner?

I.—Woburn Estates.

Answer I.—(1) The owner pays the rates on all garden allotments. (2) The cottage property is situated in 26 parishes. In 13 parishes the Local Authorities have required the owners to pay the rates; in 13 they have rescinded their order, and the rates are now paid by the occupiers.

II.—Tavistock Estates.

(1) The owner pays the rates on garden allotments. (2) By arrangement with the Local Authorities the rates on cottages are paid by the occupiers. None of the Local Authorities, except one in Cornwall, have ordered these rates to be paid by the owner. Rates on tenement houses (except in one parish) are paid by the owner, as it is difficult to divide the rateable value.

III.—Thorney Estates.

(1) The owner pays the rates upon garden allotments. (2) The occupiers pay on cottages and other tenements. The Local Authority has not ordered the owner to pay.

Question II.—Is the direct payment of rates by the occupier (a) possible and (b) desirable? If, in your opinion, it is impossible, would you kindly say on what grounds?

I.—Woburn Estates.

Answer II.—The payment of rates by the occupier is considered by Mr. Hall to be not only possible, but most desirable. Every occupier of a hereditament, without exception, should be legally liable for the rates. The small loss incurred through removals, and the increased cost of collection, would be compensated for by the saving of the 25 per cent. to 30 per cent. rebate allowed to compounding owners, and by the increased economy which may reasonably be expected to follow the greater interest taken by the occupiers. In urban districts the rates might be collected more frequently to avoid loss from migratory tenants.

II.—Tavistock Estates.

The payment of rates by the occupier appears to Mr. Rundle most desirable, and quite possible, except in the case of garden allotments let at less than 10s. a year.

III.—Thorney Estates.

Mr. Forrest thinks the payment of rates by the occupier of cottage property quite possible.

Question III.—Do variations in the rates affect rents where composition is the rule?

Answer III.—On all three estates the answer is that variations in the rates do not affect rents.

Question IV.—Can you trace any effect of the direct payment of rates by occupiers on the interest they take in local government; and what attitude do the occupiers of small properties take towards local government when they do not pay the rates directly?

I.—Woburn Estates.

Answer IV.—The direct payment of rates in several cases has materially increased the interest taken by the occupiers in local government, especially in the expenditure of all public money. As a rule, in parishes where the occupiers do not pay the rates, no interest is taken in local government.

II.—Tavistock Estates.

Except in a few instances, the rates have been so long paid by the occupiers, that it is difficult to estimate the exact result; but in certain urban districts additional interest in local government is undoubtedly taken by the small occupiers, who pay their own rates.

III.—Thorney Estates.

Little interest is taken in public affairs by small occupiers.

APPENDIX No. XL

REPLIES by MESSRS. RAWLENCE and SQUAREY, Land Agents, Salisbury, and 15, Great George Street, Westminster, to questions submitted to them by the Commission.

Question I.—On the estates with which you are acquainted, does the owner pay the rates on (1) allotments; (2) other tenements of small value, or do the occupiers pay them? Has the local authority ordered that the poor rate on such property must be paid by the owner?

Answer I.—On the estates under our management, and generally on those with which we are acquainted, the rates on allotments and on cottages are invariably paid by the owner, the rates on cottages being compounded for.

It is desirable that we should state that in purely agricultural districts, and in small country towns where the landlord of an adjoining estate is the owner of most of the cottages and allotments, the rents of cottages are invariably very moderate, and bear no commercial relation to the cost of construction. Their rents range from 9d. to 2s. per week, including rates, and generally including good gardens of 10 to 20 perches.

The only repairs undertaken by the occupiers are the renewal of the broken glass in windows.

Where the rates are compounded for, and the repairs carried out by the landlord, it is obvious that the net income is a scarcely appreciable quantity.

We know of instances in which a moiety or other proportion of the actual amount of rates is repaid to the landlord by the tenant, so as to let the latter feel that he is contributing to the local expenditure, and consequently interested in its reasonable application.

The payment of rates on allotments by the landlord is invariable, and the collection would be an undue tax on the patience and ability of the collector.

The gross rent paid by the tenants includes tithe rent charge, rates, land tax, and repairs to gates and fences.

We know of no instance in which the local authority has compelled the owner to compound for rates; but on the other hand we have had a case where the overseers declined to enter into a compounding agreement, and in that case we insisted upon the rates being collected from the occupiers.

Question II.—Is the direct payment of rates by the occupier (a) possible; and (b) desirable? If, in your opinion it is impossible, would you kindly say on what grounds?

Answer II.—We are of opinion that the payment of rates by the occupier of cottages is possible, but inconvenient and disagreeable. In the case of allotments, with their frequent change of occupation, it seems to be undesirable.

As an illustration, a tenant of 20 perches of land pays a rent of 5s. per annum—40s. per acre.

The proportion of rates at 4s. in the £ on a rateable value of, say, 30s. per acre per annum as agricultural land would be 3½d. on 20 perches. This collected twice a year, would give a demand of 1½d. on each allotment, and would be collectable from 20 to 50 tenants, according to the size of the allotment field. The increased cost of collection would probably absorb the whole sum.

Question III.—Do variations in the rates affect rents where composition is the rule?

Answer III.—The variations in amount of rates is too small to affect the gross amount on which the compounding is based.

Question IV.—Can you trace any effect of the direct payment of rates by occupiers on the interest they take in local government; and what attitude do the occupiers of small properties take towards local government when they do not pay the rates directly?

Answer IV.—A few of the more intelligent of the class affected by the compounding system or the direct personal burden of rates when they are paid by the tenant quite appreciate that under ordinary commercial conditions they contribute to the rates in the shape of increased rent, whether under the compound system or otherwise. But the greater number do not trouble themselves in these directions.

The above remarks apply to agricultural districts with which we are concerned, and where the landowners have hitherto shown no desire to deal on the strict commercial conditions which are applied by owners of tenements erected by small capitalists. In these cases the rental of cottages of less durable and comfortable construction, and affording less accommodation, and generally with smaller gardens, is from 70 to 100 per cent. higher than of those of which we have taken cognisance, and we have observed that when the supply of and demand for cottages admits the smaller capitalists will seize the occasion of an increase in the rates to increase the rents, often largely to his advantage.

It is fair to add that the occupants of this type of cottage are of an inferior class, and the landlord suffers largely from losses of rent, dilapidations and voids, tending to a persistent demand for the higher rent to cover his losses.

APPENDIX No. XLI.

REPLIES by Mr. THOMAS WILKINSON, Secretary to the East End Dwellings Company, Ltd., to Questions submitted to him by the Commission.

Question I.—On the estates with which you are acquainted does the owner pay the rates on (1) allotments, (2) other tenements of small value, or do the occupiers pay them? Has the Local Authority ordered that the Poor Rate on such property must be paid by the owner?

Answer I.—With the exception of some recently erected cottages in Bethnal Green the company's estates consist of block buildings in London, and practically all their property is let on weekly tenancies. In all cases the rates are paid by the company, which in most cases has compounding agreements with the local

authorities, who make a fixed rebate in consideration of the rates being paid whether the property is occupied or not. This allowance varies in the different boroughs, but is usually about 15 per cent. of the total rate. In one borough (Islington) where the council refuses to compound deductions for empty tenements have to be adjusted between the company and the rate collector each quarter.

Question II.—Is the direct payment of rates by the occupier (a) possible, and (b) desirable? If, in your opinion, it is impossible, would you kindly say on what grounds?

APPENDIX No. XLI.—*Continued.*

Answer II.—In the opinion of my directors the direct payment of rates in London by weekly tenants, however desirable for the reasons mentioned in your circular, is beset with difficulties which seem practically insuperable. Such tenants find it difficult and irksome to lay by a small sum each week so as to meet the demand of the rate collector once a quarter. In this connection I may mention that when the company's dwellings in the borough of Islington were first opened the weekly rents were arranged so as to include the rates, but when it was found that the Borough Council would not rate the owners and allow a composition this system was altered, and the weekly payments to the company reduced, while the local authority was left to collect the rates direct from the occupiers. This system was continued for some months, but proved very unpopular with the tenants, many of whom left the buildings in consequence; while applicants refused to take rooms in the buildings unless the rates were included in the weekly rent. In the end the directors felt compelled to revert to the original plan of including the rates in the rent.

This plan saves trouble and expense to the collecting authority, is much more acceptable to the tenants, and on the whole more convenient to the owner, and the question is whether these considerations do or do not outweigh the possible advantage to be derived from insisting on direct payment of rates by the occupiers,

and so making them less careless as regards increase of rates. In any case, if direct payment of rates is to be resumed, it should, in the opinion of my directors, be made compulsory by statute, so that no landlord should be able to take advantage of others by undertaking to include the rates in the weekly payment. They think also that if the change were made, more frequent collection of the rate would be found to be necessary.

Question III.—Do variations in the rates affect rents where composition is the rule?

Answer III.—Variations in the rates do not automatically affect the weekly payments where composition is the rule, but as the rates increase owners, undoubtedly, from time to time endeavour to raise the rents. Whether they succeed in this or not depends a good deal on the intensity of the demand for accommodation in the district where the houses are situated.

Question IV.—Can you trace any effect of the direct payment of rates by occupiers on the interest they take in local government; and what attitude do the occupiers of small properties take towards local government when they do not pay the rates directly?

Answer IV.—The company has no evidence to offer on this point.

APPENDIX No. XLII.

REPLIES by Mr. J. M. WOOD, Agent to the Earl of Leicester, to Questions submitted to him by the Commission.

Question I.—On the estates with which you are acquainted, does the owner pay the rates on (1) allotments, (2) other tenements of small value, or do the occupiers pay them? Has the local authority ordered that the poor rate on such property must be paid by the owner?

Answer I.—(1) The owners do not pay rates on allotments. (2) The owners pay on all tenements of under £8 rateable value, and the local authorities have ordered that the owners shall pay on all of under £8 rateable value.

Question II.—Is the direct payment of rates by the occupier (a) possible and (b) desirable? If, in your opinion, it is impossible, would you kindly say on what grounds?

Answer II.—(a) The payment of rates by occupiers is possible, (b) and desirable, though the collection would be difficult.

Question III.—Do variations in the rates affect rents where composition is the rule?

Answer III.—Variations in rates do not affect rents.

Question IV.—Can you trace any effect of the direct payment of rates by occupiers on the interest they take in local government; and what attitude do the occupiers of small properties take towards local government when they do not pay the rates directly?

Answer IV.—In my experience the Parish Councils in most agricultural districts are very largely composed of non-ratepayers, whose actions are not always controlled by that proper sense of responsibility to those who are affected. Further, the large ratepayers, by being often in the minority, lose interest and cease to act, while the smaller ratepayers do not seem willing to devote their time to attending meetings at the end of a day's work.

As to payment of rates by cottagers and small occupiers of under £8 rateable value, it is very questionable whether the 15 to 30 per cent. usually allowed on composition would cover the additional cost of collection from individuals, the loss on excusals on plea of poverty and default.

In many agricultural villages a proportion of the population is "floating," consequently considerable expense and difficulty would be incurred in tracing individuals who had left the district, and some provision would be necessary for the apportionment of rates to meet weekly tenancies.

PART II.—MEDICAL ASSISTANCE.

APPENDIX No. XLIII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO THE MEDICAL ASSISTANCE OF THE POOR, BY MR. WILLIAM BUTLER, M.B., D.P.H., MEDICAL OFFICER OF HEALTH, WILLESDEN; LATE MEDICAL SUPERINTENDENT ISOLATION HOSPITAL, WILLESDEN; FELLOW OF THE ROYAL SANITARY INSTITUTE AND OF THE SOCIETY OF MEDICAL OFFICERS OF HEALTH; PAST PRESIDENT HOME COUNTIES BRANCH, SOCIETY OF MEDICAL OFFICERS OF HEALTH; PAST PRESIDENT WILLESDEN AND DISTRICT MEDICAL SOCIETY; PREVIOUSLY FOR TEN YEARS ENGAGED IN GENERAL PRACTICE.

1. What I should first like to do is to lay before the Commission some facts bearing upon the question of the proportion of cases of illness unattended by any medical practitioner.

2. While engaged in general practice I formed the opinion that such cases must be numerous, judging from the proportion of cases to which I was called to see for the first time patients who were moribund, in order that I might be in a position to sign their death certificates.

3. The avowed reason for calling in a medical practitioner in many of these cases was that the parents might be saved trouble with the coroner, a contingency more dreaded than the failure through inability to pay the fees of the medical attendant.

4. The number of uncertified deaths is a measure in some degree of the cases of illness allowed to proceed to a fatal termination without medical aid having been sought. But quite obviously these returns can give but small indication of the amount of non-fatal illness which goes untreated.

5. During the last three years I have had an opportunity of investigating this question incidentally in the course of inquiries into cases of communicable disease occurring among scholars attending public elementary
- schools in Willesden. Altogether 8,494 such cases, exclusive of those notified under the Statute, have come to knowledge and been inquired into during this period. The details are set out in the accompanying table, from which it will be observed that of these 8,494 cases, 3,689 were being attended by medical practitioners, leaving 4,805 cases which were found to be untreated. Of all it may be said that it was highly desirable, and of some that it was imperative, that their care should have been undertaken by a medical practitioner.

6. The 56 per cent. of cases unattended by a medical man were for a variety of excuses "left to nature," or made the victims of such experiments in domestic medicine as are illustrated in the use of ink for the cure of ringworm.

7. But practically without exception the cost was the deterrent from seeking skilled advice either because, as in the majority of the cases it could not be afforded, or that the urgency of the need did not appear commensurate with the expense entailed.

8. In order to judge of the serious character of some of the diseases thus left untreated I have shown in one column of the table the number of deaths from the diseases in question occurring in Willesden during the corresponding three years among children under fifteen years of age.
9. TABLE SHOWING THE NUMBER OF CASES INVESTIGATED OF THE RESPECTIVE DISEASES NAMED, THE NUMBER OF THESE CASES ATTENDED BY A MEDICAL PRACTITIONER, AND THE TOTAL NUMBER OF DEATHS OF CHILDREN UNDER FIFTEEN YEARS OF AGE DYING FROM THESE DISEASES DURING THE THREE YEARS ENDING 1906.

Diseases.	No. of Cases.	Cases attended by Medical Practitioner.	Deaths under 15 years of age.	Percentage of cases attended by Medical Practitioner.
Measles - - - - -	2,734	1,417	118	51·7 per cent.
Whooping cough - - - - -	1,629	841	102	51·5 " "
Chicken pox - - - - -	732	359	—	49·0 " "
Mumps - - - - -	848	242	—	28·5 " "
Tuberculosis - - - - -	32	28	155	87·5 " "
Influenza - - - - -	51	23	6	45·0 " "
Ringworm - - - - -	959	364	—	37·9 " "
Ophthalmia - - - - -	140	38	—	27·1 " "
Other diseases - - - - -	1,369	377	—	27·5 " "
	8,494	3,689	381	43·4 " "

10. The 381 deaths do not represent all which should properly be ascribed to these diseases. When measles and whooping cough prevail, deaths from diseases of the respiratory system greatly increase. This is due to the fact that their respiratory complications such as bronchitis and pneumonia are the primary occasion of seeking medical advice—too late to save life or even to diagnose the disease which they complicate.

11. Many of the diseases investigated do not endanger life. Ringworm, scabies, impetigo, ophthalmia are examples. But apart from their contagious character they show for practical purposes no natural tendency to cure. They must be treated if the children are to recover and avoid the loss, it may be, of years of school time. They are, moreover, particularly prevalent among the class of people too poor to afford a private medical atten-
- dant, yet resentful of incurring the social disabilities which attach should they avail themselves of the services of the Poor Law medical officer.

12. Although I am not able to express, as a statistical result, the proportion of other diseases which go untreated, I have no doubt, judging from my experience while engaged in general practice, that a similar proportion would be discovered on investigation. I know that in the later stages of chronic affections such as cancer, phthisis, organic diseases of the nervous system, etc., there is much suffering unrelieved by the skill and care which medicine can afford, because of the resources of the patient having been exhausted during a prolonged and enforced lack of employment and of a deep-rooted repugnance to seek Poor Law relief even of the qualified character of medical attendance.

APPENDIX No. XLIII.—*Continued.*

Cost of medical assistance falls unduly on medical attendant.

13. There is, moreover—I am speaking within my knowledge—an immense amount of gratuitous medical attendance largely charitable, but partly unavoidable, which is a serious draught on the resources of the struggling practitioner. It is a burden which should be borne by the community; it is disabling to the inadequately-paid rank and file of the profession on whom the whole brunt of this work falls.

14. I am of opinion that the existing provision for the medical assistance of the poor is unsatisfactory, whether it take the form of cheap private practice, contract practice by means of competitive clubs or Poor Law medical relief.

15. I have shown how in my district, in spite of all these agencies and of the proximity of the district to the London hospitals, the greater proportion of the diseases I have been able to investigate go without any medical relief whatever.

16. There is one class of disease, however, of which I am able to report satisfactorily—that of the notifiable infectious diseases. None of these coming to knowledge remain untreated, none are permitted to continue a menace to the health of the community. Over 70 per cent. of them are removed to the district council's hospital for infectious diseases and there treated throughout the whole period of infectiousness. The remainder are able and do provide proper medical and nursing attendance and proper accommodation. A certain proportion of cases of notifiable disease do not come to knowledge because no medical man has been consulted at the time of illness. When on occasion these are discovered it is usually alleged that the illness was not very severe and the parents did not want to incur the expense of calling in a doctor for an illness which did not appear dangerous to life, notwithstanding that the question of the possibility of infectiousness might have arisen. Not infrequently a "chemist" has been consulted in such cases; in all they are glad to avail themselves of any provided medical attendance for the purposes of diagnosis. But of course before this could have been offered the disease has been spread and only brought to light as a result. It is obvious that in such cases the unfettered provision of medical assistance would aid largely in preventing the spread of disease. And it is to be noted in this connection that it is just these undiscovered cases which are largely accountable for the continued prevalence of the diseases in question.

17. An experiment has been made during the past twelve months of extending the provision of medical aid made by the local authority to other diseases than those notifiable under the Infectious Diseases Notification Act. Cases of ringworm, impetigo, scabies, and ophthalmia too poor to go to a private practitioner, unwilling to avail themselves of the Poor Law medical service, have been treated as out-patients at the council's isolation hospital. Over 200 such cases were treated during the year—not a large number, but sufficient to show that the bulk of such cases would avail themselves of medical provision made by the local authority. There is a residue, it is right to say, past redemption, whom it would be right to punish if opportunity for treatment were afforded and indifferently declined. The cases are analogous to those of parents who refuse to send their children to school.

18. I can see no reason why this practice should not be extended so as to include all classes of disease, by placing under the administrative control of the local sanitary authority all medical officers at present holding appointments under the boards of guardians.

19. One of the chief objections to the provision for medical assistance of the poor being placed under the control of boards of guardians is, as I have indicated, that it is prohibitive of a large number of people getting necessary medical attendance.

20. There is another—perhaps even more important—objection, and that is that the subtle taint of pauperism is instilled as an immediate result of resort to this form of relief.

21. The Commission probably have before them facts showing that medical relief in a large proportion of cases is antecedent to other forms of pauper relief.

22. It is undesirable that the alternative to permitting disease to proceed without medical assistance should in so large a proportion of cases be a resort to relief which not only stigmatises socially but insidiously undermines character, and by weakening the consciousness of self-reliance paves the way for a degenerate pauperism.

23. No such shock to character is sustained when resort is had to provisions of the nature of a national insurance such as those provided by a local sanitary or educational authority. The Poor Law medical officers (and the Poor Law infirmaries, so far as they are used for patients not otherwise paupers) should, therefore, I am of opinion, be transferred from the Poor Law to the health authority.

24. No statutory disabilities should attach to persons applying for the services of such officers, and I am convinced that with the abolition of the vexatious inquiries of the relieving officer all social disabilities would disappear with the transference.

25. I think it desirable that such medical officers should devote the whole of their time to the duties of the office, that they should be adequately remunerated, and that they should be placed definitely on the staff of the Public Health Departments of the Local Authorities.

26. To a Public Health Service so organised should be entrusted the administration of the Vaccination Acts, the medical attendance during sickness of all who choose to apply, the medical assistance of midwives in those cases of labour where there is a statutory obligation to apply for qualified medical assistance and no statutory provision to pay for it.

27. To such a service also would naturally fall the medical inspection, and where necessary the treatment of scholars attending public elementary schools, a large field of work which there appears good ground for believing will shortly require to be embraced by the local authorities. The co-ordination of the work should rest with the medical officer of health, in whom should be vested the necessary authority. He would under existing conditions be responsible to his council and to the Local Government Board. It hardly needs emphasising that there should be one local and one central authority for all matters relating to the public health. It is obvious that conflict and overlapping of authority can only by this means be avoided.

28. The opinions I have formed are based on my experience both as a medical officer of health and previously as a general practitioner, of the large amount of preventable illness, suffering and economic loss which necessarily exist under the provisions now in vogue. Preventive medicine is inevitably curative also, and I find that my efforts to check the spread of disease are continually thwarted by the fact that at present there are no available agencies which actually undertake the care and cure of existing maladies. Only in the limited field of the notifiable diseases does there exist the machinery capable of dealing with the whole problem.

29. But the notifiable diseases form but a small part, and, owing to the success which has attended the effort, to-day a relatively insignificant part of the whole field of preventable disease and death.

30. Let the methods of which we now have the fruition be applied universally, and there is good prospect of a like shrinkage in the whole field. Diseases spread not alone by infection and contagion. The habits and practices of people are responsible in even greater measure for the continuance of diseases. These cannot be combated by the popular panacea of a bottle of medicine. In this demand for a tangible nostrum lies one of the greatest obstacles to true hygienic progress. The great mass of people will not take the trouble to live the healthy life while they are obsessed with the idea that disease is to be treated only when its grosser results demand medication. It is at this stage only, if at all, that they seek the aid of medicine and then what alone they are willing to pay for, if they do pay, is the specific which they imagine it is within the skill of some doctor or other to supply. While this is the greatest demand made on the services of the medical man, while its legitimate satisfaction is the easiest manner in which to earn and secure fees, and while the fuller exercise of medical knowledge is attended with loss, it is too much to expect that the public will receive the best of which medicine is capable. But such a change as is required is not possible under the existing conditions of medical practice. It is of importance in the interest of the patient and of the public that the practitioner should not depend directly upon the will or the ability of the patient to requite him for his services.

Existing provision by local health authority.

Experimental extension of this provision.

Question of transfer of Poor Law medical officers to local health authority.

APPENDIX No. XLIV.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO THE MEDICAL ASSISTANCE OF THE POOR, BY SIDNEY DAVIES, M.A. (HONOURS), M.D., OXON.; M.R.C.S., ENG.; L.S.A.; D.P.H., CAMBS.; MEDICAL OFFICER OF HEALTH, BOROUGH OF WOOLWICH; FELLOW OF THE SOCIETY OF MEDICAL OFFICERS OF HEALTH, AND ROYAL SANITARY INST.; MEMBER OF BRITISH MEDICAL ASSOCIATION; LATE MEDICAL OFFICER OF WOOLWICH AND PLUMSTEAD COTTAGE HOSPITAL; MEDICAL OFFICER, WEST KENT DISPENSARY; PRINCIPAL MEDICAL OFFICER, EGYPTIAN POLICE; MEDICAL OFFICER OF HEALTH, EZBEKIEH DISTRICT, CAIRO; FORMERLY HOUSE-SURGEON, TRAINING HOSPITAL, TOTTENHAM; RESIDENT CLINICAL ASST., CITY OF LONDON HOSPITAL FOR DISEASES OF THE CHEST, AND EAST LONDON CHILDREN'S HOSPITAL; AUTHOR OF "VENTILATION OF SEWERS," 1894; ANNUAL REPORTS ON HEALTH OF WOOLWICH; "CAUSES OF THE INCREASE OF DIPHTHERIA IN URBAN DISTRICTS" (*BRIT. MED. JOURNAL*); "THE SOURCE OF INFECTION IN TUBERCULOSIS" (*PUBLIC HEALTH*); "AN EPIDEMIC OF ENTERIC FEVER" (*PUBLIC HEALTH*), ETC.; FOR THREE YEARS GUARDIAN OF THE POOR, WOOLWICH UNION, AND CHAIRMAN OF THE WOOLWICH BRANCH, CHARITY ORGANISATION SOCIETY.

I.—EXISTING AGENCIES.

The following are the existing agencies for medically assisting the poor of Woolwich with medicine, advice, or in other ways:—

A.—Sanitary Authority.

(1) *Fever Hospitals of the Metropolitan Asylums Board.*—The operation of these is just the same as in the rest of the County of London, and need not, therefore, be described. During 1906, 78 per cent. of notified scarlet fever cases, 67 per cent. of diphtheria cases, and twenty-eight out of forty-one enteric fever cases were removed to one of these hospitals. In 1905, 81 per cent. scarlet fever, and 80 per cent. diphtheria cases were removed. These institutions would more properly come under Poor Law institutions, but they are so closely connected with the local sanitary authority, and with the working of the Public Health (London) Act that it is difficult to disassociate them from these. It is a curious anomaly that the Metropolitan Asylums Board should be mainly composed of Poor Law guardians, although its principal work is that of assisting the sanitary authority to carry out the Public Health (London) Act. All classes in the borough make use of the fever hospitals, the middle-class less so than the working-class, but it is by no means unusual for the professional and well-to-do classes to send their children to these hospitals.

(2) *Metropolitan Asylums Board Fever Ambulances.*—Nothing need be said as to the use of these for removal to the fever hospitals. As regards their use in other ways, e.g., for removing an infectious case from one house to another, this is very seldom called for in this borough.

(3) *Sanatorium Treatment for Consumption.*—The Council of the Borough of Woolwich alone of the London sanitary authorities has provided sanatorium treatment for cases of phthisis. This has been done by retaining seven beds at Maitland Cottage Sanatorium, Peppard Common, under the powers given by Sec. 75, Public Health (London) Act. The primary object of treatment is the education of consumptives in the open-air treatment and in the means of preventing themselves from being infective to others. Three beds are kept for this purpose, in which the duration of stay is limited to one month. The other four beds, however, are kept for further treatment for a period not exceeding five months, for such patients whose progress gives grounds for thinking that they will be permanently cured by prolonged treatment. The results of treatment have been so far extremely satisfactory. Only such persons are sent to the council's beds at the Peppard Common Sanatorium who are unable to pay the charges of maintenance at a sanatorium.

(4) *A Health Shelter* has been provided according to the requirement of Sec. 60 (4), Public Health (London) Act. It is very rarely required for the purposes of this section as it is almost always possible to disinfect rooms without keeping the occupants out of them during the night. It has, however, been found useful for isolating small-pox contacts.

(5) *The Discovery of the Bacillus of Diphtheria and its*

Treatment by Anti-toxin has led to a certain kind of medical attention and treatment being given by officers of the sanitary authority. Cases are frequently swabbed by the medical officer of health to discover whether they are suffering from diphtheria, or, without having any symptoms, are acting as carriers of the disease. Anti-toxin is also kept in the department for the convenience of medical men, to avoid the delay which would be involved in obtaining it from the usual dealers. The amount spent is usually repaid. On certain occasions, e.g., when the fever hospitals cannot immediately admit cases of diphtheria, the Council has authorised the supply free.

The medical officer of health is frequently called upon by local medical practitioners to help in the diagnosis of diseases which may possibly be of an infectious nature. Further, school teachers not infrequently send or bring children whom they suspect are suffering from infectious disease, and whose parents are unable or unwilling to incur the expense of medical attendance. No doubt also the fact that the medical officer of health administers the agencies for notification, isolation, and disinfection encourages belief that he is a suitable person for diagnosing the existence of infectious disease. The majority of those whose throats are swabbed are children attending the elementary schools in the district.

(6) *Disinfectants* are supplied by the Public Health Department, as provided for in the Public Health (London) Act. These are sometimes used for personal application, e.g., to the throat.

(7) *Two Female Sanitary Inspectors* have been appointed by the Council, one of whom acts as a health visitor and devotes a considerable portion of her time to visiting infants recently born, advising as to the proper mode of feeding them, and as to their care in other ways. The female inspector only goes to the homes of the working-classes, and chooses specially those of the poorer working-classes.

(8) *An Infants' Milk Depot* has been provided under powers given by a special local Act for supplying humanised, sterilised, or pasteurised milk for infants. The milk is supplied to infants under two years of age only, the great majority of those having it being under one year. The charges made vary from 1s. 6d. to 2s. 6d. a week, with 4d. a week for delivery; these have been fixed to closely approximate to the average cost of feeding an infant on cows' milk as supplied by the ordinary dealers. At the present time 120 infants are being fed weekly; a large number of these were in failing health when they began to take the milk. The great majority of the persons using the milk belong to the working classes, and none of them could have afforded the usual charges for humanised milk.

(9) *A Bath for Cleansing Persons infected with vermin* has been provided under the Cleansing of Persons Act. This is situated adjoining the disinfecting station where the clothes of such persons are disinfected. This is used by an average of seven persons a week. The persons using it are chiefly men from the common lodging-houses and children sent by teachers of County Council schools.

APPENDIX No. XLIV.—*Continued.**B.—The Poor Law.*

The Borough of Woolwich consists of three parishes, Woolwich, Plumstead, and Eltham. Woolwich and Plumstead are in the district of the Woolwich Poor Law Union; Eltham in that of Lewisham Union. This divided authority involves obvious inconveniences. The great majority of the poorer classes live in the parishes of Woolwich and Plumstead, and therefore come under Woolwich Union. The Guardians of this Union have in recent years greatly restricted the granting of outdoor relief, and as it has been found that the giving of medical orders often leads to application for other forms of relief, there has been a tendency to restrict, as far as possible, granting such orders. Further reference will be made to this subject under (IV), but it may be here said that my experience shows that as a rule there is very considerable unwillingness on the part of the working-classes to apply for an order for medical treatment on the ground that they lose caste, lose their vote, and become paupers. It is not generally known that by having medical relief the franchise is not lost. It is probable that the relieving officers, in their endeavour to diminish outdoor relief, do not concern themselves to make known the fact that the legislature has drawn this distinction between medical and other forms of relief.

The Woolwich Poor Law Infirmary is a large, well-equipped institution, with two able and devoted medical officers and a well-organised nursing staff. It receives all cases of illness and extreme infirmity from the workhouse and Children's Homes, Goldie Leigh, as well as receiving outdoor relief patients or other persons recommended by Poor Law medical officers. Its utility, however, is not confined to these classes, for frequently persons of all positions in life, who have suffered from accidents or acute illnesses are admitted as an emergency, the medical officer not feeling justified in sending away an urgent case which is brought to the infirmary door.

There is no general hospital within several miles of this institution, and consequently it has for accidents and emergencies taken the place of a voluntary hospital to some extent. A charge for maintenance is recovered from non-pauper patients or their chargeable relatives.

A large number of cases of consumption are also treated within its wards, though, owing to a laudable and instinctive dislike of so-called pauperism on the part of the patients, and owing to the fear of encouraging pauperism on the part of the authorities, many cases are not admitted who require institutional treatment and are unable to get it in any other way. I refer to cases of advanced consumption who cannot be properly isolated at home and are consequently a source of infection to their families.

The Infirmary, as regards nursing, diet, and in other ways probably compares favourably with a general hospital. It does not, however, offer the advantages of a staff of consulting physicians and surgeons; however skilled one or two medical men may be as general practitioners their patients do not recognise that they are getting the best treatment that a staff of experts can afford. It must be allowed that patients who have been treated in it are as a rule much less appreciative of benefits received than those who have been in a general hospital. This may partially be due to the fact that their admission was more or less involuntary, whereas usually with general hospitals the patients enter willingly. The writer, however, cannot resist the conclusion that the Infirmary does not escape to some extent the atmosphere of repression, inelasticity, and lack of sympathetic adaptation to individual requirements which so often characterises the workhouse and other Poor Law institutions.

The poor of the parish of Eltham are treated in the Lewisham Infirmary. My acquaintance with the working of this institution is small but, so far as it goes, what has been said of the Woolwich Infirmary applies to this also.

C.—Voluntary Effort, etc.

The following institutions have been provided by voluntary effort:—

(1) The Cottage Hospital, Woolwich, containing twelve beds supported by voluntary contributions and by a charge of 5s. per inmate per week. The letter system is in force, letters being granted to contributors. There is a staff of one West End consulting surgeon and four visiting medical officers who practise in the borough.

There is no resident medical officer. Owing to its small size, and its situation near the top of Shooters' Hill, this hospital is of very limited utility. No out-patients are seen. Considerable enlargement is contemplated.

(2) Eltham and Mottingham Cottage Hospital.—This hospital contains twenty-two beds, the average number occupied in 1906 being 14.5. A minimum weekly charge of 3s. 6d. for adults and 2s. 6d. for children under ten is made. Patients are admitted on the recommendation of a subscriber, but there are no letters. There is a staff of six honorary medical officers resident in the neighbourhood, and six honorary consulting physicians and surgeons. There is no resident medical officer. The class of persons admitted is generally the working and lower-middle classes. This hospital very well supplies the district of Eltham. Out-patients are not seen habitually.

(3) A small hospital has recently been established within the Royal Arsenal, mainly for the treatment of accidents occurring to Arsenal employees. A few medical cases are also treated. There are twenty beds. The hospital is nursed by Army Nursing Sisters and male orderlies. A charge for subsistence is made, varying according to the conditions of service—some free, some 1s. per day, and others 2s. per day.

(4) There are also the Herbert Hospital, Auxiliary Hospital, and the Military Families Hospital, but as these are exclusively for the use of soldiers and their families it is not necessary to describe them.

(5) A Home for mothers and babies has been established, the first object being the training of midwives. There are twelve beds for confinements. A staff of three certificated midwives and trained nurses lives in the hospital and are assisted by four pupil midwives who have had a year's training in nursing. They also attend women in their own homes and nurse the mother and child during the following week, visiting them at least once daily. In-patients pay 7s. a week, and 5s. is charged for out-patients.

(6) The Provident Dispensary for Woolwich, Plumstead, and Charlton, was founded in 1894 and there are now over 3,000 members, whose payments amounted in 1907 to £678. Membership is limited to persons whose wages do not exceed 30s. or £2 a week, according to the size of the family. There is a staff of thirteen medical men. In 1905 90 per cent. of the expenditure was met by members' payments and the other 10 per cent. by charitable subscriptions. Persons are only admitted as members when they are in good health, and there is no satisfactory provision for treating persons applying when ill if they are not members.

(7) Clubs.—There are in Woolwich, as in other places, numerous medical clubs, some in connection with Friendly Societies and others organised by private medical men. These are mainly confined to men and boys. An attempt was made to start female medical clubs, but in view of the recognised fact that the usual subscriptions for men (3s. to 4s. a year) was totally inadequate, and that medical men had frequently taken such clubs on at an inadequate subscription in the hope of attending the men's families at ordinary fees, the medical men in the district combined to refuse to accept any female medical club unless the subscription was at least 8s. per annum. Probably this amount is not in itself prohibitive but it appears to be so to working women when compared with the usual subscription for men. Consequently very little progress has been made in this direction.

(8) *Woolwich, Plumstead, and Charlton, District Nursing Association.*—This association provides trained nurses for nursing the sick in their own homes. The rule is to nurse every applicant who is unable to afford the usual fees for engaging the whole time of a trained nurse. This probably means that all except the upper and upper-middle classes can avail themselves of the services of a nurse when ill. The staff consists of seven nurses. 812 cases were visited during 1905, and 16,000 visits paid to them. The association does not provide for the nursing of infectious cases, consequently many such cases as measles and whooping-cough can neither be removed to hospital nor receive skilled assistance in their own homes. There is no charge but a very wide basis of small subscriptions.

(9) *Invalid Children's Aid Association.*—This association has, among other objects, that of organising medical assistance for cripple and invalid children. It works

APPENDIX No. XLIV.—*Continued.*

in co-operation with the Voluntary Hospitals, Nursing Association, Provident Dispensary, Children's Country Holiday Fund, medical officer of health, and other institutions, and admirably performs the work it undertakes.

(10) *Non-infectious Ambulance*.—It having been observed by a medical man in the district that persons suffering from accidents and serious illnesses were frequently conveyed to hospital in a cab in such a way as to seriously prejudice their chance of recovery, it occurred to him that a remedy for this state of things would be simply to enable a cab proprietor to use an ambulance instead of a cab whenever a conveyance was asked for for such purpose. Accordingly the amount necessary to provide an ambulance was raised by a few voluntary contributions. The ambulance was put under trustees and lent to a cab-proprietor, who maintains it in good order and lets it out at ordinary cab fares whenever required. This plan has been found to work satisfactorily. The ambulance is used on an average twice a week.

(11) *The Woolwich Branch of the Charity Organisation Society*, organises medical assistance to cases which on enquiry are decided to be of a satisfactory nature. Its object is co-operation and acting as a connecting link between medical and other forms of relief. From the medical point of view it is found of most assistance in organising hospital and convalescent treatment. During 1907 hospital-treatment was arranged for twenty applicants, surgical appliances for thirteen, and convalescent aid for twenty-five.

(12) In addition to the above agencies, which are situated in the Borough, there are the large London hospitals, general and special, and the various convalescent homes and sanatoria in different parts of the country which are used to a large extent by the inhabitants of the Borough. In 1905, there were seventy-three deaths of inhabitants of the Borough in the general and special London hospitals situated outside the Borough. Twenty-five of these occurred in Guy's Hospital. If we allow one death in ten this makes a total of 730 in-patients treated. There are no means of knowing the number of out-patients, but I don't think it would be an exaggerated statement to say they are five times the number of in-patients. These patients are by no means confined to the poor; I have known a retired builder, a retired publican, and indeed persons in most classes of society represented in the Borough, who have gone for treatment to the out-patient department. There is no doubt as to the great extent to which these departments are abused, not only from the financial point of view, but from the medical, which is of more importance. From this Borough it is at least half-an-hour's ride to the nearest large general hospital; and a large proportion of the passengers by train at a certain part of the day consist of hospital out-patients. These patients are sometimes found on reaching the hospital to be suffering from infectious diseases, such as diphtheria, and every year the railway train is suspected to be the source of infection of several cases. Many of these persons are suffering from slight illness which could be easily and much more satisfactorily treated by local medical men. Others, on the other hand, are in such a condition of bodily health that they are unfit to bear the fatigue of the railway journey and the long waiting involved by visiting the out-patient department. I have known cases of consumption whose death was obviously hastened by such visits. If these departments were used as consultation departments, where patients specially recommended by local medical men were sent for an opinion or for special treatment, they would be of the greatest advantage, but it is questionable whether as at present conducted they do not do more harm than good. The Hospital Saturday Fund is, I am informed, taking steps in this direction as far as concerns letters issued by the fund.

II.—ADAPTATION, OVERLAPPING AND CO-OPERATION.

It will be seen from the above enumeration, which is by no means exhaustive, that there are a large number of agencies for the medical assistance of the poor; but although there is much co-operation there are many gaps, and a certain amount of overlapping. The gaps will be referred to under No. 3. Overlapping is most striking with regard to voluntary hospitals and sanatoriums. These splendidly furnished institutions are like so many well-equipped armies attacking a common enemy, but

without any co-ordination. Some parts of the enemy's force consequently are slain two or three times over, or, to put the case as it more often happens, the enemy—disease—which is often invulnerable to the present known remedies, is hit over and over again in one part without being slain, while other parts of his hostile forces receive no attention.

As an instance of an enemy slain twice over the following suffices. A young woman was sent to one of the Council's beds at the Peppard Common Sanatorium and returned after two months on the high road to recovery. She remained at home for a few weeks after discharge and continued to improve in all essential respects. She was well fed, lived in a country district—Eltham—and was under conditions admirably suited to complete her recovery. As, however, she still suffered from some slight symptoms, she took it into her head to go up to one of the London consumption hospitals and was there admitted, the physician of course being unaware of what had been done, and was being done, for her case. She thus occupied a bed, if anything to her own disadvantage, which might have been used with advantage for another patient, solely from the want of co-operation between the hospital and the sanitary authority.

In other instances the invulnerable enemy, disease, is wastefully shot at by independent units of the friendly force. It is notorious that some patients, having been discharged from one institution as incurable, manage to go to one, two, or three more before they finally succumb. They would not be admitted probably if information was obtained of their former treatment.

It is most important that the limited accommodation for consumptive patients in hospitals and sanatoria should be husbanded and only used for the most suitable cases. This can only be done by some system of co-ordination, and there is at present an utter absence of this.

Want of co-operation between the voluntary hospitals and private medical men is notorious and need not further be referred to.

The nurses of the District Nursing Association, as has been stated, attend a very large proportion of the population. To a great extent they have lived down the opposition which all new undertakings undergo. It is still, however, true that many patients who need it do not have the benefit of their attention, partly because they are overlooked, and partly because some medical men neglect to avail themselves of the nurses' services. This is a state of things which will probably be remedied as medical men pay more attention to the hygienic treatment of disease.

The Provident Dispensary makes a special point of securing the co-operation of other voluntary agencies in the treatment of the members, and it is probable that most members sufficiently ill to require a nurse enjoy her services.

III.—INSUFFICIENCY OF MEDICAL PROVISION.

The growth of the use of fever hospitals in the past twenty years is very striking. These were intended first only for persons chargeable to the Poor Law Guardians. When, however, medical officers of health pointed out that infectious cases were equally dangerous to the public whether they were paupers or not, it was found necessary to admit all, independent of status. The cost of maintenance was at first recovered from the patient's friends through the Guardians, but this also deterred persons from entering the hospitals, and consequently they were made free. It was certainly anticipated by medical authorities in former years that the general use of hospital isolation would to a large extent cause the disappearance of scarlet fever and diphtheria. This unfortunately has not been the case. What has occurred, however, is a very considerable fall in the case mortality of these diseases, so that the number of deaths attributed to them are very much fewer than twenty years ago. This satisfactory result may be partially attributed to the increase of hospital isolation. On the other hand there are many medical officers of health who consider that hospital isolation has now gone too far, and that many cases which might with advantage be isolated in their own homes are unnecessarily removed to the hospital. One chief reason of their removal is to avoid the expense of medical treatment at home, for it is a curious anomaly that although medical treatment of infectious diseases may be pro-

APPENDIX No. XLIV.—*Continued.*

vided at the public expense if maintenance in an institution is also provided, there is no free public provision for medical treatment at the patients' own homes, although this would only be a very small expense compared with the cost of maintenance in an institution. Hospital isolation means much longer isolation than home treatment and often the contraction of a secondary infection. It is, therefore, to be regretted that there should be such a premium placed on hospital isolation.

Anti-toxin has been supplied free by some sanitary authorities for use at the patients' homes for the treatment of diphtheria, but it is doubtful whether there is satisfactory legal sanction for this being done, although the results of immediate treatment are so satisfactory, and free provision of anti-toxin the only means of ensuring immediate treatment. Here again it is anomalous if anti-toxin may be supplied at the public expense in an institution but not outside.

It is not among the statutory duties of a medical officer of health to see cases of illness and help in their diagnosis. As he is, however, usually an expert in the diagnosis of infectious disease, and it is essentially important, in order to obtain speedy notification and isolation, he can hardly refuse to perform this duty on request. It is at the same time true that, if called upon to the extent which is perhaps desirable, it would make very large inroads on his time and necessitate considerable medical assistance.

These instances show a want of due co-ordination between home-treatment and institution-treatment in certain diseases. It further happens that on discharge from fever hospitals patients frequently require some medical supervision, mainly for the sake of insuring that they are not still infectious to others. There are no means of providing this at the public expense, and the majority of the inhabitants of this Borough only think of obtaining private advice if the individual patient urgently requires medical treatment for his own sake.

Medical treatment at the commencement of an infectious illness is even of more importance than in its further course, mainly for the purpose of early diagnosis to ensure speedy isolation and proper treatment. As the early symptoms of most infectious diseases are not urgent, working-class people postpone calling in medical assistance for several days unless, and until, the rash—as in scarlet fever and measles—acts as a danger signal. In this way measles is never detected at once, and diphtheria and enteric fever are frequently missed for several days; scarlet fever is also missed if the rash escapes notice as is frequently the case. The results are not usually serious as regards the personal treatment, except in the case of diphtheria, in which disease one day's delay in treatment may make all the difference between recovery and death of the patient. In all the diseases mentioned, failure to obtain medical assistance, and consequently diagnosis of the disease, commonly leads to the spread of infection in the family, with the result that two or three cases occur instead of one.

Consumption or tuberculosis of the lungs, is another disease in which it is particularly important that there should be easy means of obtaining early medical advice and treatment. Owing often to the want of this the disease is allowed to go beyond the possibility of recovery. It must be allowed, however, that medical men frequently, for fear of alarming the patient, do not inform him or his friends that he is suffering from phthisis, even when they detect the disease. And it is also the case that the working-man is commonly in such a position that, even when his disease is early diagnosed and he is informed of it, he is obliged to continue his work, and support his family, and cannot afford to go away to a sanatorium. Blindly, or with his eyes open, he goes on at his work until increasing weakness forces him to give it up. There can be no doubt that if there was easily available medical assistance, which looked on the prevention of disease as its main object, and a relief system which regarded the prevention of destitution as its chief end, most cases of phthisis would be early detected, and proper treatment applied and health restored.

While on the subject of phthisis, another way in which the public health suffers from want of co-operation of the Poor Law may be mentioned. When a working-man has this disease to such an extent as to be unable to work, he commonly becomes destitute and chargeable to the guardians, and is usually admitted to the Poor Law infirmary. It is most desirable that this should be the

case, both for his own sake and to prevent the infection of his family. If, however, his wife becomes ill the family is usually not destitute and she is not chargeable to the guardians. She is, however, often in a worse state than her husband would be; the home is neglected, and the children run a very great risk of being infected by her. The guardians may, and frequently do admit her and recover part of the expense from the husband. Her admission, however, depends to a large extent on the individual bias of the relieving officer, and it frequently occurs that some of the cases which it is most desirable should be removed from their homes are left there.

Veneral Disease.—There is insufficient medical provision for the treatment of syphilis and gonorrhoea and its neglect is a cause of much suffering and incapacity of the individual and his wife, mortality and disease of his offspring. Sick-clubs and provident dispensaries either definitely or by implication exclude treatment of such cases. My experience shews that many deaths of infants attributed to such causes as "wasting" are really due to inherited syphilis.*

The poor mainly suffer, however, from their poverty, either when out of work or from lowness of wages, making them *unable to afford medical assistance*. If they are dishonest they run up a bill with the doctor and never pay it. A large proportion will never be provident and join a provident dispensary unless compelled to do so. Consequently nearly all the cases suffering from loss of work, and the majority of those whose earnings are less than 30s. a week, are usually unable to obtain medical assistance. It is desirable that no-one's health should suffer through these causes, and the legislature not only provided Poor Law medical officers but drew a distinction between the receipt of medical assistance and of ordinary relief, with regard to the franchise. Whatever is the working of the law on the matter there is no doubt that in this district the distinction drawn by the law is not publicly recognised. It is generally supposed that a person who accepts *Poor Law relief loses caste as well as his vote*. In an instance that occurred recently I had the greatest difficulty in persuading a man who had been out of work for twelve months, living with his family in two rooms, and whose personal appearance corresponded with his circumstances, that it would not be beneath his dignity to apply for medical relief. Probably as long as medical relief is only granted on an order obtained from the same officer who with grudging hand gives an order for ordinary relief, the respectable poor will be as unwilling to apply for the former as for the latter. (To such an extent does this feeling prevail that it is a recognised fact that the acceptance of a Poor Law appointment by a medical man to a certain extent prejudices his practice in the public estimation, i.e., the working-classes are afraid of having a doctor who is a Poor Law medical officer lest their neighbours should suspect they are having Poor Law medical relief.) For such persons there is practically no charitable provision in this district. Coroners' inquests are frequently held in which poverty is given as the reason for there having been no medical assistance for the deceased, and the coroner frequently tells the friends of the deceased person that they should have obtained the services of the Poor Law medical officer, but there is no evidence of his advice being followed.

With respect to those who are out of work it is questionable whether the provision of medical assistance would be of much value if other assistance were not also given, and there can be no doubt that much ill-health, especially consumption, is due to the fact that not only medical treatment but means of nutrition are lacking in families whose wage-earner is out of work and unwilling to accept such assistance as the Guardians may offer. A large number of cases of phthisis recently enquired into have been men, or the children of men, who have for many months been out of work, and having no medical assistance.

There is one point which, though not solely concerning the poor, should be provided for in any well-organised medical service. This is *provision for emergency calls*, whether by day or by night. Immediate medical attendance for acute or sudden illnesses is frequently wanted, and considerable delay is experienced before any medical assistance can be obtained, owing to some doctors being out and others being unwilling or unable to attend. In a large town there should be one medical man always on

* There is also insufficient provision for the treatment of women leading an immoral life.

APPENDIX No. XLIV.—*Continued.*

duty at fixed hours to attend to such sudden calls, as is the case in many continental cities. The duty could be arranged by a local medical association to be taken in rotation by medical practitioners; but a payment should be made and a centre organised by the Sanitary Authority. The services would be chiefly required by those unable to pay ordinary fees; the cost should be recovered from those able to pay. Failing volunteers, the duty would fall on the medical officer of the Sanitary Authority referred to further on.

IV.—REMEDIES.

(a) *Causes of illness.*—Before considering the best remedies for the deficiencies in medical assistance of the poor which have been pointed out, it is desirable to summarize what are the causes of illness in the poor. These depend partly upon matters such as housing, unhealthiness of occupations, insufficient wages, insufficiency and irregularity of employment, and inherited or acquired debility or infirmity of mind or body, over which the individual has no control. Of these, insufficiency and irregularity of work, and incompetency for sustained and difficult labour are far-and-away the most important in this borough. It is not within the scope of the present statement to deal with irregularities of employment, but some of the remedies hereafter suggested would certainly diminish incapacity of mind and body. Much illness results from bad habits as regards diet, dirt, and deteriorated atmosphere of houses, and much more from intemperance. Nothing is more difficult than to fix responsibility, but for the most part it may be said that the period of childhood, and the diet, regimen, and habits inculcated in that period, are what mainly determine the individual's future physical well-being. He is not responsible for this period, though his after habits, *e.g.*, intemperance, may be mainly due to the determining influence of early training. Remedial assistance should aim at supplying the deficiencies in the training of this period by friendly advice and by sympathetic health visitors.

(b) *System of General Poor Relief.*—It is necessary also to roughly indicate what the writer considers the ideal which should be aimed at in re-organising general relief. At present, from the point of view of charity and Poor Law, there are various classes of poor, *e.g.* :—

(1) The respectable provident poor who provide for themselves in most circumstances.

(2) The respectable improvident poor who only provide for themselves as long as things go well, and are those who suffer most when things go wrong;

(3) The poor who are not altogether averse or unable to work, but who only support themselves, usually to a limited extent, and otherwise depend on charity or the Poor Law.

(4) Those who will not work unless they are compelled.

The writer's ideal is to divide these into only two classes, those who will work, and those who won't work, and have habits, like drunkenness, which incapacitate them for work. For the latter there should be legislation enabling them to be sent to and detained in some form of labour colony. The former, as far as they require assistance, should be assisted by such agencies as old-age pensions almshouses, and some system, acting on the lines of the Elberfeld system, which would combine outdoor relief with exhaustive but sympathetic enquiry and individual assistance. The number of helpers, partly paid and partly unpaid, should be sufficient to find out immediately need occurred, and legal powers possessed sufficient to deal with it before it became acute. This would be best worked by a distress committee of each borough council, assisted by sub-committees in each ward. In this way workhouses would only be wanted as penal colonies (*i.e.*, educational labour establishments to which inmates were committed for fixed periods), and perhaps be best under the police or a special department of the Home Office; the present Poor Law Children's Homes would come under the Educational Authority, and all medical relief would come under the existing Sanitary Authorities. In view of the fact that the legislature has already recognised that it is to the interest of the country that no obstacle should be put in the way of persons needing medical relief, and that it is to the interest of all to preserve the health of each, there is no reason why the medical relief of paupers should be separately organised from general hygienic and medical

institutions: and there is no reason why, where it was called for, Poor Law infirmaries should not be used as general hospitals, although it would be found probably usually convenient to keep them for the cases which at present mainly occupy them, *viz.*, chronic diseases, infirmities of old age, and incurable phthisis. All these infirmaries, fever hospitals, lunatic asylums, and other similar public institutions should be under a Hospital Committee of the London County Council. This Committee should also have control over the voluntary hospitals, *e.g.*, it should have the power to veto any proposal to build new hospitals or to extend existing hospitals unless certain conditions were complied with; and it would doubtless have the power to send to any voluntary hospital such suitable cases as were recommended by the local distress committee, and to pay the same hospital for them if desired.

Each voluntary hospital might nominate one or more of its governing body to act on the Central Hospitals' Committee, or *vice versa*, the Hospitals' Committee might delegate one of its members to act on the governing body of the voluntary hospital. In either way some step would be taken to the necessary co-ordination between the various Metropolitan hospitals. Where the Central Hospitals' Committee represented that any voluntary hospital was not made proper use of, or was not required for the purpose for which it was used, it should have the power, with the sanction of the Local Government Board, of purchasing such hospital, and using it as a fever hospital, consumption hospital, or other purpose. The Hospitals' Committee would, of course require local committees for every one or more of the various institutions, and would be required to receive into its institutions, as far as possible, all cases sent by the Poor Law Relief Committee, or by the Local Sanitary Authority.

(c) *Unity of Preventive Medicine and Medical Relief.*—

It has been seen that a large amount of medical relief though not under this name, is now given with more or less legal sanction by sanitary authorities. The tendency of recent years is to continually add to the number of infectious diseases, and more and more to recognise that prevention of infection involves a certain amount of medical treatment of individual cases, and on the other hand that ordinary medical treatment is to a great extent useless unless combined with hygienic treatment; *e.g.*, the prevention of the spread of diphtheria often requires medical treatment with anti-toxin; and the prevention of the spread of phthisis requires medical and sanatorium treatment of the individual; and it is useless for any practitioner to attempt to treat infectious and other diseases successfully, if he does not give sufficient consideration to the hygiene of the sick room and the individual habits of the patient. To whatever extent preventive measures and medical treatment are provided at the public expense, they should be recognised as having one object, and being under one control. The control would be the Sanitary Authority, and the object obtaining early information as to illness and putting medical and hygienic assistance within the easy reach of all. The present Poor Law medical officers, or their successors, instead of working under orders from the relieving officers might with advantage work in combination with the Medical Officer of Health, or under his supervision. They might in this way relieve him often of duties which he now has insufficient time to perform, *e.g.*, swabbing throats for the detection of diphtheria, medical consultations in doubtful cases of infectious disease, and seeing children suspected of infectious disease by school teachers and others. They could also attend cases of infectious disease whom the Medical Officer of Health deemed it unnecessary to remove to hospital, but who were unable to pay for medical attendance, and supervise cases discharged from fever hospitals.

(d) *Assistance of Health Visitors and Nurses.*—If the Elberfeld system were developed as I have very briefly indicated, the members of local committees would themselves be visitors, each having a limited number of houses to visit and befriend. They would not, however, generally be skilled health visitors, but if they performed their duties satisfactorily they would, as the friends of every family, receive early intimation of any case of illness. The poor house-occupier would, of course, send direct to the medical officer in any acute illness, but more chronic and apparently slight conditions of ill-health might be first reported to the lay visitor or

APPENDIX No. XLIV.—*Continued.*

discovered by him. These, if they did not need medical attendance at once, would be referred to a paid health visitor who would have had some training in sick-nursing, acting under the Medical Officer of Health, who would advise as to whether a medical man was required, or who might deal with the trouble herself by giving hygienic advice as to diet, cleanliness, etc. If a medical man was required, the service of one of the Sanitary Authority's medical officers would be called in, and the health visitor would in certain cases continue to attend to see if the directions of the medical officer were carried out. The visits of the latter could thus be curtailed. If, however, the case was such as required a fully trained nurse she would take the place of the health visitor. In this way much earlier information of infectious disease could be obtained and the disease dealt with. All insanitary conditions would, of course, be referred to, and dealt with, by a sanitary inspector. The system sketched would probably to a large extent prevent unnecessary demands on the time of the medical officer, and if cases occurred where persons who sought and used his services were able to pay for them, the Sanitary Authority should have power to recover the charge for his assistance at law. This would prevent any discouragement to employing

private medical practitioners, and contributing to medical clubs and provident dispensaries. Indeed the system would be perfectly compatible with considerable development of the provident dispensary system, for the visitors, health visitors, and others would impress on persons the necessity of providing for medical assistance, and when they failed to do so, and the services of the Sanitary Authority's medical officer were required, probably a threat to recover the cost would be sufficient to make those who were able to do so join the provident dispensary.

(e) *Indirect Compulsion to obtain Medical Assistance.*—It is in the interest of the community that no-one should neglect to obtain for himself or his family early medical assistance in illness. This end would be helped on if the existing responsibility of householders, under the Notification of Infectious Disease and Public Health (London) Acts, to notify infectious disease, were extended. At present the householder has only to say that he was unaware that the illness was infectious, and he is exempt from the law. It should be provided that the defence of being unaware should only be admitted when the householder had taken proper steps to become aware by calling in a medical man.

APPENDIX No. XLV.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO THE MEDICAL ASSISTANCE OF THE POOR BY MR. G. F. McCLEARY, B.A., M.D., D.P.H., MEDICAL OFFICER OF HEALTH, HAMPSTEAD.

1. I am a Bachelor of Arts, a Doctor of Medicine, and a Diplomate in Public Health of Cambridge University. For the past year I have been medical officer of health of Hampstead, and previously I was for five years medical officer of health of Battersea. For a year before my appointment to Battersea I held the post of assistant to the medical officer of health of Manchester, and previous to that I was for some six months assistant medical officer of health of Huddersfield. Before taking up public health work I had nearly three years' experience of general medical practice as *locum tenens* for practitioners in London and in various parts of the country. Most of the practitioners for whom I acted as *locum tenens* had extensive club practices, some held Poor Law appointments, and four were part-time medical officers of health. I may claim, therefore, to have had some considerable experience from various points of view of the conditions under which the poor are medically assisted at the present time, and I have been led to the conclusion that those conditions are inimical to the health of the community.

LACK OF MEDICAL ASSISTANCE AMONG THE POOR LEADS TO THE SPREAD OF INFECTIOUS DISEASES, e.g., SMALL-POX.

2. In the first place it may be said that the poor do not have recourse to medical advice as often as is necessary both for the interest of the individual patient, and for the welfare of the community. The reason why medical assistance is not more frequently sought is usually that of expense. There is naturally much unwillingness to incur expenditure for "doctoring" unless there appears to be good reason for it. For various reasons large numbers of the poor do not belong to provident dispensaries or other voluntary medical aid associations, and, so far as my experience goes, there is a widespread disinclination to utilise the services of the Poor Law doctors. In consequence of this failure to seek skilled medical advice many cases of infectious disease go unrecognised, and to this fact we must attribute the comparative ineffectiveness of our modern methods of dealing with scarlet fever and diphtheria. In small-pox, too, the unrecognised or "missed" case plays a most important part in the spread of the disease, although in small-pox the seriousness of these cases is masked by the immense protective effect of vaccination. I personally investigated all the 253

cases of small-pox that occurred in Battersea in the years 1901-02-03, and in the majority of instances I found that either the primary infecting case had not been identified as a case of small-pox until I discovered it myself, or that the identification had been delayed until other persons had become infected. In these cases a doctor had not been called in at all, or not until the patient had been ill for a considerable time, or, having been called in, he had failed to make a correct diagnosis. The following are two examples of cases of this kind:—

(a) On May 10th, 1902, a case of small-pox was notified to me in the person of C. C., an unvaccinated child, aged twelve months, of Dashwood Street, Battersea. I ascertained that the patient was taken ill on April 30th, and that the rash had appeared on May 2nd. On the latter date she was taken to the out-patients' department of a general hospital not far from Battersea, but, the rash being in the earliest stage, the nature of the disease was not recognised. The patient was not again seen by a doctor until the day of her death, May 9th. I found that a fortnight before the child was taken ill the mother had had a mild attack of small-pox for which she was not medically attended. No less than twenty-four persons are known to have taken small-pox directly or indirectly from this patient.

(b) On December 9th, 1901, a case of small-pox was notified to me in the person of Thomas C, of Carpenter Street, Battersea. I found that he had been taken ill on December 1st, the rash appearing on December 3rd. He went to his work as usual until Saturday, December 7th, and on the following day he saw a doctor for the first time during his illness. This man infected seventeen persons to my knowledge.

SCARLET FEVER.

3. The "missed" case plays an important part in the spread of scarlet fever. For this disease we have no prophylactic such as vaccination, and for its prevention we are compelled to rely upon the prompt isolation of the patient, followed by disinfection of infected articles and premises. These measures, however, are far from having achieved the success that was formerly predicted for them, and of late years, indeed, the utility of hospital

APPENDIX No. XLV.—*Continued.*

isolation as a means for preventing the spread of scarlet fever has been seriously called into question. The comparative failure of our efforts to check the prevalence of scarlet fever must be attributed to the fact that a considerable number of cases never come under medical observation at all, or not until they have already spread infection. For some months past I have had to deal with an unusual prevalence of scarlet fever in West Hampstead, chiefly in connection with one of the elementary schools in that district. The disease has been present in a mild form, and many cases have not been recognised in time to prevent the spread of infection. I have found that in several instances a child suffering from a mild attack of scarlet fever has been allowed to return to school, after a few days' absence, while still in an infectious condition. One child was found in a school class-room to be in the early desquamating stage of scarlet fever, and on visiting her home I found another (untreated) case, and two days later two other members of the family were attacked. During the last nine months of 1906 I discovered nine cases of scarlet fever, none of whom had been treated by a doctor, and some of whom had been going to school as if nothing out of the common had happened.

4. It is all the more remarkable that so many of these cases should have occurred in this borough, for the poor of Hampstead are exceptionally well provided with dispensaries and other voluntary medical agencies. There is a large dispensary, the Hampstead Provident Dispensary, at New End, with a branch in Mill Lane. This dispensary has six medical officers. In Greville Road there is the Kilburn Provident Medical Institute, to which no less than fourteen medical officers are attached, and just outside the borough there are two dispensaries, the Kilburn General Dispensary in Kilburn Park Road, and the Malden Road Dispensary, both of which are much used by Hampstead residents.

5. The Charity Organisation Society is exceedingly active in Hampstead, and it has been instrumental in inducing a large number of working people to join sick clubs such as the Foresters Friendly Society. The Hampstead Hospital, which has an out-patient department, is another important medical agency and several medical practitioners have private medical clubs of their own. In spite of these facilities for medical assistance, however, Hampstead, as I have said, has recently suffered from an exceptional prevalence of scarlet fever, which I have found to be due to the spread of infection by patients who have not come under medical observation.

DIPHTHERIA.

6. The "missed" case plays an important part in the spread of diphtheria, a disease that ought to be more readily controlled than scarlet fever because of the facilities bacteriology affords for the diagnosis of diphtheria, and because we possess in the diphtheria antitoxin an agent of great therapeutic and considerable prophylactic value. A marked reduction in the prevalence of, and mortality from diphtheria is one of the results that may most confidently be expected to accrue from a re-organisation of the work of the municipal public health department on a more widely extended basis.

MEASLES.

7. Measles is frequently spread by cases that have not been identified. In this disease the characteristic eruption does not appear until the fourth day, and until its appearance the symptoms resemble those of a severe "cold." It is quite common for children to be sent to school in the pre-eruptive stage of measles, for until the rash appears the parents usually do not know from what complaint the child is suffering. A medical practitioner ought, however, to make a correct diagnosis before the rash appears, for Koplik's spots, an important diagnostic feature, may be observed as early as the second day of the disease; and I have no doubt that with a better system of medical assistance we could bring some measure of control to bear upon this disease, the present mortality from which is a reproach to our methods of public health administration.

CONSUMPTION.

8. In consumption early diagnosis is a matter of great importance. The earlier the disease is recognised the better prospect there is not only of curing the patient, but also of instructing him in those measures of personal cleanliness (proper disposal of sputum, etc.) which are necessary for preventing the spread of the disease to other persons.

IMPORTANCE OF EARLY DIAGNOSIS IN THE NON-COMMUNICABLE DISEASES.

9. So far I have dealt with the importance of early diagnosis only in those diseases which are communicable from one person to another. In these diseases the chief object of early recognition is to facilitate the earliest possible isolation of the diseased person. I have selected as examples, small-pox, scarlet fever, diphtheria, measles and consumption, but the same principle holds good in all communicable diseases. In addition to these, however, there are serious diseases in which early diagnosis is important not because it tends to limit the spread of the disease in the community, but because it tends to check or eradicate the disease in the individual patient. A good example of these dangerous non-communicable diseases is cancer. Cancer in certain accessible situations, such as the lip, or breast, is a disease in which there is a good prospect of cure, provided that a diagnosis is made before the growth has spread beyond the reach of the surgeon's knife. Every year many persons die of cancer whose lives could have been saved had they sought medical advice in time. Especially is this true of the poor. The dissemination of information as to the hopeful prospect of cure in early cases of cancer is educational work that sanitary authorities might undertake with much advantage, and its usefulness would be greatly enhanced if the authority afforded facilities, pathological and clinical, for the early diagnosis of the disease.

10. There are, moreover, diseases in which, although "cure" is impossible in the present state of our knowledge, yet the patient's life may be prolonged and his activity maintained for a considerable period if he submits to a prescribed regimen. Among such diseases are chronic kidney disease, chronic heart disease and diabetes. Patients suffering from these diseases may, by adopting a suitable diet and suitable modes of living, continue to follow their vocations for many years. In these diseases it is most important for the patient that an early diagnosis should be made so that proper precautions may be taken in time.

SANITARY AUTHORITIES INQUIRE INTO THE SANITARY CONDITION OF PREMISES FREE OF CHARGE.

11. It is evident that it is to the interest of the community to secure the earliest possible identification of cases of disease. In the non-communicable diseases this would not only preserve many lives that are now prematurely lost, but it would also be the means of maintaining the working efficiency of many patients who suffer from chronic disorders that are not necessarily disabling, and would, therefore, prevent much of the chronic "invalidism" that is now a heavy tax upon the resources of the community. And in the communicable diseases there would be the additional advantage that early identification would very greatly increase the effectiveness of our control of such diseases. At the present time, as I shall show later, much is being done by sanitary authorities to further the diagnosis of disease, and there is a growing tendency to expand this branch of the work of the public health department. But the facilities so far provided by sanitary authorities for the diagnosis of suspected cases of infectious disease are slight when compared with what is required for the protection of the health of the community, or when compared with the provision that is made for the investigation of suspected drainage defects or other insanitary conditions of environment. If a householder suspects that the drains or other sanitary arrangements of his house are defective, all he has to do is to complain to the sanitary authority, who will promptly ascertain what is wrong and then take the necessary steps to remedy any defects that are discovered. Complaints of this kind are of daily occurrence, and the investigations called for by such

APPENDIX No. XLV.—*Continued.*

complaints form a large part of the work of a public health department. These examinations are done free of charge ; they involve the ratepayers in considerable expense, and they are done in view of the fact that drain testing and the making of sanitary surveys are operations which are carried out for a livelihood by private firms of "sanitary engineers." It is rightly held that sanitary authorities are under an obligation to make these inspections, that it is the duty of the sanitary authority to discover and remove insanitary conditions of environment. This is distinctly laid down in Section 92 of the Public Health Act, 1875, which runs as follows :—

"It shall be the duty of every local authority to cause to be made from time to time inspection of their district, with a view to ascertain what nuisances exist calling for abatement under the powers of this Act, and to enforce the provisions of this Act in order to abate the same."

Section 1 of the Public Health (London) Act, 1891, is even more imperative ; it makes the authority responsible for the "proper sanitary condition of all premises within their district."

"It shall be the duty of every sanitary authority to cause to be made from time to time inspection of their district, with a view to ascertain what nuisances exist calling for abatement under the powers of this Act, and to enforce the provisions of this Act for the purpose of abating the same, and otherwise to put in force the powers vested in them relating to public health and local government, so as to secure the proper sanitary condition of all premises within their district."

12. It is well known that sanitary authorities are willing to enquire into cases of suspected drainage defects, etc., and the public are not slow to act upon this knowledge. The householder who suspects his house to be in an unwholesome condition has but to make a complaint and the matter will be promptly investigated. If, however, he suspects his child to be suffering from infectious disease the services of the sanitary authority are, in most cases, not available. He must either incur expense for medical attendance, or become pauperised by applying to the Poor Law doctors, through the relieving officer ; or he may go without medical attendance altogether, and that is what he frequently does, to the grave injury of the public health. The sanitary authority, which makes free provision for the testing of drains suspected to be defective, has as yet made comparatively little provision for the examination of patients suspected to be suffering from communicable diseases, although experience has shown that undiscovered cases of communicable disease are far more important sources of suffering and of expense to the community than most drainage defects are likely to be.

IMPORTANCE OF NOTIFYING CASES OF DISEASE TO THE SANITARY AUTHORITY.

13. The control of communicable disease would be made much more effective if the public were not only encouraged to report suspected cases to the sanitary authority, but were compelled to do so. This could be done by an extension of the present statutory provisions for the notification of infectious diseases. Under the existing law the duty of notifying infectious cases is laid not only upon the medical practitioner in attendance, but also upon the head of the family to which the patient belongs, "and in his default the nearest relatives of the patient present in the house or being in attendance on the patient, and in default of such relatives, every person in charge of or in attendance on the patient, and in default of any such person the master of the house." (Public Health (London) Act, 1891, Section 55, Sub-section (1) (a)). These provisions should be made to apply to suspected as well as to actual cases, and at the same time the list of notifiable diseases should be extended. It then would become the duty of the medical officers of the sanitary authority to examine all patients notified as suspected cases and to take the necessary precautions.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF PERSONAL HYGIENE IN BRITISH PUBLIC HEALTH ADMINISTRATION.

14. In the development of our system of public health administration far too little attention has been given to matters of personal hygiene. In the collective control

of disease the community has relied chiefly upon the sanitary engineer, and it is only within a recent period that it has begun to utilise the services of the pathologist and the physician. The great sanitary reforms of the reign of Queen Victoria consisted for the most part in the removal of unwholesome conditions of environment. The prompt removal of waste matter from the vicinity of human beings, which is the beginning of sanitary wisdom, was accomplished by the provision of elaborate and costly systems of drainage and sewerage, and of refuse removal and destruction. The vast cess-pool, which in the early years of the nineteenth century was an important part of a London dwelling house, was abolished—although even now this survival of a pre-sanitary era is occasionally brought to light by systematic sanitary inspection. Plentiful supplies of pure water from carefully supervised sources took the place of the polluted wells and streams which formerly served as sources of water supply. Improved methods of street paving and street cleansing were introduced, open spaces were provided, the sanitary standard of building construction was raised, offensive trades were regulated and the smoke nuisance brought under some measure of public control. So far as these Victorian sanitary reforms can be described by any single phrase, it may be said that they were measures of communal cleanliness. The aggregation of increasing masses of the population into large urban centres brought with it increased danger of disease, and in self-preservation the community evolved an organisation for the protection of the public health the first aim of which was to secure communal cleanliness. In this way results of great value have been attained, but, great as have been the triumphs of environmental hygiene it is very far indeed from covering the whole field of hygienic reform. It is now fully realised that the community suffers from an enormous wastage from diseases and premature death that is comparatively untouched by the sanitation of surroundings. It is not enough to remove the insanitary environment of the people if the people themselves remain ignorant of the essentials of clean and healthy living, or if they are inadequately provided with proper medical assistance when sick ; and of late years our methods of public health administration have been more and more inspired by the idea that to remove that ignorance and to provide such assistance is as much the duty of the sanitary authority as is the supervision of drains and damp-proof courses.

15. It is probably owing to some extent to the survival of the idea that the business of the sanitary authority is to do with drains that the administration of the Vaccination Acts has not been transferred from the Poor Law authority. Vaccination was one of the first of the measures of personal hygiene that have been employed in our modern system of public health administration. Then came a gradual increase in the provision for the hospital accommodation of cases of smallpox, scarlet fever, diphtheria and typhoid fever, and the control of communicable disease was advanced by the Infectious Diseases (Notification) Act of 1889, and by the Infectious Diseases Prevention Act of 1890. The Cleansing of Persons Act of 1897, to which reference will be made later, was an important step in advance, and in the last years of the century the control of tuberculosis began to be consciously taken in hand by such measures as the adoption of systems of voluntary notification and by the distribution of advisory literature. And in attacking the problem of infantile mortality sanitary authorities have vastly extended the more purely medical branches of their work, and a still further extension has been brought about by the recent development of school hygiene. A few of these modern extensions of the activity of the public health department I will venture to describe in some detail.

ASSISTANCE AFFORDED BY SANITARY AUTHORITIES IN THE DIAGNOSIS OF DISEASE.

16. The provision of facilities for the early diagnosis of certain diseases is at the present time a part of the work of the sanitary authority. In most districts the public health department undertakes, free of charge, the bacteriological examination of pathological specimens from patients suspected to be suffering from diphtheria or typhoid fever. In some districts, e.g., Brighton, Lambeth

APPENDIX No. XLV.—*Continued.*

and Bermondsey, this work is done in a municipal laboratory; in others, *e.g.*, Manchester and most of the Metropolitan boroughs, it is done by arrangement with some institution such as the Lister Institute of Preventive Medicine. The method generally adopted is as follows:—Each medical practitioner in the district is supplied with an outfit containing appliances for collecting and transmitting the specimen. When the specimen is received at the laboratory a new outfit is sent to the practitioner, who is apprised of the result of the examination by telegram, a written report of the case at the same time being sent to the medical officer of health. Similar arrangements are made for the early diagnosis of tuberculosis, and, more recently, of epidemic cerebro spinal meningitis, a disease in which bacteriological examination is of great importance. There is, fortunately, a tendency for sanitary authorities to extend this pathological work. A microscopic examination is often necessary in early cases of cancer, and an examination of the blood is of great diagnostic value in anæmia and in various other conditions. The free examination by the sanitary authority of such pathological specimens would greatly add to the efficiency of medical practice.

17. Assistance in the way of clinical diagnosis is also afforded. Although it is no part of the duties of a medical officer of health, as those duties are defined by the Order of the Local Government Board, to act as consultant diagnostician in suspected cases of infectious disease, yet, as a matter of fact, he usually does act in this capacity, and it is very desirable that he should so act. In the year 1902 I examined, at the request of the attending practitioners, 112 suspected cases of small-pox, forty-five of which were actually cases of small-pox. The Hampstead Borough Council made it one of the conditions of my present appointment that I should examine suspected cases of infectious disease when asked to do so by a medical practitioner, and I am glad to take every opportunity of acquiring by such means the earliest knowledge of possible centres of infection. Medical officers of health are now being called in to see suspected cases of epidemic cerebro spinal-meningitis, and the London County Council have sent one of their assistant medical officers of health to study this disease at Glasgow in order to acquire special skill in diagnosing suspected cases of the disease. Some years ago, when it seemed likely that plague would be imported into London, the County Council engaged an expert in the disease to be available in assisting to identify doubtful cases of plague.

18. Another way in which the medical officer of health acts in the capacity of free diagnostician is in examining suspected cases of infectious disease reported to him by school teachers. I have already mentioned a recent outbreak of scarlet fever in connection with one of the elementary schools of this borough, and I may say that in dealing with this outbreak I have received great assistance from the teachers, who have supplied me with the names and addresses of children absent from school owing to illness. On visiting the homes of these children I have found several to be suffering from scarlet fever, and I have had them promptly removed to hospital. In my opinion it is only by the adoption of some such method as this that we shall be able to check the spread of disease by school infection.

THE DISTRIBUTION OF ADVISORY LITERATURE BY SANITARY AUTHORITIES.

19. Another method by which sanitary authorities seek to further the detection of cases of communicable disease is by distributing advisory literature. In periods of prevalence of measles, for instance, it is not uncommon for the authority to distribute leaflets describing the chief symptoms of the disease and containing instructions as to the isolation and treatment of the patient. The distribution of advisory literature on health matters has, indeed, become an important part of the work of sanitary authorities at the present time. One of the latest developments of this work is the posting of placards setting forth some of the injurious effects of alcohol on health, and in some districts this has been supplemented by a house-to-house distribution of leaflets containing similar information. Advisory leaflets are also distributed on such subjects as the feeding and management of infants, the prevention of consumption,

the prevention of diarrhoea, etc. This literature is distributed in various ways. The infant management leaflets are in some districts handed by the registrars to every person registering the birth of a child, or they may be sent by post to the homes in which births have occurred. Sometimes the leaflets are distributed house-to-house, and occasionally the information is put into the form of placards. The most effective method of distributing advisory literature, however, is by the agency of health visitors, and here we come upon what is probably the most important development of contemporary public health work. The first health visitors began work in Manchester in 1862. There were working class women employed as health visitors by the Manchester and Salford Ladies' Sanitary Association, and it was not until the last years of the nineteenth century that health visitors began to be directly employed by sanitary authorities. The high infantile mortality of the last ten years of the nineteenth century forced the whole question of the waste of infant life prominently before the public and undoubtedly gave rise to a great increase in the number of health visitors, for so far health visitors have chiefly been engaged in work having for its object the prevention of infant mortality. The first health visitors were drawn from the working classes, but most of the visitors now employed by health authorities are highly educated women; many have had a university training, and some five or six are fully qualified medical practitioners.

HEALTH VISITING.

20. The main function of the health visitor is to visit the homes of the less fortunate members of the community and to give simple practical instruction in certain matters of personal hygiene. The work is medical in character, and it should always be done under competent medical supervision. It is chiefly preventive, but by no means wholly so, for in personal hygiene it is no more possible to make a sharp distinction between prevention and cure than it is possible to mark out a border line between health and disease. Still, it is true that the health visitor does not undertake the treatment of patients who are likely to be seriously ill. It is her duty in such cases to do all she can to persuade the persons in charge of the patient to call in a doctor. From a public health point of view this method has many disadvantages. In the first place the authority and influence of the visitor are impaired. In those cases where advice is most needed she can do little but recommend that a doctor should be sent for. Her ministrations would be much more effective if she could either treat the patient herself (if she were qualified medically, as is sometimes the case) or call in a medical colleague from the Health Department. Secondly, the advice to seek medical aid is often not acted upon in the poorest districts, where her work chiefly lies. The visitor is told that poor people cannot afford to call in a doctor for every little thing, and should she venture in case of necessity to suggest that the services of the Poor Law doctors might be sought, she runs the risk of receiving an official reprimand, for encouraging pauperisation, from the Poor Law authority. An example of this occurred in Hampstead some three years ago. In the early part of 1904 there was an epidemic of measles in Hampstead. The number of cases brought to the notice of the medical officer of health during the year was no less than 741, and as measles is not a notifiable disease it is probable that the total number of cases was much greater. The 741 cases actually reported were visited by the borough council's lady inspector, who gave the mothers the usual leaflet on the precautions to be observed in cases of measles, supplementing the printed directions by simple practical advice on the isolation and care of the patient. From the Annual Report of the medical officer of health it appears that the inspector found that in 166 cases, or 22·4 per cent. of the whole, no doctor was in attendance on the patient. In cases of measles it is specially important that the patient should be medically attended, for the result of the illness greatly depends upon the care and treatment the patient receives, and the inspector was instructed by my predecessor, the late Dr. Herbert Littlejohn, to do her best to persuade the parents to have the patients medically attended, and in those cases where it appeared that medical aid could not be secured in any other way, to point out that the services of the Poor Law doctors were

APPENDIX No. XI.V.—Continued.

available. These instructions were carried out with the result that there was a considerable increase in the number of cases of measles treated by the Poor Law medical officer in the district of Hampstead in which the disease was chiefly prevalent. This fact was brought to the notice of the guardians, who thereupon caused the following letter to be sent to the inspector:—

“Offices of the Board of Guardians,
“Workhouse, Hampstead, N.W.
“January 21st, 1904

“DEAR MADAM,—The guardians desire me to inform you that the assistant relieving officer at Kilburn has reported that you have recommended people to apply for the aid of the Poor Law in Kilburn, where it subsequently appeared that the family were not by any means destitute. The guardians desire me to point out to you the importance of using discretion before calling upon the Poor Law for assistance in respect of medical relief, as it often happens that this method of receiving Poor Law relief by poor people leads in the end to the loss of their independence.

“Yours faithfully,

“(Signed) H. WESTBURY PRESTON, Clerk.”

ANTAGONISM BETWEEN POOR LAW AND SANITARY AUTHORITIES.

21. The incident illustrates the antagonism, from the public health point of view, of the forces directing the work of the sanitary authority on the one hand and that of the Poor Law authority on the other in relation to disease. The services of the medical officer of health and his department are given gratuitously, and it is the object of the medical officer of health continually to extend the field over which those services are operative. In so doing he is encouraged by his authority. The Poor Law authority on the other hand seek to restrict the work of their medical officers, apart from vaccination, as much as possible. Yet it is difficult to see what difference there is between the work of the medical officer of health and that of the Poor Law medical officer which would justify the antagonistic positions taken up by their respective authorities in relation to the extension of their work. It is agreed that there is no taint of pauperisation in the ministrations of the health visitor who, visits a case of measles to leave the printed instructions of the medical officer of health as to the isolation and general care of the patient, and to explain and amplify these instructions by oral advice—to tell the mother, for instance, to keep the patient warm in bed in a room apart from the other members of the family and to keep the room scrupulously clean and well ventilated. This advice, though given gratuitously, does not pauperise; but the advice of the Poor Law doctor, which is, after all, nothing but an extension of that of the medical officer of health as conveyed by the health visitor, it would appear does pauperise. I do not intend to enter upon a discussion as to what is, or what is not pauperisation; but I am very strongly of opinion that it would be greatly in the interest of the public health if the work now carried out by lay health visitors in relation to such diseases as measles and whooping cough were completed by the visits of medical health visitors, who would supervise the entire treatment of the patient. The same may be said of consumption. This disease, in the majority of cases, is best treated in a sanatorium, at all events, in certain stages of the disease. Sanatorium treatment is advisable both for the health of the patient and for the health of the community. The need for sanatorium treatment varies, however, in different stages of the disease, and the patient should therefore be kept under medical observation so that he may know when to seek such treatment, and in any case it is important that the patient should be medically attended, for the treatment proper in certain stages of the disease is improper in others. One of the factors in the success of sanatorium treatment is the constant medical supervision, which enables the proper treatment to be adopted as soon as it is needed. Consumption is so insidious and deceptive a disease from the subjective point of view that the patient alone cannot be relied upon to seek medical advice when he needs it, even when he has the means and opportunity for obtaining such advice, which the poor

patient in many cases has not got. In Hampstead an excellently planned organisation for the control of consumption has been gradually built up. There is a special phthisis committee, composed of representatives of the Hampstead Health Society and the Charity Organisation Society, working in co-operation with the sanitary authority and the Poor Law authority. Cases of consumption are investigated; premises are disinfected; the patients are visited, their progress is watched, and where necessary they are assisted in various ways. This work is valuable, but it falls far short of what is needed. It is extremely difficult to obtain an adequate number of voluntary workers to visit the cases, although Hampstead contains a large population of leisured persons, many of whom might be expected to engage willingly in useful work of this kind. The patients frequently do not receive sufficient medical attendance. Some attend occasionally at the out-patient department of the Mount Vernon hospital for consumption, but this department is in Fitzroy Square, which is too far away adequately to serve the needs of this district. It is necessary for the committee to be informed from time to time as to the physical condition of the patients, and on such occasions a medical practitioner is asked to examine the patient and report to the committee. This system of reporting, however, is found to be unsatisfactory both from the point of view of the practitioner, who usually reports gratuitously, and from that of the committee. The control of consumption would be very much more efficient if the poor patients were under the supervision of medical health visitors attached to the public health department.

THE PREVENTION OF INFANTILE MORTALITY.

22. The work of sanitary authorities in the promotion of personal hygiene has reached its fullest development in the movement for the prevention of infantile mortality. It is in work of this kind that health visitors are chiefly engaged, and it is important to note that during the last two or three years the methods of health visiting have been considerably developed. Formerly, when the workers were fewer, it was not practicable to pay more than one or perhaps two visits to each mother, but at the present time in an increasing number of districts it has been found possible, by increasing the number of paid workers and by the employment of voluntary health visitors working in co-operation with the sanitary authority, to keep each baby under regular supervision until the completion of the first year of life. The work of health visiting in relation to infantile mortality has been most fully developed in Huddersfield, where the two qualified medical women employed by the sanitary authority have been reinforced by eighty voluntary workers. By the local Act of 1905 the corporation is informed of the birth of every child born in the borough within forty-eight hours of the event, and, except in those cases where visiting is thought to be unnecessary, each home is visited by one of the Corporation's medical visitors, who leaves advisory literature and gives the usual oral instruction. Subsequent visits are regularly paid by the voluntary workers, who make periodical reports, and, if necessary, invoke the aid of the medical visitors. The whole of the work is done under the supervision and direction of the medical officer of health.

23. The work of the health visitors is of great value in the prevention of infantile mortality, but it is done under serious disadvantages. The ailments of babyhood are sudden in onset and may very soon become grave, and it is important that competent medical attendance should be promptly secured. In these circumstances it is the duty of the health visitor to urge the mother to call in a doctor, and at this point difficulties often arise that tend to neutralise the good effect of the health visitors' ministrations. Among the poor the doctor is often either not called in at all, or not until the baby has become seriously ill, or, having been called in, he too frequently gives directions which are diametrically opposed to the advice of the health visitor. For medical attendance the poor depend largely upon medical practitioners in the lowest rank of practice, who are popularly known as “sixpenny doctors,” and the influence exercised by these practitioners frequently constitutes one of the chief difficulties the health visitor has to meet. Health visitors are accustomed to advise that hand-

APPENDIX No. XLV.—Continued.

fed babies should be fed upon cows' milk, and not upon condensed milk and patent foods; that a nursing mother should not take alcohol; that a nursing mother who is unable to suckle her child entirely should supplement her milk with cows' milk instead of weaning the baby altogether on the ground that the "milks will not mix." This advice is frequently contradicted by the "sixpenny doctor," as all who have had experience of health visiting can testify. I have even known practitioners to advise the use of the long-tubed feeding bottle. In this way the educational effect of the health visitors' work is very seriously impaired. Our efforts in the prevention of infantile mortality would be made very much more effective if health visitors were enabled to call in the assistance of medical visitors attached to the public health department and responsible to that department for the advice they would give.

MILK DÉPÔTS.

24. The municipal milk dépôt represents another important extension of modern public health work. Since 1899 some twenty municipalities, St. Helens being the first, have established dépôts for the supply of specially prepared milk for those unfortunate infants for whom there is nothing for it but to be fed by hand. The work of the institutions has been much misunderstood. In some quarters they have been regarded as representing nothing more than an unregulated outburst of "municipal trading," as merely so many places where bottles of more or less sterilised milk are handed out over municipal counters. What the municipal milk dépôt really does represent is an extension of the supervision of baby-rearing by the medical officers of the sanitary authority. In a well-conducted dépôt the milk is supplied only to those mothers who can produce good reasons for the failure of the baby's natural nourishment. A careful record is kept of each child, for whose varying needs the milk is modified as occasion requires, and the homes of the children are periodically visited by health visitors who endeavour to secure a proper use of the milk. Efforts are made to induce the mothers to bring their babies regularly to the dépôt in order that the progress of the babies may be gauged by the best practicable test of infant well-being, namely, periodical weighing, and in some dépôts the milk is not supplied unless this condition is fulfilled. The milk dépôt is a clinique, not a milk shop; and the work of the milk dépôts would be much more valuable if it were extended on its more purely medical side. When I had charge of the Battersea milk dépôt I attended two afternoons a week at a room at one of the public baths, where the babies fed upon the dépôt milk were brought by their mothers to be weighed. In this way I was able to estimate the progress of the babies and to vary from time to time the quantity and modifications of the milk to suit their varying needs. Beyond altering the milk, however, I made no attempt to treat the babies medically, although my advice was frequently asked by the mothers. In the French institutions, the *Consultation de Nourrissons* and the *Goutte de Lait*, from which our milk dépôts are derived, the babies are medically treated, and it is for this reason that these institutions are more effective than the milk dépôt.

THE MIDWIVES ACT.

25. The Midwives Act is being made an instrument of great value in the prevention of infantile mortality. About one-half of the total births in England and Wales take place under the care of midwives, and in an increasing number of districts the sanitary authority is instructing the midwives in the principles and details of infant management so that they may be qualified to advise the mothers they attend.

26. In these modern developments of public health work relating to infantile mortality—in the early notification of births, the supervision of midwives, in the distribution of advisory literature, in systematic health visiting and in the work of the infants' milk depôts, we perceive the sanitary authority exercising a more and more intimate control over the conditions of infant life. Public health authorities are building up a system of advisory supervision of child-rearing—midwives, nurses and mothers are being educated by the authority in the things that are

necessary for healthy infant life. These measures are already having a considerable effect on infantile mortality, and they would be still more effective if the sanitary authority could provide medical treatment for those sick infants who at the present time are either not treated at all, or who come under the treatment of ill-informed and irresponsible practitioners.

SANITARY AUTHORITIES ARE LARGELY ENGAGED
IN THE TREATMENT OF DISEASE.

27. It may be objected that the extension of the work of the sanitary authority on the lines I have indicated would introduce a new principle in public health administration, by making the authority responsible for the treatment as well as for the prevention of disease. But at the present time sanitary authorities are extensively engaged in the treatment of disease. Large numbers of patients are treated in public fever hospitals, in asylums, and in sanatoria for consumptives, and the number so treated is rapidly increasing. Moreover, the Public Health Act empowers any sanitary authority to provide hospitals for diseases other than the communicable diseases, and also "to provide a temporary supply of medicine and medical assistance for the poorer inhabitants of their district." The Cleansing of Persons Act, 1897, empowers the sanitary authority to treat cases of pediculosis, and an increasing use is being made of this Act, especially for the treatment of school children. Cases of ringworm in school children are also beginning to be treated by the sanitary authority. In Manchester (and possibly in other districts) during the summer diarrhoea season diarrhoea medicine is distributed gratuitously at the city police stations, and in many districts diphtheria antitoxin is supplied free by the sanitary authority. Free diagnosis is, as I have already pointed out, an important feature in modern public health administration, and much of the work of health visiting is, strictly speaking, treatment. From whatever point we view the question there is no doubt that the treatment of disease is an important part of modern public health work.

28. It is, however, impossible to distinguish between the conditions that constitute "prevention" and those that constitute "cure." Even that aspect of public health work which is regarded as most definitely preventive has also its therapeutic side. The removal of unwholesome conditions of environment undoubtedly tends to prevent healthy persons from becoming sick; but it also tends to help sick persons to become well. And the "cure" of a sick person tends to prevent disease in that person, and, if the disease be communicable, in other persons also. Such conditions as diabetes, granular kidney, and aneurism are not necessarily diseases. If the condition is recognised early and the patient adopts the proper regimen the symptoms that really constitute the disease may be postponed for a considerable period. The feature that best distinguishes the medical work of the sanitary authority is, not that it is preventive as opposed to curative, but that it is *educational*. Among the poor diseases are regarded as mysterious entities to be exorcised with bottles of medicine and boxes of pills and it must be confessed that the conditions of medical practice in the poorer districts do not greatly tend to remove this impression. The sanitary authority, however, seeks to diffuse more enlightened ideas of disease. It endeavours to popularise the conception of disease as something that depends largely on conditions which can be explained in simple language and which can be prevented. It strives not only to remove unhealthy conditions of environment, but also to explain and inculcate the importance of defective personal hygiene as a factor in the causation of disease. The social value of this educational work upon which sanitary authorities are now engaged is great and it would be much enhanced if it were extended on its more purely medical side. The physician can exercise a powerful influence on the habits and mode of life of his patient, and the services of the physician employed on the lines on which sanitary authorities are now working could be made an educational force of immense value making for the raising of the standard of life of the poor. I should welcome therefore a wide extension of the work of health visiting. The number of official health visitors should be increased and a greater use should be made of the services of voluntary

APPENDIX No. XLV.—*Continued.*

health visitors working in co-operation with the sanitary authority on the methods adopted in Huddersfield and in Hampstead. In addition there should be attached to the public health department an adequate number of medical practitioners, male and female, who would supplement where necessary the work of the non-medical visitors; and the duties of all these workers should be carried out on the principle that now actuates the work of the sanitary authority, the principle, namely, that it is in the interest of the community that public medical work should be developed to a maximum and not restricted to a minimum as is now the aim of the Poor Law authority. Such a system would bring to light a large number of cases of communicable diseases that now escape discovery, and it would, therefore, make our control of such diseases much more effective. It would lead to the timely detection and competent treatment of many cases of non-communicable diseases which now for the lack of such detection and treatment inflict a heavy loss on the community. More important still, the efforts of such a body of workers would form a social force of considerable magnitude tending to the promotion of wholesome habits and therefore to the formation of character. The establishment of such a system would involve no new departure on the part of the sanitary authority; it would merely be an extension, on existing lines, of work that has already been considerably developed. And the best way of establishing such a system would be by the transference to the sanitary authority of the medical work now undertaken by the Poor Law authority.

DISADVANTAGE OF MEDICAL CLUBS.

29. It may, perhaps, be urged that the advantages I have indicated could be secured if the poor could be induced to make a much more extended use of medical clubs and friendly societies. I am very strongly of opinion that these advantages could not be so secured. In the first place large numbers of the poor do not belong to clubs and I do not know of any method short of sheer compulsion which would induce a sufficient number to join. Those of the poor for whom medical attendance is most needed, both for their own welfare and for that of the community, are precisely those who are least likely to join clubs; and the careful workman who regularly pays his club subscription has not only to pay for his own medical attendance, but, as a ratepayer, he has to bear his portion of the expense incurred by the community in medically attending his less careful or less fortunate neighbour, and in dealing with the disease spread by patients who have not come under medical observation. Secondly, the conditions under which club practice is now carried on are so unsatisfactory that the interests of the community would not be furthered by an extension of the system. To the medical profession club practice is most distasteful. No practitioner remains a club doctor any longer than he can possibly help. The disadvantages of club practice constitute a burning question for the medical profession at the present time. In various parts of the country, practitioners are banding together to resist what are spoken of as the "sweating" methods of the clubs, and the weapon of the strike (with the concomitant ostracism of the "blackleg") is being freely employed by these associations of medical practitioners in their struggle for better conditions of club practice. Moreover, the "club doctor" is not infrequently regarded as an inferior kind of practitioner. I have known several cases where members of clubs on the occurrence of serious illness in

themselves or their families, have discarded the services of the club doctor and incurred the expense of employing a private practitioner. A few weeks ago I was asked by a workman whether I thought a "club doctor" was competent to treat a case of scarlet fever. And there can be no doubt that club patients do not receive the care and attention that is bestowed upon private patients. A successful practitioner either gets rid of his club patients altogether or he transfers them to his junior partner or assistant who as a rule is much too over-worked to give the necessary time and attention to the diagnosis and treatment of the cases. From my own experience in club practice I can testify to the extremely unsatisfactory conditions under which it is carried on. The examination of a patient should be conducted on the principle laid down by Trousseau, "Interrogate all the functions," but in a busy club practice it is impossible to interrogate even one function with sufficient care.

30. Moreover, I consider the treatment of patients in "surgeries" and out-patient departments is unsatisfactory. There are certain diseases for which institutional treatment is desirable and patients suffering from those diseases should be treated in institutions. In all other cases, however, the patient should be treated in his own home. The long waiting in the crowded waiting rooms at the doctor's "surgery" or the hospital out-patient department tends to spread infectious disease, to injure the health of the patient and to cause a considerable loss of time, which in many cases inflicts inconvenience or even actual loss on the poor. Moreover, the doctor should take account of the home conditions of the patient. In the home there are various influences which assist or retard recovery, and the doctor should make himself acquainted as far as possible with those conditions and endeavour to modify them in the interest of the patient. For instance, sanitary defects should be reported to the sanitary authority, and advice should be given as to the due sanitary ordering of the home. The overworked club doctor, however, has time for none of these things. He reduces his domiciliary work as much as possible and encourages the patients to come up to his surgery for treatment, and it is extremely rare for him to report anything to the sanitary authority except cases of notifiable infectious disease. I do not see, therefore, how an extension of club practice could lead to that co-ordination of the various agencies dealing with disease that is so much needed for the health of the community; and as an educational force it could in no sense become a substitute for the work of that co-ordinated body of medical and lay health workers which I have indicated as forming a necessary development of the function of the public health department of the sanitary authority.

31. It must be borne in mind that the "self-supporting" character of a medical club is largely an illusion. There are many diseases that a club doctor does not attempt to treat. The vast majority of notifiable cases of infectious disease, lunacy, and an increasing number of cases of tuberculosis are treated in rate-supported institutions. Abdominal surgery, ophthalmic surgery, any surgical operation except the most trivial, and many other conditions are treated in hospitals that are supported by private charity. If these institutions were not available, clubs and provident dispensaries could not be conducted on their present conditions, and, therefore, it is true to say that, in a sense, these so-called "self-supporting" medical agencies are partly supported by the rates and partly by private charity.

APPENDIX No. XLVI.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO THE MEDICAL ASSISTANCE OF THE POOR, BY HARRY COOPER PATTIN, DOCTOR IN MEDICINE, MASTER OF ARTS, BACHELOR IN SURGERY, AND DIPLOMATE IN PUBLIC HEALTH OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRIDGE, MEDICAL OFFICER OF HEALTH FOR THE CITY OF NORWICH AND COUNTY OF THE SAME. (JANUARY, 1907).

1. I have had fourteen years' experience of public health work (in York and Norwich) with charge of corporation hospitals for infectious diseases. Three years' experience as a resident medical officer at the York Public Dispensary, six months as acting medical officer to the York Union Infirmary (during illness of incumbent), and six weeks of rural Poor Law medical work, including care of small infirmary, in Hampshire. Have been retained as expert witness by the Treasury, the London, and the Norfolk County Councils; have collated and redacted the annual reports of its rural medical officers of health for the latter body, and am a writer of impropvident "contributions toward a rationale in national healthiness."

2. *The Norwich City Council* is the local sanitary authority, and conducts its work by the agency of committees of its members to whom it delegates its powers. Such operations as it carries out for giving medical assistance and advice to the population committed to its care are directed by its Health Committee. It provides an asylum for the treatment of its insane poor which has accommodation for 450 patients.

3. It provides a medical officer of health, who devotes his whole time to his duties, and is its principal executive health officer, and an assistant (whole time) to the medical officer of health who acts as bacteriologist. It also provides an isolation hospital for the reception and treatment of certain infectious diseases, limited at present to cases of scarlet fever, enteric fever and diphtheria, and also a special hospital for the separate treatment of small-pox. In connection with the aforementioned isolation hospital it provides a staff of trained nurses.

4. Patients are received into these institutions without regard being paid to their social status or pecuniary resources. If, in the opinion of the medical officer of health, who is also medical superintendent of the corporation hospitals, it is desirable in the interests of the community that a person afflicted with one or other of the above-mentioned diseases be removed to, and treated in the corporation hospitals, that course is followed. No charge is made for such treatment unless some special privilege is desired, such as a separate ward.

5. The corporation uses a very considerable amount of antitoxin outside of its hospital, partly in the curative treatment of such cases of diphtheria as it cannot, for various reasons, admit into its isolation hospital; but chiefly in preventive treatment; it being the practice of the medical officer of health, when diphtheria is notified in a household, besides removing the notified member, to give *prophylactic injections of anti-toxin* to the other members of the household; a practice which he has found to be very effective in preventing the spread of the disease.

6. Some few years ago the medical officer of health suggested that the guardians should supply their medical officers with anti-toxin so as to secure the promptest possible application of that remedy to any cases of diphtheria which came under their notice; the guardians however, did not act upon the suggestion, and more recently the medical officer of health has offered to re-supply to the Poor Law medical officers any anti-toxin they may use to Poor Law diphtheria patients. This proffer, so far, has been very slightly acted upon; the reason being the fact that the Poor Law medical officers do not appear to carry anti-toxin with them, and content themselves with notifying the existence of diphtheria to the medical officer of health (the said officers, of course, commonly do not know beforehand the nature of the case they are called to), a procedure which always involves delay, and sometimes danger to the patient, and is costly to the community, inasmuch as in combatting diphtheria early injection of anti-toxin is of the utmost importance; delay meaning diminished efficacy of the treatment and usually a more lingering convalescence. The medical officer of health has been applied to by

medical practitioners to supply anti-toxin for the treatment of club and also of private patients. In respect of the former the claim has been based upon the fact that the payments made per head by club patients do not cover the cost of anti-toxin; and he knows of instances where money for the purchase of anti-toxin has been furnished by the friends of a patient.

7. The direct operations of the sanitary authority for medically assisting the poor in respect of infectious diseases are at present restricted to the treatment of cases of scarlet fever, diphtheria, enteric fever and small-pox, with the consequential disinfection of bedding, clothing, rooms, etc. It makes no special provision for the treatment of other infectious ailments such as measles, German measles, whooping cough, chicken-pox and mumps nor for the tuberculous diseases, nor for such contagious diseases as scabies, and the pediculi, nor for venereal diseases.

8. The Health Committee has under consideration a proposal to schedule phthisis among the notifiable diseases; about 120 deaths occur from this disease annually. The medical officer of health since 1894 (at Budapest International Congress), has advocated the notification of *all* the tuberculous diseases.

9. The indirect operations of the sanitary authority for medically assisting the poor are less easy to describe because they include preventive rather than curative methods, and from this standpoint may be said to include practically its whole work. Selecting those elements which bear more directly upon points raised by the Commission's reference as being those upon which it wishes to be informed, the most important method by means of which the sanitary authority gives aid to the poor is, in my judgment, through home visitation by its women inspectors. These women (there are two employed),* are fully qualified sanitary inspectors—*i.e.*, they hold the qualifying certificate of the Royal Sanitary Institute and in addition each is a fully qualified midwife—a circumstance of which the medical officer of health avails himself in carrying out the Midwives Act, as he makes use of these women in instituting enquiries respecting still-births, premature births, etc., and in inspecting the bedrooms of midwives. It is the duty of these women to visit the homes in which births are registered (incidentally the medical officer of health calls attention to the need of making registration of birth within forty-eight hours obligatory),† and to give such counsel and advice as they may deem suitable as to the management and feeding of the child—their instructions being to encourage feeding from the breast wherever this is practicable—also to advise them other as to the management of herself. If anyone be ill and no doctor called in, they are instructed to see that steps are taken to secure medical assistance with as little delay as possible. They give advice as to nursing, and often suggest that application be made for the service of a district or parish nurse if such be available, or suggest removal of a sick person to a hospital, etc., sometimes they procure orders entitling a patient to hospital treatment, special relief, etc. Last year they so procured 150 of such orders, chiefly for ailing women and sick children.

10. During the last year these women inspectors made visits to over 5,000 poor-class houses, and made over 4,000 revisits. They thus became acquainted with the fact that these dwellings contained nearly 3,000 ailing persons. Seven hundred and sixty-six of the householders were either out of work or on short time. They inspected nearly 4,000 infants (*i.e.*, children under one year of age), and report that of these, 1,984 were being fed from

* Now (1908), four.

† Notification of Births Act has since been adopted.

APPENDIX No. XLVI.—Continued.

the breast, 884 fed from the breast supplemented by sop, 162 fed entirely on sop (with a spoon), 799 were fed with long tube, and 314 with short tube feeding bottles. 1,423 infants were more or less ill. Of the mothers, 2,307 they reported to be healthy, 647 healthy, but not strong, 140 very delicate, 113 badly nourished, and 551 who either went out to work, or took in work at home. On their recommendations seventy-two infants were supplied (by the corporation) with dried milk powder with, on the whole, very satisfactory results.

11. These women inspectors distribute printed directions for the feeding of infants, and cards of instructions to persons suffering from phthisis for the medical officer of health. They call at the homes to see patients discharged from the isolation hospital, and exercise a certain supervision over them. They visit the workrooms and abodes of all female out-workers. Without being able to furnish statistical evidence, they inform the medical officer of health that they think a good deal of overlapping of relief, or, more precisely, rotation of relief takes place. (Their attention hitherto has not been directed specifically to this matter.)

12. The work done by these women is regarded as being very valuable by the medical officer of health, and if it were developed and systematised women health visitors could be made use of to obtain early information of the existence of illness of all kinds—to supply what may be termed medical “first aid,” to supervise and supplement home nursing, feeding of and cookery for the ailing, and generally to propagate a practical knowledge of home hygiene.

13. The Poor Law authority—to which the Commission is referred for detailed information—the Poor Law authority in Norwich provides an infirmary for its sick, with a medical officer (non-resident) and nurses, etc. It divides the city into eight districts for the purpose of affording medical aid, and assigns each of these districts to a medical officer. These medical officers are all in general practice, and the Poor Law medical aid is afforded by them as part of their ordinary work. I am not aware that the Poor Law authority provides any staff of trained nurses systematically to attend upon its patients who are treated in their own homes, the need of which is in my judgment great, though I believe it does pay for the services of a nurse or nurses in special cases. It gives very handsome subventions to the local hospitals, etc., by rating them at a nominal figure; and thus may be said indirectly to aid in providing medical aid for those who receive treatment at these institutions.

14. [Norwich swarms with endowed charities, administered adventitiously; but as these deal rather with relief than with medical assistance, your Commission will be able to furnish itself with full information respecting them by making application to the Charity Commission (which has been holding a local inquiry recently); the writer only alludes to these charities because he is shrewdly of opinion that, if they were pooled, a very considerable sum might very properly be applied to the provision of medical aid.]

15. *The Norwich Society for Relieving the Sick Poor.*—This is a society which furnishes medical aid to the poor not directly in the form of treatment, but in the shape of special appliances, instruments, etc. Last year, besides giving relief in money to 1,934 people at their own homes, this society supplied surgical appliances, etc., to forty-seven persons at a cost of £28 5s. 11d., and expended £79 9s. 2d. in providing nurses, milk, and food, in helping maternity cases, and in assisting to pay the expenses of invalids at convalescent homes. The society has bags of linen and sheets, air cushions, water beds, hot water bottles, bed rests, crutches, etc., which it lends to sick persons. It is catholic in its operations (except that it will not relieve vagrants, nor give money to an unmarried woman on her confinement) and does not exclude from the benefit of its operations persons in receipt of Poor Law relief. Its general secretary is of opinion that there has been, and is still, a great amount of overlapping of relief in Norwich. (A copy of the society's last annual report, in which are embodied its rules, is forwarded.)*

16. *Norwich District Visiting Society.*—A provident and charity society having for its objects:—

- (1) Relief of the deserving and necessitous poor.
- (2) The encouragement of provident habits.
- (3) The discouragement of mendicacy.

* Not printed.

(A copy of its last report transmitted.)*

17. *Norwich Charity Organisation Society.*—Established eight years. Dealt last year with 262 cases. Report transmitted. Secretary is of opinion that there is an enormous amount of overlapping of relief in Norwich.

18. *Norwich Invalid Children's Aid Association.*—A new society, established only in December last, to secure supervision of invalid children, aid in furnishing crutches and implements to cripples, etc. Will work very much on Charity Organisation Society lines.

19. *The Norfolk and Norwich Hospital.*—Supported from voluntary contributions, donations, endowments etc. A general hospital of a fine type with 220 beds and a largely attended out-patient department. The medical aid afforded at this institution is given gratuitously, contributions being accepted, but not claimed from patients. This hospital aids the sanitary authority by admitting a few cases of enteric fever, and cases of diphtheria, if these be in urgent need of tracheotomy. 1,113 Norwich citizens were treated in the wards of this hospital last year, and it is estimated that some 8,000 were treated as out-patients. Dr. Burton Fanning tells me that, from enquiries made among a proportion of the out-patients, it is estimated that over 50 per cent. of the out-patients have club doctors of their own, that rather less than 20 per cent. probably would have made some such provision for themselves if the hospital did not exist, and that about 30 per cent. are unable to afford to, or otherwise are unable to join a club, and would be dependent upon the Poor Law doctor were it not for the hospital. There is, in his opinion, little ground for believing that the hospital is used improperly by people able to pay fees to private doctors.

N.B.—This hospital is now soliciting and obtains contributions from rural boards of guardians. Last year it received from this source £220. (The handsome if indirect subvention it receives from the Norwich guardians in the shape of a nominal rating has been referred to already.)

20. *Jenny Lind Infirmary for Sick Children* derives its income from endowments, donations and voluntary contributions. Last year it treated 367 patients in its wards—292 of them Norwich people—and about 2,000 in its out-patient department. The proportion of these who were Norwich people is not known, probably four-fifths. 1,741 of the out-patients were new patients, i.e., not carried over from the preceding year. Treatment is gratuitous, certain conditions as to “recommendations” being complied with. (Copy of “terms of admission” forwarded, p. 2 of Annual Report.)* The “terms of admission” will guide as to class of patient.

21. *The Norwich Dispensary* gives medical aid (advice and treatment) at the dispensary, and in the homes of its patients. Last year 7,073 patients were treated at the dispensary, and 2,751 visits were paid by the members of the medical staff to patients in their own homes. This institution derives its income from dividends and annual subscriptions and donations, but chiefly from what is known as “the members’ fund” (a provident department). Out of a gross income of £1,083 9s. 3d. last year £684 5s. 3d. was derived from the provident department. There is no wage limit. The monthly rates are:—

For single persons, 5d.

For man and wife, 8d.

For man, wife and children, 1s.

For widows, 4d., for each child, 1d., but not more than 6d. for the whole family.

Its medical staff consists of six non-resident medical officers, among whom the patients can, I believe, make their own choice. The dispensary does very useful work among people unable to pay private fees, and work of a type that deserves extension. Its operations include attendance in child-birth. (A copy of last Annual Report transmitted.)*

22. *The Norwich Homeopathic Dispensary* is a small specialised institution run on similar lines, its income being obtained from dividends on endowments, subscriptions and donations, and from its provident department, a payment of 2s. 6d. securing a month's attendance and medicine and attendance at the dispensary, and a payment of 7s. 6d. a month's attendance at home. (A copy of its last report is transmitted.)* I estimate the number of people who receive treatment at 800, and the senior doctor tells me they are all too poor to pay private fees.

* Not printed.

APPENDIX No. XLVI.—Continued.

23. *The Norwich Maternity Charity*.—A combined charitable and provident society for affording assistance to women in their confinement. Its income is derived from interest and dividends, subscriptions and donations, etc. Last year it treated 623 cases, 518 on ordinary recommendations, and 105 on provident club tickets. It provides four medical accoucheurs, three certificated midwives, loans linen, etc. Its object is stated officially to be "to provide skilful midwives and medical attendants, for delivering poor married women at their own habitations." As a rule women whose husbands' weekly wages exceed £1 are deemed ineligible. It is a very useful society, and undertakes work which deserves greatly to be extended. (A copy of the last Annual Report, which includes a copy of the "Rules" is forwarded.)*

24. *The Norfolk and Norwich Eye Infirmary* derives its income from dividends, donations and subscriptions—various boards of guardians are subscribers—it treated last year 854 patients, 125 as in-patients. They all are too poor to pay private fees, and more than three-fifths are county people—the remainder, say 300, belonging to Norwich. (A copy of 1905 Report transmitted.)*

25. *Norwich Public Medical Service*.—A society founded to enable persons who cannot pay private fees at customary rates to secure for themselves and their families medical attendance during illness, with the right of selecting their medical attendant from the list of doctors on the staff (twelve to fifteen). The society is managed entirely by medical men. The number of members is near upon 4,000, and the income approaches £800. It has a wage limit. Families in which the combined weekly income of the parents does not exceed 30s. are eligible. Single persons are eligible if the weekly income does not exceed 25s. The rates are 1d. per week or 1s. per quarter for men, women and children up to four children, but not more than four children are charged for in the same family.

26. [The system followed of permitting each member to select his or her doctor from the list is interesting, and so far has worked satisfactorily. The society has been in existence five years, there being no extras in the shape of food, etc., to be prescribed. A considerable, though not, I think, a preponderating amount of professional opinion favours the adoption of the like practice in dealing with Poor Law medical treatment, the suggestion being that the names of the doctors willing to act in any district should be placed on a list, and the patient permitted to make his own choice. The objection, and to my thinking a fatal one, is the absence of any check upon a doctor attracting to himself patients by ordering freely "extras," etc., and "extras" are what Poor Law patients as a rule have more desire for than for physic.]

27. *The Norwich Friendly Societies' Medical Institute*.—Established 1872. Has a total membership, men, women and children, of over 10,000. It employs two medical officers who give to its service their whole time. It has no wage limit. Gross receipts, 1905, £1,663. Its rates are:—

3s. each per annum for men.

4s. each per annum, for wives and daughters over the age of children.

8s. per annum for wives and children, *i.e.*, families.

It is affirmed that members continue to belong to this society who, having "riz" in the social scale, measured pecuniarily, can well afford to pay private fees at the customary rates. Moreover its rate for men is 3s. per annum, the local common club one being 4s., and for these and other cogent reasons—one being the possibility of funds contributed primarily for medical relief being used for non-medical purposes—this institute is not regarded with favour by the local medical fraternity.

28. *Medical Clubs*.—Not reckoning associations connected with, and limited to special works, *e.g.*, the Carrow works dispensary—from inquiries I have made among the doctors I estimate that from 12,000 to 15,000 people (men, women and children) secure to themselves medical attendance by means of club contracts with doctors. The usual rate being 4s. per annum per member, and taking the whole city, I estimate that over 40 per cent. of its entire population is provided with medical aid either through the guardians, or such agencies as those I have enumerated, and the main cause for such aid being so provided for and sought is *inability to pay private fees at the customary rates*.

29. The most striking evidence of the extent to which the agencies mentioned overlap is furnished by the out-patient department of the Norfolk and Norwich Hospital, where it is estimated that over 50 per cent. of those who attend have club doctors. Some of these patients, there is little doubt, are recommended to go to the hospital by their club doctors, but the majority go of their own accord, a main cause of this practice being adopted is, I believe, a wish to avoid the delay which often occurs when a club doctor is sent for in the ordinary way, and the uncertainty of finding him at home except at certain specified times. Moreover, the patients know very well that the resources and appliances of the out-patient department of the hospital far exceed those which are at the disposal of the average club doctor.

30. I have no satisfactory evidence of co-operation amongst the agencies, other than the cordial relationships which prevail between the medical officer of health's department of the municipality, and the Norfolk and Norwich Hospital for dealing with infectious cases; the amalgamation of friendly societies to form the Friendly Societies' Medical Institute; and the co-operation of the doctors concerned in managing the Norwich public medical service. *Per contra* there is occasioned unquestionably a large amount of financial waste in the separate management and want of co-ordinated organisation of the agencies affording medical relief, a striking example being the founding and continued existence of the Jenny Lind Infirmary for sick children, when the appropriation, or even the building, if needed, of a wing at the Norfolk and Norwich Hospital would have served, and so have saved the waste incurred in running two staffs, etc. The wards or wards of the said wing could have been known as the Jenny Lind ward or wards, and so have perpetuated the name of that amiable and accomplished songstress, with at least an equal prospect of honourable distinction.

31. I am clearly of opinion that it is quite possible to hand over the whole work and duty of medical assistance to the poor, to one authority or agency; and moreover, I am satisfied that such unification would add to the efficiency of the service, and reduce its cost. I am further of opinion that such authority or agency should be the local sanitary authority acting through a special committee. I see no need to restrict membership of this special medical aid committee entirely to members of the sanitary authority, and can foresee many advantages in this not being the case. Provided that the sanitary authority secured to itself a majority of the seats upon the suggested special committee to which it would entrust the control and organisation of medical assistance, I think the principle of co-opting members, specially experienced, or otherwise interested in the work to be directed, could be acted upon with great advantage to the community: as, for instance, is the practice in constituting the local education Committee. I should not restrict the co-opted members to humane beings of the male sex. In this way a central directing agency on which the sanitary authority, the medical profession, and sanely philanthropic women were represented would be enabled so to direct its operations as to co-ordinate and combine all the various types of medical assistance to be rendered to the community into one comprehensive organisation of medical aid. The medical officer of health, as the adviser of the sanitary authority, would become the principal executive officer of the local committee of control; and his duties would thus become advisory, administrative and supervisory; advisory to the committee, administrative as to internal organisation of office work, and supervisory as to the external duties performed by the various medical officers,* health visitors, nurses, etc., employed.

32. For such a scheme as that adumbrated to be worked successfully, it would be necessary for all local authorities to be subordinated to a central Government Department which, in turn, would inform itself of the way in which any particular local authority carried out its duties through peripatetic inspectors. To make such a system work satisfactorily, it would be necessary to establish certain minimal requirements by statute in the form of officers, hospitals, dispensary and out-patient departments of hospitals, etc., and to make the provision

* Not printed.

* In my judgment these should be whole-time officers.

APPENDIX No. XLVI.—*Continued.*

of these by local authorities obligatory: such provision being insured by repeated inspections. It should be permissible for any district to advance beyond the statutory requirements, but it should not be possible for any district to fall behind them; and by means of special grants for exceptional efficiency, districts should be encouraged to advance beyond the statutory minimum; but it should not be possible for any authority to fall below it without finding itself compelled to satisfy the statutory requirements, and in the event of such local authority proving refractory, the central authority should be empowered to supersede such defaulting authority, and to surcharge it with all costs. How such a system of statutory requirement, Government inspection, and of rewarding good administration by grants would work in practice, one may draw inferences from the results of the like treatment of the police forces.

33. I am satisfied that the health of the community suffers under existing conditions not so much from insufficiency in amount or quality of the medical assistance at present available for the poor (excepting always home nursing) as from the delay which occurs before such assistance becomes available. To make medical aid most helpful *illnesses need to be sought out* and reported in their earlier stages, and not be left to become firmly established before medical aid is sought. This seeking out of illness can be effected most easily, amongst the poor, by means of women inspectors and health visitors who would pay house to house visits and make inquiries in the poorer districts. With this should go a rationalised propaganda of the leading principles of disease prevention, and this I should commence in the primary schools and elaborate by means of lectures, etc. For example, it is most probable that the vast amount of disablement (temporary and permanent) which is occasioned by what are known as "Gout" and "Rheumatism" could be very largely lessened and indeed prevented if adequate instruction were given respecting the evil results of improper dieting. I repeatedly have evidence of the dangers involved in the delay which takes place in calling for medical aid

in the cases of the notifiable infectious diseases which come under my notice, more particularly with reference to diphtheria, and am told, and in fact, know that a corresponding delay takes place in dealing with the un-notified diseases. In the long run this delay proves very costly as well as dangerous to the community. Suppose, for example, a person without pecuniary resources is taken ill, say with bronchitis, before he or she is attended by the Poor Law medical officer, application for an order has to be made to the relieving officer who has to be satisfied that the applicant is virtually penniless; given that, and all this takes time, an order is made out by the relieving officer which has to be conveyed to the doctor for the district in which the patient resides, and without wilful waste of time, a delay occurs which may be of the highest importance in determining the course, character, and cure of the ailment. In brief, the great fault of the present system is delay. Delay in its earlier stages due most often to ignorance, and in its later to red-tape; and in my judgment this delay is the most deadly disease the community has to treat. A corresponding delay occurs in a greater or lesser degree in connection with all medical assistance for which orders, recommendations, etc., are needed. [Special communities suffer exceptionally in other ways, e.g., the members of the Norwich Friendly Societies' Medical Institute undoubtedly suffer from the circumstance that the local members of the medical profession will not meet their doctors in consultation, or, indeed, hold professional intercourse with them.] Unintentional but detrimental delay often occurs in the case of club patients from the want of reliable information respecting the relative seriousness of the illness: the club doctor receives calls without this information, and naturally makes his visit at the time which is most convenient to himself; whereas, if notification of the illness came from say, a trained health visitor, capable of giving "first aid" he would have reliable guidance as to the seriousness or triviality of the trouble. *Delay, I repeat, is the most deadly disease medical aid has to combat.*

APPENDIX No. XLVII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO THE MEDICAL ASSISTANCE OF THE POOR BY MR. HAROLD MEREDITH RICHARDS, M.D., B.S. (LOND.), M.R.C.S., L.R.C.P., FELLOW OF UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, LONDON; MEDICAL OFFICER OF HEALTH, COUNTY BOROUGH OF CROYDON; MEDICAL OFFICER, CROYDON EDUCATION COMMITTEE; MEDICAL SUPERINTENDENT OF THE BOROUGH (ISOLATION) HOSPITAL, AND OF THE CROYDON AND WIMBLEDON JOINT SMALL-POX HOSPITAL; DIRECTOR, CROYDON BACTERIOLOGICAL LABORATORY; PRESIDENT OF THE HOME COUNTIES BRANCH OF SOCIETY OF MEDICAL OFFICERS OF HEALTH; EXAMINER AND MEMBER OF COUNCIL OF ROYAL SANITARY INSTITUTE, ETC.; FORMERLY MEDICAL OFFICER OF HEALTH, CHESTERFIELD MUNICIPAL BOROUGH AND DRONFIELD URBAN DISTRICT; DEPUTY MEDICAL OFFICER OF HEALTH, DERBYSHIRE COUNTY COUNCIL; MEDICAL SUPERINTENDENT, BIRMINGHAM CITY HOSPITALS; MEDICAL OFFICER NOTTINGHAM CITY HOSPITAL, ETC.

1. It is commonly supposed that the activities of sanitary authorities and their officers are limited to the preparation of vital statistics, and to securing such amelioration of environment as can be attained by the sanitary inspection of dwellings, the provision of public water supplies and so forth. Though much benefit has thus been obtained, I am of opinion that further progress in public health is mainly a question of improved personal hygiene and that medical officers of health will in the future be more concerned with preventive *medicine*, than with sanitary engineering. In the past we had to secure means of ventilation; our present problem is to see that use is made of these means.

2. In Croydon the medical officer of health is also medical officer to the education committee, and so far as practicable a distinction is made in this Statement between the work done under the direction of the Sanitary Committee and that done for the education committee. There is, however, no hard and fast line, and this is one of many reasons why school work should be co-ordinated with that of the Public Health Department.

The estimated population of Croydon County Borough is 154,342.

3. *Staff of the Croydon Public Health Department.*—In addition to the staff engaged in sanitary inspection and in the supervision of foods, the following are employed in

APPENDIX No. XLVII.—*Continued.*

what one may call the preventive medicine side of the department :—

- (a) The medical officer of health.
- (b) The resident medical officer of the borough hospital, who also acts as bacteriologist and deputy medical officer of health.
- (c) The assistant medical officer, borough hospital, who also assists the medical officer of health in investigating outbreaks of infectious disease.
- (d) Three health visitors (women). These are usually selected from applicants who have nursing experience, and an aptitude for educational work. At the moment we are fortunate in having as one of the health visitors a qualified medical woman who wishes to gain practical knowledge of public health work.
- (e) An inspector specially trained to investigate cases of communicable diseases.
- (f) Clerical staff.
- (g) *Auxiliary Medical Assistance.* The Hospital Committee obtain the services of a consulting surgeon when necessary and they also pay another medical practitioner for treating cases of ringworm by X-rays ; extra medical assistance is also obtained when required for the smallpox hospital. The Education Committee also employ an ophthalmic surgeon to examine the eyes of children attending school and a lecturer on school hygiene to instruct their teachers in the application of hygiene to school life.*

4. The above staff, under the general direction of the medical officer of health, is engaged in medical work of various kinds which may be briefly summarised as follows :—

- (a) *Medical treatment* is provided free of charge at the Borough Fever Hospital for patients suffering from scarlet fever, diphtheria and enteric fever, and under special circumstances for other communicable diseases, such as puerperal fever, measles, erysipelas, glanders.
- (b) Small-pox is treated at the hospital of the Croydon and Wimbledon Joint Board, which is elected by Croydon County Borough, Wimbledon Municipal Borough, Croydon Rural District and Penge Urban District.
- (c) Ringworm and minor skin diseases occurring among children attending elementary schools are treated under the direction of the medical officer, suitable cases being submitted for treatment by an X-ray specialist at the expense of the sanitary authority.

5. *Medical Advice* is tendered by the Public Health Department under the following circumstances :—

A.—On the occurrence of notifiable infectious diseases, *i.e.*, diphtheria, scarlet fever, enteric fever, small-pox, puerperal fever, erysipelas, plague. The exact procedure naturally varies in each instance, as measures have to be adapted to the natural history of the disease. As it is not generally appreciated how much strictly medical work is involved in the administrative control of the procedure may be exemplified by considering the case of diphtheria. In the presence of this disease :—

- (a) The medical officer of health frequently sees doubtful cases in consultation with the medical attendant.
- (b) "Swabs" from the patient's throat are examined bacteriologically and quarantine maintained until freedom from infection can be inferred.
- (c) All cases of sore throat or of nasal discharge occurring among inmates of the infected house are examined at the instance of the medical officer of health, and in most instances by the public health staff.
- (d) Should the patient be a child attending an elementary school, a note is made of the particular class, enquiries are made as to sore throat, etc., among class-mates, any cases of suspicious illness are examined in school and absentees followed up at home.

Should two cases of diphtheria occur in one class all the children are medically inspected and cultures taken when suspicious symptoms are observed.

(e) Children who have been in contact with diphtheria are not allowed to resume attendance at public elementary schools until examined both clinically and bacteriologically either by or at the instance of the medical officer.

(f) Advice as to prevention is given in every case both verbally and by handbill.

(g) Diphtheria patients discharged from the borough hospital are occasionally kept under the observation of the public health staff so that they may not attend school work until fit.

In the case of the other notifiable disease the procedure is—*mutatis mutandis*—similar. In most instances more complete control of the disease could be obtained if medical aid were at once sought and if one had more qualified assistance for the discovery of slight and anomalous cases of infection. During 1906 thirty-five cases of notifiable disease were notified by the medical officer of health or his deputy in addition to those seen in consultation with the medical attendant. When small-pox is prevalent in nearly every instance the diagnosis is made by the officers of the Public Health Department.

B.—*Voluntarily Notifiable Diseases—Phthisis and Meningitis.*—All cases coming to the knowledge of the department are visited by one of the medical officers who investigates the origin and explains the methods to be adopted for limiting infection. When necessary further periodical visits are made by one of the health visitors. On the whole the results of making phthisis notifiable have been disappointing. This is largely due to the fact that at present the sanitary authority does not undertake treatment.

C.—*Non-Notifiable Communicable Diseases.*—Cases of measles, German measles, mumps, "sore throat," whooping cough and chicken-pox reported by school teachers and attendance officers are visited and advice given as to the hygiene of the sick-room. Medical treatment is not offered but "swabs" from cases of "sore throat" are usually submitted to bacteriological examination so that anomalous cases of diphtheria may be detected. A short report of each case is made to the medical officer, who advises as to school attendance and investigates any cases which appear to demand special attention :—*e.g.*, chicken-pox ; during a small-pox outbreak ; so-called "mumps," associated with diphtheria ; anomalous cases of measles, etc. Under present conditions these examinations cannot be made as often as one would wish ; supervision is not so complete and the advice given is not so useful as it would be if it were more frequently given by a medical practitioner.

D.—*Diseases of Infant Life.*—Lists of births registered in the borough are received each week from the registrars and a visit is paid by one of the health visitors to such mothers as are likely to welcome advice. In practice this amounts at present to about 73 per cent. of the infants born. At least one other visit is paid during the first six months of life and nearly every death under one year is the subject of investigation. Short "talks" or lectures on infantile ailments and on personal hygiene are also given during the winter to mothers' meetings and similar audiences. During the last four years 238 lectures have thus been given.

6. After more than ten years' personal experience of such work, both in Croydon and in Derbyshire, I am year by year more impressed with the desirability of extending the more definitely medical as opposed to the merely hygienic side of this work. Even trained nurses require to be very closely supervised if their teaching is to be as efficient as possible, while the activities of the half-trained people, sometimes appointed as health visitors, need to be constantly restrained. The choice of a substitute for mother's milk in the case of prematurely weaned infants is in many cases so difficult as to need medical advice. One of the most hopeful measures for combating infantile mortality would be the initiation of clinics similar to that of the Hôpital Tarnier in Paris. At such clinics a diet could be prescribed in detail, the progress of the infant recorded and minor ailments treated while in the curable stage. There is reason to believe that such an

* The council also have a medical staff consisting of a medical superintendent and two assistant medical officers at their mental hospital.

APPENDIX No. XLVII.—*Continued.*

organisation would be especially useful in checking the mortality from infantile diarrhoea.

7. Though the supervision of boarded-out infants under the Infant Life Protection Act is, strange to say, entrusted to the guardians, I am from time to time unofficially consulted by the local inspector under that Act.

8. *Puerperal Fever*.—All notified cases are investigated by one of the health visitors. A handbill of advice to expectant mothers has also been prepared at the suggestion of a practitioner in the town with a large midwifery practice. Cases of puerperal fever occurring among the pauper class are treated by the corporation either in their own houses or at the borough hospital. The number of cases coming within this category is small, but similar assistance might well be rendered to other than pauper cases were the medical work of the district better organised.

9. *Supervision of Midwives*.—The duties of the local authority have been delegated to the Borough Hospital Committee and the inspection of the midwives is carried out by the medical officer, assisted by the health visitors. No arrangements have been made for paying the fees of medical men called into assist midwives, though doubtless such payments will become obligatory before long. Should that be so I am of opinion that if such assistance is to be paid for by the municipality or Poor Law authority the work should be done by the district medical officers who would, from their independent position, be able to exercise an amount of supervision over midwives that is at present impracticable. Under present conditions a private practitioner may be prejudiced in his practice if he does not stand well with the midwives in his district.

10.—*Miscellaneous Medical Work for the Sanitary Authority*.—The medical officer is also from time to time required to give medico-legal advice in connection with claims for alleged injury by the corporation and for compensation under the Employers' Liability Acts. Reports have also to be given in reference to workmen suffering from chronic ill-health.

11. *Medical Work for the Education Committee*.—This is already considerable in amount and must eventually increase. Should the medical inspection of school children become compulsory a large extension of medical work will at once ensue. The medical work carried out in Croydon at present includes :—

(a) The medical examination on two occasions of each pupil teacher candidate.

(b) Reports on the health of members of the staff who are on the sick list.

(c) Examination of blind, deaf and mentally defective children.

(d) Examination of truant children before admission to truant schools.

(e) Examination in certain cases of children alleged to be physically unfit to attend school.

(f) Enquiry into all cases of suspected infectious disease occurring in children attending elementary schools. Cases of this nature to the number of 2,927 were investigated by the health visitors during 1906 and subsequently dealt with by the medical officer.

They included :—

595	cases of suspected measles.
323	" " whooping cough.
289	" " sore throat.
449	" " ringworm.
1,271	" " other cases.

(g) During the year special inquiries are usually instituted into certain medical problems concerning which more information is required. Thus during 1906 the height and weight of children attending two different types of elementary schools were ascertained and compared with similar figures for 1905. An investigation was also made into the prevalence of phthisis among school children.

(h) A system for dealing with verminous children is also supervised. This requires the medical examination of neglected cases prior to prosecution.

(i) As already explained, cases of ringworm excluded from school are treated if the parents so desire.

(j) The ophthalmic surgeon visits the schools and excludes cases of communicable eye diseases. He

also tests the sight of selected children and refers certain cases requiring treatment to the general hospital.

(k) The sanitary condition of the buildings is from time to time ascertained.

(l) Two courses of lectures for teachers on the hygiene of school life are given each year.

The Poor Law.

12. *Outdoor Medical Relief* in the borough is rendered by seven part-time district medical officers. From the published report of the guardians it appears that 2,888 patients were treated by these officers in the year ending lady-day, 1906.

13. *Indoor Medical Relief* is rendered by the infirmary staff, consisting of the medical superintendent and the assistant superintendent. The infirmary accommodation is 410 beds with an average of 395 beds occupied during the year ending 1906.

14. The guardians also appoint the public vaccinators for the borough. These officers are five in number. It is an obvious anomaly that these officers should be appointed by an authority which has no further concern with the prevention of disease.

15. *The Voluntary Hospitals* are two in number :—

(a) The Croydon General Hospital has a nominal accommodation of 100 beds and admitted 925 patients in the year 1905-6. About one-fourth of these patients contribute 5s. per week towards their maintenance while the rest are treated free of cost. During the same period the casualty department dealt with 4,821 persons and the following numbers of patients were treated at the out-patient department :—

Medical and surgical patients	-	-	5,595
Ophthalmic patients	-	-	2,383
Dental patients	-	-	663

The out-patients pay 6d. per week while attending the hospital. Both in-patients and out-patients are required to produce subscribers' letters.

(b) *The Norwood Cottage Hospital* is situated near the borough boundary and treated about 147 patients from the borough during the year ending March, 1906. Patients contribute varying amounts, as fixed by the committee, towards their maintenance in hospital.

Clubs and Dispensaries.

16. *The Croydon Provident Dispensary* (established 1881) has 900 to 1,000 members, who pay for single monthly tickets, 8d. ; for family monthly tickets, 1s. 2d. ; and if more than two children, 1s. 4d. Members can be attended by any one of the five medical officers attached to the institution. Confinements are attended for 18s., and eye, ear and throat cases are also treated.

17. *The Croydon Dispensary* (established 1835) has nearly 1,100 members who pay 1d. a week each with a maximum of 6d. per week per family. Members can be attended by any one of the four medical officers. Confinements are attended for 10s. 6d.

18. *Medical Aid Clubs* have also been established in connection with certain large works and as an auxiliary to many of the provident societies. The following are the most important :—

(a) *The Croydon Gas Company's Sick Fund* has 350 members. The subscription (4d. per week) entitles members to sick pay as well as to medical attendance for members, their wives and children under fifteen.

(b) The local branch of Oddfellows has about 450 members entitled to medical relief.

(c) The Foresters have a membership of eighty-five entitled to medical relief.

(d) The Croydon Slate Club has a membership of 192 entitled to medical relief.

(e) The St. Mark's Dispensary has a membership of ninety-nine entitled to medical relief.

19. There are also other medical clubs of a more or less private character concerning which I have no exact information. Note should also be made of the fact that the members of the police force are attended by the police

APPENDIX No. XLVII.—*Continued.*

surgeon and that post office servants earning less than £150 per annum are attended by the post office medical officers.

20. The medical work of the sanitary authority and of the Education Committee is completely co-ordinated, with very considerable advantage, but under present conditions there is little co-operation between the other agencies charged with the provision of medical relief and advice, nor does it seem possible to effect any considerable change while the public health department and the guardians regard illness from entirely different stand-points. As long as actual destitution is the test of suitability for medical relief many persons just above the pauper class are deprived of medical advice. This is especially the case when the illness is not of a sufficiently alarming nature to induce parents to at once summon a private practitioner. Many cases of whooping cough and measles are thus untreated until complications ensue, and infants are frequently only brought under medical care when lack of skilled advice as to dieting has already produced disastrous results. Similarly anomalous cases of illness and suspected cases of communicable disease which require strict medical supervision do not at present receive that supervision because the public health department has not sufficient qualified assistance; the Poor Law authority does not regard supervision and advice (as opposed to physicking) as one of their functions, and it is difficult to induce poor people to pay for advice if unaccompanied by bottles of medicine. Frequently medical men will advise me that they were called to see a patient suffering from anomalous symptoms, suggestive of, say, scarlet fever, but that on the acute symptoms passing off they had been obliged to cease attendance. Such cases are as far as possible kept under observation by the public health department, though the staff is insufficient to do this efficiently. Again, cases of itch frequently come under notice which could be quickly cured if use could be made of the baths and means of disinfecting clothing which are available at a good infirmary. This is, however, impracticable except in the case of the destitute.

21. Attempts to supplement the work of the public health department by referring children to the general hospital have also been unsatisfactory for the following reasons:—

(a) Occasionally parents are unable to pay the fee, especially when more than one child is affected.

(b) The popularity of the hospital is itself a drawback, as out-patients frequently have to wait several hours before they can be seen. This is a great hardship when weekly visits have to be paid and the mother is a bread-winner.

(c) Furthermore, when cases are referred to the hospital it is difficult for us to continue supervision, as we do not know what opinion the hospital doctor has formed, nor can we get detailed certificates from him—occasionally the certificates are even misleading. The prompt treatment of minor eye diseases has been especially unsatisfactory.

(d) Nominal attendance at the hospital is sometimes made an excuse for absence from school.

(e) Successful treatment necessitates more than weekly calls at the hospital. Home supervision is imperative in many cases, especially if the parents are ignorant or indifferent.

22. The out-patient departments of general hospitals would be more useful to the community if they reserved most of their energies for the diagnosis of cases and referred the patients for treatment to other agencies, unless special therapeutic measures (such as baths, electricity or massage) were required.

23. No effort has yet been made to co-ordinate the work of the borough mental hospital (asylum) with the health department. This would be most useful in connection with the examination of mentally defective children. Arrangements should also be made whereby borderline cases could, with the consent of the parents, be placed under observation at the mental hospital. It is often most difficult to gauge the mental condition of a child at a short interview.

24. Under present conditions illness is rarely viewed from the proper standpoint. The object should be first

to cure the patient; secondly, to prevent a recurrence of the disease in the patient or his associates. The latter object is frequently lost sight of by medical men not trained in preventive medicine, and I have often been astonished to hear suggestions made that, while harmless from the patient's point of view, are dangerous to public health. Thus I recently saw a suspected case of mild scarlet fever for which I advised quarantine, and heard his medical attendant (a perfectly competent doctor) tell the patient that it would do *him* good to take a ride on a tram car. In his anxiety to secure recovery of the patient the doctor had quite lost sight of the risk to the community. Again, private practitioners among the poor are in many respects in an invidious position. While medical work is utterly unorganised, competition compels them to see more patients than they can treat with advantage, cases are often "rushed" and the doctor easily falls into the habit of choosing the line of least resistance, giving the advice that the patient expects and omitting unpalatable advice. Trouble frequently arises in this way respecting medical certificates for exclusion of children from school.

25. In reply to the third question I can see no difficulty in handing over to one authority the whole of the medical assistance of the poor. Even supposing that destitution still remains the test of eligibility for medical treatment, there would be an advantage in co-ordinating the work of the district medical officers with that of the public health department. Qualified practitioners would at once become available for systematic supervision of communicable disease and for those developments of personal hygiene which have been indicated in the first part of this Statement.

26. In the case of communicable disease a considerable amount of free diagnosis is already undertaken and an increase of this work is essential, especially in connection with school work. It is also probable that the extension of the Employers' Liability Act will necessitate the reference of a large number of cases of illness to independent medical men not engaged in private practice.

27. As medical inspection of school children develops, the necessity for undertaking treatment will have to be faced, as has already been the case in respect to a limited number of diseases. In this direction, for various reasons, progress must be gradual.

28. Though I was disposed to fear that an extension of free medical relief might tend to impair parental responsibility and so prove detrimental, experience has convinced me that this is an error. In the case of ring-worm the result has been just the reverse as since we are able to offer free treatment we are able to take a strong line with parents who refuse to carry out our treatment or to get their children treated by other qualified practitioners. In short, the more directly plain medical advice is placed at the disposal of the parents the more easy will it be to make it really compulsory to practise those general principles of personal hygiene which are at present neglected with impunity by the ignorant and by the indifference to the prejudice of the next generation. Even under present conditions the amount paid by the Imperial Government and by the various local authorities is considerable. Thus in the borough of Croydon the amount is over £5,000 per annum. There is, therefore, a considerable nucleus for the gradual formation of a State medical service. Such a service would naturally require considerable clerical assistance which could well be rendered without extra cost to the State by making the registrars and vaccination officers part of the general medical service.

29. Changes of the kind indicated need not, and, in my opinion, should not be made suddenly, as any immediate change would entail either great cost or injustice to vested interests, but if the ideal of a unified medical service were constantly kept in view there would be no difficulty in gradually evolving a satisfactory system. Means would have to be found, by examination or otherwise, for securing high professional qualifications of candidates for posts in the service and the opportunities for promotion and conditions of service should also be such as would tempt men of the highest attainments to enter the ranks.

APPENDIX No. XLVIII.

REPLIES by PEYTON T. B. BEALE, F.R.C.S., to questions submitted to him by the Commission.

In complying with your request to furnish you with a memorandum upon the questions asked, I must apologise for its disjointed nature, and for the fact that the answers are not strictly limited to the questions asked. The time at my disposal has been so short, and my numerous duties so exacting, that I have not had the leisure necessary to arrange my remarks in the manner in which I should like.

I must also state that these remarks are made in my own private capacity, without consultation with any of my colleagues, and they must not in any way be considered as expressing my views as Dean of a Medical School. If the memorandum is to be published, I trust that publication may be in compliance with the above statement.

My experience of the subjects dealt with in the series of questions asked by the Commission is limited to a period of 19 years, and it has been gained whilst holding the following appointments:—

Assistant-Surgeon and Surgeon, King's College Hospital, for 15 years; member of the Committee of Management, and Dean of the Medical School; Surgeon to the Great Northern Central Hospital for 18 years, formerly to out-patients, and recently to in-patients; House-Surgeon to King's College Hospital one year (1889-1890); member of the Committee of Management Great Northern Central Hospital, and member of various sub-committees which have from time to time been appointed to consider the working of the out-patient department and the duties of the almoner, to carry into effect suggestions made by the Central Hospital Council and the British Medical Association as to the class of patients to whom out-patient relief should be given, and the co-operation of Provident Dispensaries and medical men residing in the neighbourhood of the hospital in preventing abuse of the charity by those able to pay for treatment.

Question I.—To what extent are Voluntary Hospitals (indoor and outdoor) used by persons able to make payment for the treatment they receive, and do you think that methods should be adopted with a view to some part or all of the cost of treatment being provided by the patient or his friends either at the hospital or through part-pay hospitals?

Answer I.—There is no doubt whatever that in most of the Voluntary Hospitals in London persons are admitted as in and out patients who can afford to pay outside medical practitioners. The numbers of such patients are becoming less and less every year in proportion as the hospitals appoint properly qualified and trained almoners to inquire into the financial status of all applicants for hospital treatment and so render access to that treatment more irksome and tedious.

As Regards Out-patients.

The people who apply for treatment may be classified as follows:—

- (a) Those who have no home or visible means of subsistence. Such must obviously be admitted and treated somewhere until they are able to take care of themselves; they should, under existing conditions, be referred to the Poor Law Authorities as soon as possible.
- (b) Those who have homes and are just managing to live—i.e., are unable to spend any money at all for prolonged medical treatment, but who might be able to pay for advice and medicine on a single occasion.
- (c) Those who can pay for ordinary medical treatment, but who cannot afford the expenses entailed by prolonged and serious illness or surgical operations.
- (d) Those who when in work are able to afford private treatment, and when out of work are practically penniless. I have come across these in the shape of skilled hands in Wool-

wich Dockyard and Arsenal earning for some weeks about £10 per week, and then out of employment for some months.

Classes b, c and d ought to be efficiently dealt with when their circumstances have been inquired into by a trained almoner.

If Voluntary Hospitals are to remain as now constituted, I consider that a scheme such as the following should be adopted by every out-patient department. This scheme was drawn up as the result of many weeks' careful deliberation, and has been found to work exceedingly well.

The certificate mentioned below as being required by the almoner before a patient can be treated a second time, is one signed by a medical man, or in certain exceptional circumstances, by a minister or other person capable of knowing the patient's means.

Rules for the Admission of Out-patients.

- (1) The hospital is intended for the relief of the sick poor only.
- (2) All cases applying to the hospital out-patient department for relief will be examined in the first instance by a medical officer.
- (3) Persons applying for relief are required to give the fullest information as to the earnings of themselves and family from all sources, and to answer such inquiries as may be necessary to satisfy the almoner that they are entitled to become patients under the regulations of the hospital. A form of certificate is given to all patients who fail to satisfy the almoner as to their fitness, as regards means, for gratuitous treatment, and it must be presented duly signed before the patient is treated a second time.
- (4) The fitness or unfitness of any person for gratuitous relief is as far as possible determined on a wages scale, and those whose earnings exceed this scale are not eligible for relief except under special circumstances.
- (5) Any patient whose condition in the opinion of the out-patient medical officers does not require hospital treatment (for example, trivial cases, and those requiring good food rather than medicine) may be referred by the almoner to his own medical practitioner, to a provident dispensary, or to such other agencies for the relief of sickness or distress as the needs of each case may seem to require.
- (6) All new patients in the out-patient department shall, after registration, be examined by the casualty officer, who shall, by distributing various cards, divide them into two classes:—

- (a) Those seriously ill and requiring immediate treatment or otherwise of special interest to the hon. medical staff.
- (b) Those whose cases are not serious or urgent or are unsuitable for hospital treatment.

The first class he shall refer to the surgeon, physician, or specialist of the day; to the second class he may render first aid, and such patients attending a second time, and having been certified by the almoner, must be referred to the hon. medical officer of the day, who may, if he thinks fit, refer such patients back to the casualty officer for treatment.

(7) All patients, after having been seen by the casualty officer, shall attend before the almoner, bringing their cards. In the case of patients in class (a) the almoner shall make the usual inquiries, excluding such persons as do not come within the regulations of the hospital, and shall require certificates in all doubtful cases, but no patient in class (a) shall be excluded (on account of means) without having been first seen by the physician or surgeon of the day.

(8) The almoner shall examine the patients of the second class and shall refer them in general terms to

APPENDIX No. XLVIII.—*Continued.*

medical practitioners in their own districts, a provident dispensary, or to the Poor Law as discretion and circumstances of each case may dictate.

As Regards In-patients.

There is considerable difficulty in dealing with in-patients as regards their financial position. Experience shows that it is not advisable in any sense to accept the statements made by a patient, his medical attendant, or his relatives or friends in this respect, for the simple reason that they cannot tell whether the patient is suitable for a free ward, a contributing ward, or a pay hospital, for this suitability depends upon (1) what medical or surgical treatment is required, whether, for example, the patient needs only rest or change of air or scene, or whether he requires skilful prolonged nursing and attendance, or a severe operation, and (2) his financial position, (1) and (2) being considered in conjunction. This being so, I consider the proper course to be as follows:—

The patient applying for in-patient relief should be admitted into a receiving ward, and be first examined by a member of the hospital staff, who will determine what medical or surgical treatment is necessary or desirable. Then the patient is examined by a trained almoner as to his financial position, and the almoner makes inquiries from the patients' friends and relations, and from any other available sources, and comes to a conclusion as to whether, in consideration of the treatment which is to be carried out, the patient shall be admitted—(1) to a free ward, (2) to a contributing ward, or (3) to a pay hospital or ward, and in the two latter cases what amount should be paid by the patient or by his friends or employers, should the latter be willing to pay for him.

It is quite certain that no patient should be admitted to a pay or contributing ward or hospital until his financial position, in conjunction with the kind of treatment required, has been fully inquired into by some responsible authority. In the case of a patient who is found able to contribute or to pay, it is clear that he should not be in a free ward, where he is occupying a bed which may be needed for a poor patient unable to pay, and he should not be in a contributing ward if he is in a position to pay for skilled nursing or for surgical operative treatment, and can afford the fees of an experienced physician or surgeon. Of the two evils I prefer the former, *i.e.*, I would prefer him to be kept in a free ward until his medical and financial position have been determined accurately in conjunction with one another, but the medical examination should precede the financial investigation.

The most difficult cases are those of patients coming from a distance to London to place themselves under the care of some particular hospital physician or surgeon whose fees for private treatment they cannot, or will not, pay.

This I consider a most reprehensible practice, but the only way of dealing with it seems to me to institute a strict inquiry system by almoners, much on the same lines as that which is carried out by the Income Tax Authorities (who communicate with one another in all parts of the country and ascertain what income is derived from various occupations in various places).

It is by no means unusual for a patient to come from the North of England to London for treatment which he could receive just as well, and with as great skill, at Liverpool or some other northern city.

It is only necessary here to consider those who are found on investigation by the almoner to be able to pay something towards the cost of their treatment. These should in my opinion be carefully considered by some competent committee of inquiry belonging to the hospital, and having upon it representatives of the staff, and be then admitted to contributing or part paying wards, which should be contiguous to, but not actually a structural part of, the hospital.

(See Rules for Pay Wards, Great Northern Central Hospital, enclosed. (*Appendix No. XLVIII. (4)*)).

I have before me full particulars of the Toronto General Hospital, where patients are admitted at from 30 dols. to 4 dols. a week, and are attended by their own doctors, and have also to pay their attendants' fees. Some are admitted upon a city order, and these are paid for by the city or State from which they come.

This seems an ideal plan, but in the present condition of the medical profession in London it could not be worked, as no hospital committee or governing body would feel inclined to admit outside practitioners to attend patients in their hospital, because they would not have sufficient confidence in their skill, and would not take the responsibility for the treatment such practitioners might desire to carry out.

At the same time this is clearly the line which the hospitals should attempt to take. The general complaint of practitioners is that the hospitals take patients away from them, and keep them attending afterwards, when they could well be attended by their own doctors at their own homes, and it is in many cases quite true. I can quite conceive a plan whereby a practitioner might bring his patient (who was unable to afford proper outside consultation fees) to the hospital at an arranged time and to consult with a member of the hospital staff as to what line of treatment should be adopted. The patient would then be admitted to a ward intended for contributing patients, and the treatment carried out perhaps primarily by a member of the hospital staff, and secondarily and subsequently by the outside practitioner and the hospital resident officer. In such cases I consider that the member of the hospital staff should receive such fee for his services as might be arranged.

Question II.—Considering the patients both from the medical and from the social point of view, to what extent is there any co-operation or overlapping between Voluntary Hospitals and the Poor Law in regard to indoor or outdoor patients, and what suggestions would you make towards a scheme of co-operation?

Answer II.—As Regards Surgical In-patients.—It is quite usual to find patients in a Voluntary Hospital who have on a previous occasion been in a Poor Law Infirmary. In some parts of London a hospital and an infirmary are within a short distance of one another. Both are provided with operation theatres fitted with costly and elaborate appliances and instruments. Both are doing the same work. In one instance at least there is a mutual understanding between the infirmary medical superintendent and the hospital—he sends cases to the hospital requiring operation, when they are in a fit state to be moved, and the hospital sends him such cases as, from pressure upon the beds, cannot be kept. I should like to see some scheme whereby all acute cases and those requiring operation are at once sent to the hospital. Thus the hospital would treat acute cases only, and when they were fit to be moved they would enter the infirmary.

'As Regards Out-patients.

I see no reason why every person requiring out-patient treatment should not be treated at the out-patient department of a hospital. If there could be a closer union between the hospital and the Poor Law Infirmary, such as would abolish the necessity for keeping in a high state of efficiency two separate institutions doing much the same type of work, the relief of the destitute, of those unable to pay, and of those unable to contribute towards the cost of their treatment, would, I believe, be carried out much more economically than at present.

It would, however, require at first (1) a very close co-operation between the Guardians and the Hospital Committee; (2) the appointment of more than one almoner at each hospital; (3) the appointment of several persons acting under the almoners who would know the whole district around the hospital and infirmary, and be in a position to form an opinion as to which applicants for relief should be recommended to join a provident dispensary, and which be sent to a medical man outside. In a very short time it would be found that patients able to pay would not apply for charitable relief. They would realise that it was no use trying to get for nothing that for which they were able to pay. There would always have to be a medical opinion expressed as to what kind of treatment was required (expensive drugs or appliances, prolonged treatment, etc.) before an almoner could judge whether the patient was fit for charitable treatment or not. It would also be necessary to remove the existing condition whereby a patient admitted to an infirmary loses his parliamentary vote for a year.

APPENDIX No. XLVIII.—*Continued.*

I should like here to say a few words about private hospitals and nursing homes. Medical and surgical science has advanced in late years to such an extent that very few, if any, of the existing nursing homes are able to afford the appliances, laboratories, theatres, X-ray apparatus, etc., necessary for modern treatment.

It has been found in Toronto that all patients, even those able to afford large fees, insist upon being treated in a properly built and equipped hospital.

I am not aware that there is in London one nursing home nearly as well equipped for treating disease as the most modern of our Poor Law Infirmaries, so that a patient who can afford to pay one hundred guineas for an operation *may* not now receive treatment as safely, or as efficiently, as a hospital or infirmary patient.

Question III.—What would be the effect on Voluntary Hospitals of a State-provided or rate-provided system of gratuitous medical relief either for indoor patients or for outdoor patients, or for both?

Answer III.—There is, as far as I am aware, in London, no evidence as to the effect of the working of any such system. The only answer I can make is an expression of my own pious opinion to the effect that properly organised assistance provided from the State, or from the rates, or from both, for our hospitals would relieve the members of the committee and the hon. staff from an enormous amount of anxiety regarding the finances of the hospital to which they were attached, and would cause them to realise in a very short time (probably not immediately) that the prodigious amount of work that they are now doing and have done in the past to relieve the sick poor, was shown to be worthy of some recognition, and would enable them to redouble their efforts in combating disease, in carrying out researches to ascertain the cause of disease, and to find out remedies for diseases at present incurable. In proof of this I need only mention the stimulus which has been given to research in the pathology of diseases of the nervous system by the splendidly equipped and staffed laboratories of the new County Council Asylums.

Question IV.—What would be the effect on Voluntary Hospitals of State-provided aid towards building or management expenses, and if such a system were adopted what conditions do you suggest should be attached to such grants?

Answer IV.—It seems to me that King Edward's Fund will soon become the one and only source for the reception of charitable donations and subscriptions intended for hospitals. As old friends of existing particular hospitals die, it becomes more and more difficult to obtain money from the public. The public now seems to prefer to pay a sum to the King's Fund and to allow the Fund to distribute money to the various hospitals. I welcome the King's Fund as the great distributor of charitable funds to each hospital, and I welcome also its methods of inquiring into the management of each hospital, and of pointing out defects and extravagances, and commending economies.

There might well be a State body which would distribute State aid to the various hospitals. Assuming each existing hospital to be affiliated to the Poor Law Infirmary nearest to it, it should not be difficult to determine what proportion of the work done in the two institutions should be paid by State or rate aid. Under such conditions of working I think the State should build all hospitals. The King's Fund would then equip and maintain them, aided by contributions from the State, or from the rates, or from both. The conditions attached to State-provided aid should be exactly such as are enforced by the King's Fund at the present time. This fund sends visitors to every hospital and receives reports from them as to economical working, proper equipment, etc. It also takes steps to ensure hospitals being placed in districts where they are most needed, and to ensure proper inquiries being made as to the class of persons applying for relief. I consider that it has already done more good in the short period during which it had been at work than has been accomplished in the fifty years previously. The removal of King's College Hospital is a case in point. Without the aid of the King's Fund this could never have been accomplished.

I think also that the present hon. staffs of the hospitals should be appointed by the State, and receive remuneration for the work which they perform—work which is now far more arduous and exacting than it was some years ago.

APPENDIX No. XLVIII (A).

Handed in by P. T. B. Beale, F.R.C.S.

GREAT NORTHERN CENTRAL HOSPITAL, HOLLOWAY ROAD, N.

PAY WARDS.

- I.—The Pay Wards are intended for the benefit of Patients of limited incomes who are willing to contribute towards the cost of their maintenance when in the Hospital.
- II.—Except in urgent cases, Patients can be admitted only after consideration of their applications by the House Committee of the Hospital. The Committee meets to receive applications every Wednesday at 5.30 p.m. Each application must be accompanied by a Recommendation from a Registered Medical Practitioner.
- III.—Intending Patients may obtain forms of application, and information as regards payments, from the Secretary, at the Hospital.
- IV.—No Patient can be received without a guarantee in writing (on the form provided for the purpose) from some responsible person, for the necessary payments and for the removal of the Patient when required.
- V.—Patients will be admitted under the care of the Medical Officers of the Hospital, who will alone be permitted to prescribe the treatment to be carried out in each case.
- VI.—Patients may be visited by their friends as follows:—Sundays, 1.30 to 3; Tuesdays and Fridays, 5 to 6. Permission to visit on other days can only be granted in exceptional cases, on application to the Secretary, and subject to the approval of the Resident Medical Officer in charge of the case.
- VII.—Patients must in all respects conform to the regulations from time to time prescribed by the House Committee for the due government and management of the Hospital and all matters incidental to their position therein and removal therefrom.

The treatment of the Patients in the Pay Wards is undertaken by the Honorary Medical Staff gratuitously, under the same conditions as to the treatment of Patients in the Free Wards.

PAYMENTS.

Payments may be made to the Secretary at the Hospital on week-days from 10 to 4; Saturdays, 10 to 1. Payments in all cases must be weekly in advance. Part of a week will be charged as a whole week.

[These rules are not, in my opinion, ideal, but when they were drawn up, they formed the best solution of a very difficult problem which was possible under the existing circumstances. I do not believe that Pay or Contributing Wards should be a structural part of a free hospital, nor do I consider that the patients in them should be treated gratuitously by the Hon. Staff].—P.T.B.B.

APPENDIX No. XLVIII. (A).—*Continued.**Handed in by P. T. B. Beale, F.R.C.S.*GREAT NORTHERN CENTRAL HOSPITAL,
HOLLOWAY ROAD, N.

APPLICATION FOR ADMISSION TO THE PAY WARDS

N.B.—This Application cannot be entertained unless ALL the Particulars required are furnished in full.

Name of Patient (in full) _____

Address _____

Age _____ Married or Single _____

If a Married } Occupation _____
 Woman, state }
 occupation and }
 means of Hus- } Amount of Income or Annual Receipts _____
 band. }

Number of Children _____ Number dependent _____

Number assisting patient _____

Name and Address of Relative }
 or Friend to whom Notice should }
 be sent when the Patient is }
 about to leave the Hospital, or }
 in the event of the disease under }
 which the Patient is suffering }
 becoming serious, also the names }
 and addresses of two house- }
 holders to whom the Patient is }
 known. }

GUARANTEE.

TO BE SIGNED BY A HOUSEHOLDER.

I, the undersigned, hereby guarantee on behalf of _____
 payment at the rate of £ : : per week while the said _____
 is under treatment in a Pay Ward of the Great Northern Hospital, and I undertake to remove
 _____ when required to do so by the Hospital Committee.

Witness to the Signature } Signature _____
 of _____ } Address _____
 Date _____

APPENDIX No. XLVIII. (A).—*Continued.*

Handed in by P. T. B. Beale, F.R.C.S.

FORM OF RECOMMENDATION.

TO BE FILLED UP AND SIGNED BY PATIENT'S PRIVATE MEDICAL ATTENDANT.

I hereby Certify that _____

of _____

is suffering from _____

and is, in my opinion, a fit case for admission to the Pay Wards of the Great Northern Central Hospital.

Signature, _____

Date _____ 189 Qualifications _____

Address _____

APPENDIX No. XLIX.

REPLIES by Sir HENRY BURDETT, K.C.B., to Questions submitted to him by the Commission.

By way of introduction I may point out that the principles involved raised by the four questions submitted to me by the Royal Commission on the Poor Laws and Relief of Distress have been under discussion with more or less persistence for upwards of forty years, during the whole of which time I have been actively connected with the administration of hospital affairs in the United Kingdom. Private committees or commissions of various kinds have sat since Sir William Fergusson's famous Commission of 1871, most of them having covered mainly the same ground, and their recommendations having unfortunately remained for the most part unenforced. It is remarkable in this connection to remember that if the six recommendations of Sir William Fergusson's Committee of 1871 had been adopted, it is not too much to declare that all or nearly all of the principal abuses attaching to the voluntary hospitals in England in the present day would have been obviated and prevented. The underlying cause of all the trouble is want of co-operation for any effective purpose amongst the whole of the voluntary hospitals, Poor Law infirmaries, and the authorities responsible for granting free medical relief in any form. If this could be effected, as it ought to be effected without delay, we should then obtain a standard of efficiency in regard to the administration of each group of medical institutions, and it would be easy to make it impossible for anyone to misuse charity by obtaining free medical relief from any existing agency of any kind if they were not by their circumstances entitled to receive it.

I will now deal with the questions in order.

THE ABUSE OF VOLUNTARY HOSPITALS.

Question I.—To what extent are Voluntary Hospitals (indoor and outdoor) used by persons able to make payment for the treatment which they receive, and do you think that methods should be adopted with a view to some part or all of the cost of treatment being provided by the patient or his friends, either at the hospital or through part-pay hospitals?

Answer I.—There is no doubt that all the facts available tend to prove that the Voluntary Hospitals are used at present to an increasing extent by persons able to make payment, or partial payment, for the treatment which they receive. I could occupy much space with statistics demonstrating these facts, but I refrain from doing so because I understand that many statistics bearing on this point have already been laid before the Commission.

The underlying cause of this condition of affairs is that no means at present exist whereby persons of moderate income can obtain efficient treatment and hospital care when ill at a rate which they can afford to pay. The present system, or want of system, whereby medical relief is granted to practically all applicants by the Voluntary Hospitals has grown up without any combined attempt to organise it efficiently, or to check abuses. The whole system rests upon a wrong basis, and the best interests of every class of the population demand that it should be abolished in favour of a system which will afford the maximum of justice.

(1) To the poor.

(2) To those who can afford to pay in part or in whole the cost of their medical treatment and care at a hospital.

(3) To the medical profession.

(4) To the subscribers and supporters of Voluntary Hospitals, whose gifts should be strictly applied to the purposes they were intended to serve; and

(5) To the ratepayers who are entitled to a guarantee that the maximum efficiency is secured by the Poor Law system of medical relief.

That the present plan of free medical relief to practically all applicants granted by the Voluntary Hospital rests upon a wrong basis is proved by the effects which other systems in other countries have had upon the reduction of the abuse of charity. The remedy is very simple and easy of application. Every

Voluntary Hospital, whilst admitting at once all accident and urgent cases needing immediate attention, should institute a system whereby each applicant would be asked to prove that he or she was a fit object of charity. The only real attempt to reduce abuse has so far been the appointment by many of the larger hospitals in recent times of almoners, to ascertain whether certain selected patients were in a position to pay or not. By putting the burden of proof of eligibility to receive free medical relief upon the patients and their friends, all abuse of every kind must speedily cease. There would be no hardship entailed upon the patients by such a system, as experience has proved, but to make it effective the present system of providing for in and out patients must be radically changed in this country, for as matters stand at present if a voluntary hospital attempted to enforce this simple method they would be met with the difficulty that where it was found that a patient or his friends could pay at any rate something, there is no department connected with British hospitals—as is the case in regard to hospitals in the United States—to which such in-patients could be transferred to accommodation provided in paying wards. In the same way, directly the out-patients were dealt with under such a system it would be made apparent, where a case could be properly treated under the Poor Law, that no plan of co-operation to secure this is at present organised. If the patient, being of a better class, were suffering from a relatively minor ailment, and could be properly dealt with at a Provident Dispensary, the fees of which he could easily pay, the same absence of co-operation must make it practically impossible readily to enforce the system. When, again, an out patient of the better class was entitled, from the severity of his ailment, to receive the advantages of a consultation by the medical staff, no method at present exists whereby this aid could be rendered to him and his transfer afterwards to the care of a medical practitioner attached to some Provident Dispensary, or resident near the patient's home, could be properly carried out. It follows that it is essential, if adequate reform is to be effected, that methods should be adopted with a view to some part or all of the cost of treatment being provided by the patient or his friends by an entire reorganisation of the existing system of medical relief, not only at the voluntary hospitals, but under the Poor Law system as it exists at present. The reforms required in regard to voluntary hospitals are that every large hospital shall have connected with the in-patient department, in separate buildings, but under the administration of the managers, pay wards for the reception of those patients who are able to pay some part or all of the cost of treatment; that, as regards out-patients, the out-patient department, as it at present exists, should be abolished; that in substitution for it each hospital should have a casualty department and a department for consultation. In the casualty department every applicant should be seen once, and be there disposed of by being handed on to the consultation department; if his case was sufficiently important, he should then be transferred to some Provident or Poor Law Dispensary, or be referred to a private medical attendant. It would no doubt take time to overcome the incidental difficulties which would necessarily arise in effecting so radical a reform as is here contemplated, but if all voluntary hospitals adopted the same system, and were to be brought into active co-operation with Provident Dispensaries and Poor Law Dispensaries and private medical practitioners, the new system might be successfully introduced and made effective within twelve months, and probably within six months, from the date of its commencement. This opinion is based upon the assumption that the existing Provident Dispensaries would be standardised, and that everyone of them would be brought up to a state of the highest efficiency. In the town of Northampton the Royal Victoria Dispensary has been worked with the maximum of success, so far as the patients and the medical practitioners are concerned. In London and in other large towns like Manchester and elsewhere the

APPENDIX No. XLIX.—*Continued.*

Provident Dispensary has, so far, not succeeded as it has done in Northampton, because the members of the medical profession are not alive to the importance of making it their first business to provide that every patient connected with the Provident Dispensary who attends at the surgery of a private medical practitioner receives at least equal attention and accommodation to that afforded to every other private patient, whatever the fee he may pay. In the same way, Poor Law Dispensaries, as they exist to-day, must be radically reformed. Everything which tends to excite a feeling of shame on the part of the patient attending the Poor Law Dispensary, such as the printing of the word "pauper" at the beginning of the space on which the patient's name is entered, must be abolished, and the class of medical service and all the arrangements for the treatment of the patients, however poor, at the Poor Law Dispensary, must be made at least as efficient as those provided by voluntary hospitals.

I would recommend, in this connection, for the consideration of the Commission, a careful study of the Swedish system of medical relief in all its bearings, and I would venture, further, to suggest the introduction by the Government of a system of insurance whereby for a small but adequate annual premium everybody who desired to maintain their self-respect should be able to obtain medical relief when ill, and to pay for it at a rate within their means.

I may briefly remind the Commission that in Sweden the Government have for many years worked the hospitals on a system which would confer great benefits upon our towns, by bringing the Poor Law and Voluntary Institutions into more intimate association, though managed by separate governing bodies. This has been secured in Sweden by a scale of charges demanded from all patients who are admitted to the hospital. The first grade pays a substantial sum, and obtains anything and everything the patient may care to have or to pay for, subject to the control of the medical attendant. The second pays a much less, but a remunerative, rate for all that they receive at the hospital; and the third class are paupers, who are paid for on an agreed scale by the Poor Law authorities. Thus, well-to-do, thrifty artisan and improvident pauper are all treated by one staff, controlled by one administration, and are located in immediate proximity to each other, though in separate pavilions. This I believe to be the true system to aim at securing, and I hope that ultimately some such plan will find acceptance in Great Britain, to the advantage of everyone concerned. As to a system of Government insurance whereby all classes who desire to be thrifty may pay a small annual premium in the day of health, and secure adequate hospital treatment and care when ill, I may state that for some years I have had this point under consideration, and with the aid of an eminent actuary have worked out certain tables which show that for a relatively small annual premium—say £3 per annum as a maximum—the whole sum necessary to defray the cost of hospital medical treatment in a pay ward or at a consultation department of a great hospital can be provided as a matter of business. The reason why it has been under consideration is that it was suggested that a great insurance company might be provided by private enterprise to meet this urgently-demanded reform. I have hesitated, however, to associate my name with the scheme from the circumstance that, to make it efficient, it is necessary in the first instance, assuming, as I have ascertained to be the fact, the the existing Voluntary Hospitals, or many of them, have sites available upon which pay wards might be erected, to provide initially a large capital outlay, which in my judgment could only be supplied through the munificence of some millionaire or the co-operation of the State. Granted the provision of the initial cost for buildings and equipment, an adequate system of pay wards for the whole country could be rapidly introduced, and the new system here suggested could speedily be brought into practical working. I propose to deal with this point fully in my reply to Question IV.

OVERLAPPING BETWEEN VOLUNTARY HOSPITALS AND THE POOR LAW.

Question II.—Considering the patients both from the medical and from the social point of view, to what extent is there any co-operation or overlapping between Voluntary Hospitals and the

Poor Law in regard to indoor or outdoor patients, and what suggestions would you make towards a scheme of co-operation?

Answer II.—My reply to this question, having been dealt with by anticipation in my preceding remarks to a large extent, may be brief. In the absence of any adequate system of co-operation, and a clear understanding of the relative duties cast upon the Voluntary Hospital managers and Poor Law Guardians, there must necessarily be, and there undoubtedly is at the present time, considerable overlapping between Voluntary Hospitals and the Poor Law. So far as co-operation is concerned at present, it amounts in practice to the giving of relatively small annual subscriptions by Poor Law authorities to Voluntary Hospitals in certain districts. It includes further payments made by Poor Law authorities to certain hospitals at a fixed rate per diem for Poor Law cases which may be admitted to the latter. In the case of Cottage Hospitals—and I believe I am correct in saying in regard to certain County and some Metropolitan Hospitals—some Boards of Guardians agree to pay the cost of the medical treatment of accident and operation cases, and they also occasionally defray the cost of artificial limbs and appliances where such are needed to enable the patients to have the best facilities for maintaining themselves after their discharge from the hospital. I think, however, that were a standard of the medical relief granted by

(a) Voluntary Hospitals, and

(b) The Poor Law Institutions

to be established, accompanied by adequate co-operation, overlapping between the two classes of institutions must cease. In this connection I may be permitted to urge strongly that it must never be forgotten that the function of the Poor Law is the relief of destitution, whilst it should be the object and duty of each Voluntary Hospital to apply its resources entirely to the prevention of destitution by stepping in to grant free medical relief to the provident and thrifty when, through no fault of their own, they meet with an accident or are overtaken by disease. In this way it is the privilege of the Voluntary Hospitals to save such patients from the necessity of requiring the relief which it is the object of the Poor Law to supply.

THE EFFECT OF A STATE-PROVIDED OR RATE-PROVIDED SYSTEM OF GRATUITOUS MEDICAL RELIEF.

Question III.—What would be the effect on Voluntary Hospitals of a State-provided or rate-provided system of gratuitous medical relief, either for indoor patients or for outdoor patients, or for both?

Answer III.—Having devoted myself for upwards of forty years to an earnest endeavour to provide that all our Voluntary Hospitals shall be supplied with ample means from voluntary contributions adequately to relieve the deserving poor who in the days of health are able to maintain themselves without any aid from the Poor Law, I should regard the provision of a State-provided or rate-provided system of gratuitous medical relief, either for indoor patients or for outdoor patients, or for both, as a grave evil. My opinion on this point rests upon the knowledge that the effect of such State-provided or rate-provided medical relief must eventually lead to the extinction of the Voluntary Hospital system. Such a result must be attended by the gravest evils, for it would injure the morale of all classes and tend to harden unnecessarily the relations which at the present time so happily exist between rich and poor, who through our voluntary system have come to share each other's sufferings and to be animated by the warmest feeling of respect and confidence towards each other.

STATE-PROVIDED AID TOWARDS THE BUILDING AND MANAGEMENT EXPENSES OF VOLUNTARY HOSPITALS.

Question IV.—What would be the effect on Voluntary Hospitals of State-provided aid towards building or management expenses, and, if such a system were adopted, what conditions do you suggest should be attached to such grants?

Answer IV.—First of all, I may say that, in my view, no State-provided aid is required or should be given towards the management expenses of Voluntary

APPENDIX No. XLIX.—*Continued.*

Hospitals. I am of opinion, however, that under proper safeguards the effect on Voluntary Hospitals of State-provided aid towards building expenses could be made of the highest value. It would enable the whole existing system of medical relief in this country to be remodelled so as to secure that in practice the existing abuses attaching to free medical relief in this country should be finally abolished. The first essential connected with a great financial change such as is here contemplated must be to secure that no State aid of the kind should be granted to any Voluntary Hospital in advance of the requirements of the population to the needs of which it ministers. Otherwise large sums might be spent upon new buildings in advance of the actual requirements of the population, with the result, which some existing Voluntary hospitals exhibit to-day, that when these buildings had been erected they must be kept inadequately equipped and sometimes wholly unoccupied for want of money to defray the cost of keeping the beds occupied. Had this proposal been adopted ten years ago, it might have entailed an expenditure of between ten and fifteen millions sterling on the part of the State, for during this period many of the principal hospitals have been reconstructed or rebuilt, and the money to defray the cost of this work has been provided from voluntary sources. To state a fact like this is to prove to demonstration the success of systematic voluntary support of hospitals in this country as it exists to-day. But apart from this, I regard it as most fortunate that any such State aid provided towards building in connection with voluntary hospitals will, in fact, as matters stand at present, be occasionally, if not entirely, required to defray the cost of erection of wings for the setting up of a system of pay wards throughout the country. If adequate grants by way of loan at, say, 3 per cent. can be made to voluntary hospitals for this purpose, it should be possible, under an insurance scheme such as I have indicated, to provide for the repayment of these loans by a sinking fund out of the payments received by the patients who are admitted to treatment in the pay wards. An insurance scheme, preferably under Government auspices, is desirable, because it would reduce the whole matter to a business basis by guaranteeing the hospitals against loss, and insuring the prompt payment of the fees charged to patients in the pay wards. I have satisfied myself, as I have already stated, that such a system of insurance could be made profitable in the ordinary course of business. Still, the late Henry Fawcett, when Postmaster-General, showed that the trend of opinion in this country is popularly in favour of thrift, and it is undoubtedly the duty of the State in every possible way to encourage all classes to exercise thrift and not to look to the State for doles, or the payment of many matters which a self-respecting man or woman must properly regard as items which should be met by themselves out of their own resources. I would suggest that in the case of any such grants by the State to voluntary hospitals for buildings, the following conditions, amongst others, should be enforced:—

1. All grants should be confined to the expenses of building and equipment of pay wards, or in the alternative to new buildings and equipment for some special department rendered necessary owing to modern medical requirements.

2. Before any grant was made, a complete building scheme, with plans, should be submitted and approved, together with an estimate of the cost of equipment, furniture, etc., and it should be clearly laid down that any grants made should be expended only upon the objects covered by the approved scheme.

3. That before any payment should be made under any grant of the kind, evidence should be required, including a Budget statement, showing how the money for the maintenance and upkeep of the new department or pay ward is to be provided.

In regard to this condition, I may point out that medical opinion in this country requires that any system of pay wards shall be so conceived as to render it possible that the medical attendance of the patients shall be provided under a system which will do full justice to the interests of the medical men. Whilst it is essential for economical and administrative considerations, as an experience of thirty years' working of a pay hospital in this country has convinced me, that pay wards shall be attached to hospitals, it is

further essential that the scale of charges in connection with each such department shall be such as to secure that it will pay its way, and all accounts connected with it must be kept separately. From the modern point of view, three requirements must be fulfilled:—

1. The pay ward, though under the same administration, must have a separate entrance and be quite distinct from the free hospital.

2. The medical staff must fix the scale of remuneration they are to receive for their services in the pay wards, and

3. No member of any medical staff should be compelled to undertake the charge of patients in the pay wards as part of his duty to the hospital.

If these conditions are fulfilled, there is evidence to show that medical men attached to hospital staffs would be willing to see patients in the pay wards at a reduced rate, and that they would consent to a fixed scale of fees. There will, I have little doubt, be certain members of the staff whose time is too fully occupied to enable them to attend cases in the pay wards, and hence freedom of action must be given to every member of every hospital staff in this connection.

This system would have the following further advantages, for it would secure that:—

1. All abuses in connection with the in-patient departments of the voluntary hospitals would cease.

2. Adequate accommodation would be provided for every class of person who desires hospital treatment for payment in whole or in part.

3. The medical service would be paid for and organised upon a plan which will protect the interests of every member of the profession, including members of the hospital staff, as well as the general practitioner.

4. The wisest economy in administration must prevail.

5. The training of nurses for private work would at length be made efficient.

6. A check would be effectually placed upon the improper growth of medical treatment in hospitals by preventing those who can afford it from obtaining such relief without payment, as they do at present.

I venture to attach great importance to the re-organisation of our existing system of medical relief in this country in all departments upon the plan which I have ventured to formulate. The institution of pay wards containing nothing but paying patients in connection with the voluntary hospitals in this country is called for, because there is no other means whereby the ever-increasing growth in the number of hospital patients can be effectually regulated and hospital abuse prevented. We must have a reform in our present methods of hospital relief, or there is a very real danger that the rising generation will demand free hospital treatment as their birthright, no matter what their means be, and so great injury must ensue to the moral fibre of the nation as a whole. Free medical relief has a tendency, unless given with a due regard to the social position of each recipient, to make against habits of thrift and self-dependence.

May I venture, in conclusion, to impress upon the Commission the fact that the new system which I have indicated would in practice enforce all except one of the six recommendations of Sir William Fergusson's Commission in 1871? It involves the improved administration of Poor Law medical relief; the placing of all free dispensaries under the control of the Poor Law authorities; the establishment of an adequate system of Provident Dispensaries; the curtailment of the present unrestricted system of gratuitous relief, partly by the selection of cases possessing special clinical interest, and partly by the exclusion of those who, on social grounds, are not entitled to gratuitous medical advice; the payment of the medical staff engaged in in and out patient work by fees in the pay wards, and the consultation departments of the voluntary hospitals. It does not involve the abolition of all payments for medicine, because experience has proved that in practice these small payments, which might be continued in connection with the casualty departments of the voluntary hospitals, do no harm. On the contrary, they do, in fact, produce an important revenue for the hospitals which have made experiments with this system.

APPENDIX No. L.

REPLIES by Dr. J. FREDERICK W. SILK, to questions submitted to him by the Commission.

Question I.—To what extent are Voluntary Hospitals (indoor and outdoor) used by persons able to make payment for the treatment they receive, and do you think that methods should be adopted with a view to some part or all of the cost of treatment being provided by the patient or his friends either at the hospital or through part-pay hospitals?

Answer I.—If by Voluntary Hospitals is meant "General Hospitals," and by payment "adequate payment, at its market value," I doubt whether any serious abuse of hospitals exists that cannot be easily controlled by the hospitals themselves, or by inquiry officers or almoners. Owing to the very natural tendency of the public to run after "Specialists," there is, no doubt, a greater danger of abuse in the case of Special Hospitals, but even this should be easily controllable if the Special Hospitals would only take the trouble to do so. And even in the case of the Special Hospitals the tendency to abuse is less marked of late years owing to the fact that special departments are now established at most of the large General Hospitals, where the regulations as to the admission of patients are more stringent and carried out with greater independence and sense of responsibility. Such abuse as does exist is largely due, particularly in the Special Hospitals, to the rivalry between the respective institutions, each hospital seeking to justify its existence in the eyes of its subscribers by recording a large number of "cases relieved" and interesting cases.

It ought not to be possible to set up a hospital in any district without the sanction of the Local Authority, after satisfying the latter that the general or local conditions justify the establishment; in deciding this question, while due weight should be attached to the opinion and good will of the local practitioners, these should not be the sole determining factors in arriving at a conclusion upon the subject. Probably the majority of patients *could*, and I think a good many do, contribute small sums to the hospitals (if only a few pence), but such payments cannot possibly be commensurate with the value of the highly-skilled and valuable advice received and the expensive appliances which are at their disposal. Even in the aggregate I doubt whether such sums could be made to bear any appreciable proportion to the enormous cost of modern hospital management. In some cases, and in some neighbourhoods, advice and medicine can be obtained from local practitioners for even less than 6d. a visit, either directly or through one of the sick clubs or benefit societies. But although of course there are many honourable exceptions, on the whole such advice is more often than not much worse than useless. It has been shown, too, that the club system, as at present conducted, is open to such flagrant abuse that many respectable practitioners decline to have anything to do with them. But of the money which, as some maintain, is thus diverted from the pockets of the struggling practitioner, a not inconsiderable proportion would reach the prescribing chemist, the quack, and the patent medicine fraud, who undoubtedly reap rich harvests out of the pence of the poor and needy. Only a proportion would go to the practitioners. I am doubtful therefore whether the objection made to hospitals on behalf of the "struggling practitioner" is of any real importance. The real objections to the part-payment system rest upon the enormous extent to which it encourages hospital abuse, and the increased expense entailed by the employment of additional inquiry officers. The part-payment patient is, for financial reasons, apt to be accepted in lieu of the really necessitous poor, who are crowded out. Not a tithe of the class from which such part-payment patients are derived can be induced to believe that their payments, however small, do not represent the market value of the advice and treatment they receive, or that the money does not go direct into the pockets of the staff. This has a bad moral effect both upon the staff and upon the patients, and renders

the latter difficult to manage. Any attempt at a differential tariff is not only open to the same objections, but the difficulties of nursing such patients are very greatly increased. Objections, too, are raised to such part-payment patients being used for teaching purposes. In any case, to prevent abuse, most stringent regulations must be enforced, and careful enquiries made as to each patient and this is only possible where the hospital is small and the district it serves very limited in area. It becomes impossible when the hospital draws its patients from large and thickly populated districts.

On the whole, I do not think, therefore, that the payment system should be adopted either in whole or in part.

It not infrequently happens that patients come to London and the larger provincial towns from considerable distances in the country; they not only pay a good deal of money for railway fares, but often actually pass through towns in which there are good hospitals. In very many instances this is quite unnecessary and should be guarded against as far as possible.

I would abolish all "Subscribers' Letters," and I believe that the substitution of the recommendation of local practitioners is open to even graver abuses. Each case should be judged on its own merits.

Question II.—Considering the patients both from the medical and from the social point of view, to what extent is there any co-operation or overlapping between Voluntary Hospitals and the Poor Law in regard to indoor or outdoor patients, and what suggestions would you make towards a scheme of co-operation?

Answer II.—At present there is a good deal of overlapping, and the municipalities have just awakened up to their responsibilities in the direction of medical relief, and are spending vast sums in the erection, equipment, and management of their infirmaries. The overlapping will gradually become more and more acute, and there will sooner or later come a time when there will be an actual competition between the two for cases to fill the hospital wards for teaching purposes. One of the most important functions of the hospitals is that of teaching, and already many excellent teaching cases are lost in the infirmaries. This overlapping is largely due to the inherent difficulties in deciding which cases are eligible for hospitals and which for infirmaries.

I would certainly advocate co-operation between the hospitals and the Poor Laws. In outline, the plan I would suggest would be:—I would abolish all parochial medical officers as such, and all hospital out-patient departments except for such special departments as eyes, throats, ears, skins, and possibly gynaecology.

In each parish or district I would establish, if they did not already exist, several dispensaries with very full staffs of both residential and consulting medical officers and inquiry or relieving officers. Applications for relief to be made primarily to a dispensary. Very trivial cases could be treated there; more severe cases would be visited at their own homes, or seen by one of the consultants. If acute, special, surgical, or of clinical interest they would be transferred forthwith to a hospital; if chronic or mainly the result of senility or malnutrition they would be sent into the infirmary. Cases should not be retained in the hospitals for more than a definite period—(?) three months. Practically this amounts to the transfer of the out-patient departments to several local centres. The environment of the patient has an immense and important bearing upon the treatment, and should always be inquired into. This can only be done by visiting them in their homes.

APPENDIX No. L.—*Continued.*

The whole cost of these dispensaries to be paid out of the rates. The staff of the dispensaries to be paid, but to be elected by and responsible to the hospitals with which they are affiliated. Students would attend these dispensaries for out-patient instruction at the hands of the consulting staff. The latter might possibly, in due course, be promoted to the hospitals when they would cease to receive any payment. Application for medical relief should not *ipso facto* pauperise a patient.

The scheme thus outlined may perhaps be considered Utopian, and, of course, would require to be carefully worked out in detail, due regard being paid to the various professional and other interests. But I do not think that these interests need be irreconcilable, or that the difficulties are insurmountable. At any rate, it leaves the voluntary position of the hospitals intact, while at the same time relieving them of the great cost of the out-patient departments. The hospitals would always be open for the reception of accidents and casualties.

Question III.—What would be the effect on Voluntary Hospitals of a State-provided or rate-provided system of gratuitous medical relief either for indoor patients or for outdoor patients, or for both?

Answer III.—As I understand the matter, some such system has always existed. In former years relief was only accorded out of the rates to those who "came on the rates" and voluntarily or involuntarily declared themselves paupers. It was to meet the wants of the stratum of society immediately above this that Voluntary Hospitals were founded. The feeling is rapidly gaining ground that the duties of municipalities and the State in the matter of medical relief should extend to a considerable portion of the community hitherto dependent upon Voluntary Hospitals. The effect of such extension would be to greatly diminish the voluntary subscriptions upon which the hospitals depend, so that they could no longer be maintained in the state of efficiency which has been their chief characteristic hitherto. The question is complicated by the desire to retain the hospitals in some shape or form (which could, I think, be done by the plan suggested above), and still further by the desire to make provision for a very large and

most deserving portion of the community which at present is much worse off in the matter of expert medical assistance than the day labourer or pauper, viz., people of the clerk and governess type. I am quite in sympathy with both these desires, but I think that they should be kept quite distinct and dealt with independently of each other. The most urgent need for the latter class is, in my opinion, relief from the great expense of efficient nursing in cases of prolonged illness and an organised system for obtaining special and surgical treatment at reduced fees. I see no difficulty about this.*

Question IV.—What would be the effect on Voluntary Hospitals of State-provided aid towards building or management expenses, and if such a system were adopted what conditions do you suggest should be attached to such grants?

Answer IV.—The conditions which must of necessity attach to such aid must tend to deprive the hospitals of their independence, and to retard or stifle progress.

To obtain a grant towards building, the plans must meet with the approval of the State. Either a special hospital bureau would have to be set up, which might tend to red-tapism and political jockeying, or special advisers quite unacquainted with local conditions would be consulted and would over-ride the better informed.

State aid for management would mean State representation on hospital boards of management, or auditing of accounts by a public auditor. I do not think that either of these conditions is advisable.

Rate aid might perhaps be preferable to State aid, as there would be a certain amount of emulation between the municipalities, but I do not advocate either form of subvention. If some such plan as that suggested be not adopted, the hospitals should either be taken over entirely or left alone.

The views I have expressed are entirely personal to myself, and I am not in any way expressing the opinions of the staff of the hospital with which I have the honour to be connected.

* A very great desideratum is the establishment of well-equipped Nursing Homes in the districts where this class of the community mostly reside. Not only should the nursing fees be low, but the doctors who attend patients in these homes should do so at fixed reduced fees irrespective of the status of the patient, and such fees should be paid in the first instance to the home authorities and not direct to the doctors.

If the State or the Municipalities took over the Voluntary Hospitals *en bloc* provision would have to be made for the adequate remuneration of the whole of the staff of such hospitals.

APPENDIX No. LI.

REPLIES by THEODORE THOMPSON, M.A., M.D. (Cantab.), M.R.C.P. (Lond.), F.R.C.S. (Eng.), Assistant Physician to the London Hospital, Assistant Physician to the Hospital for Sick Children, Great Ormond Street, Physician to the Poplar Hospital, to questions submitted to him by the Commission.

Question I.—To what extent are Voluntary Hospitals (indoor and outdoor) used by persons able to make payment for the treatment they receive, and do you think that methods should be adopted with a view to some part or all of the cost of treatment being provided by the patient or his friends either at the hospital or through part-pay hospitals?

Answer I.—The extent to which Voluntary Hospitals are used by persons able to make payment for the treatment they receive varies with the different classes of hospitals. These may be divided into—

- (a) The large general hospitals.
- (b) The smaller general hospitals in the outlying districts of London.
- (c) The hospitals for the treatment of special diseases.

As I happen to be a member of the staff of a hospital in each class, I have perhaps exceptional opportunities for observation on this question.

APPENDIX No. LI.—*Continued*.

(a) The London Hospital, to which I am attached, may be taken as the type of the great central general hospitals. While the very great majority of patients are quite unable to pay for the services they require, yet a certain proportion exists who could afford to pay something towards their treatment. These persons belong to the middle class, and attend the hospital for special treatment, such as surgical operations, treatment by the "Finsen Light," "X-Rays," and "Radiant Heat Baths," etc., which they cannot obtain from the general practitioner, and for which the fees charged by specialists are generally too great for a class which has to keep up an appearance of respectability and at the same time feels greatly the heavy burdens of rates and taxes. As a concrete example of this I may quote the following case:—A person of the middle class attended the hospital on the recommendation of his family doctor. A difficult operation was performed, and he completely recovered. During his stay in the hospital he provided the other 25 patients in the ward with milk and fruit daily, and when he was discharged gave a donation of £10 to the institution. While affording all praise to this person for his generosity, it seems clear that he would have been able to pay, in part at any rate, for the difficult operation performed upon him.

(b) At the smaller general hospitals in the outlying districts of London, such as the Poplar Hospital for Accidents, to which I belong, the number of people able to pay anything for treatment is exceedingly small. These hospitals are as a rule situated in working-class districts, and any prolonged illness makes it practically impossible for the working people to pay even the very small fees of the general practitioner, while they are totally unable to afford to pay anything for the special forms of treatment above mentioned.

(c) At the hospitals for the treatment of special diseases, the class of patients who attend are often able to pay something for the treatment. These hospitals are largely used by general practitioners to send their patients for expert opinion, and are thus looked upon as consultative institutions. As a result, many patients make long journeys to be seen at the hospitals, and are therefore of a better position than the majority of people attending general hospitals.

Thus in 1903, at the Hospital for Sick Children, in nearly 5 per cent. of the cases the parents had an income of 35s. a week or over, while in one-third of the cases they were in receipt of 25s. a week or over.

The best method to be adopted with a view to the part payment for indoor treatment by such patients is in my opinion, to establish certain wards in the large general hospitals and in the special hospitals where patients of the middle classes could be treated at a fixed fee, part to go to the hospital and part to the physician or surgeon who attends them. If this is in certain cases impossible, the difficulty could be met by erecting a suitable building adjacent to the general hospital, in which the persons treated might pay in part for their treatment. This is, in my opinion, the best solution for indoor treatment. With regard to outdoor treatment, the question is more difficult. It has been partly met by the establishment of almoners, who inquire into the means of all patients who present themselves for outdoor treatment. Such officials have been appointed by the hospitals to which I belong. The difficulty lies especially in the class of people who earn £2 a week in a situation and have to keep up a considerable appearance in order to retain their situations. The establishment of part-pay outdoor hospitals for this class of patient would naturally and very rightly be strongly opposed by the general practitioners who form the great proportion of the medical profession. Possibly the difficulty might be met by all patients who are sent up to the hospital with a doctor's recommendation being made to pay a small fee, unless the doctor who sends them states that they are unable to do so. In my opinion, the establishment of new part-pay hospitals for outdoor treatment would be a great mistake, since the conditions can be met by a modification of the rules of existing institutions, of which there are already a plethora. The amalgamation of the smaller hospitals now being carried out at the

instance of King Edward's Hospital Fund is an excellent reform, and the addition of special part-pay hospitals for outdoor treatment to their number is inadvisable.

Question II.—Considering the patients both from the medical and from the social point of view, to what extent is there any co-operation or overlapping between Voluntary Hospitals and the Poor Law in regard to indoor or outdoor patients, and what suggestions would you make towards a scheme of co-operation?

Answer II.—Both from the medical and social point of view I consider that the relations at present existing between Voluntary Hospitals and Poor Law Infirmarys are excellent. The Voluntary Hospitals are institutions in which not only are existing methods of treatment applied for the benefit of patients, but are also places where new methods of treatment are devised, and in which investigations into the causes of disease are carried out. The Poor Law Infirmarys, not being equipped for such research, take over from the Voluntary Hospitals chronic cases of disease which would otherwise, if kept in the Voluntary Hospitals for long periods of time, prevent the treatment of acute cases of disease. These remarks apply to indoor and outdoor treatment. Many patients, however, show much unwillingness to enter a Poor Law Infirmary, but this is rather a question of the management of the infirmaries than of their relations to the Voluntary Hospitals, which are only indirectly affected.

Question III.—What would be the effect on Voluntary Hospitals of a State-provided or rate-provided system of gratuitous medical relief either for indoor patients or for outdoor patients, or for both?

Answer III.—It is impossible for me to state my opinion as to what would be the effect of a State-provided or rate-provided system of gratuitous medical relief unless I was in possession of further details as to how this system would be applied. As a general statement, however, I consider that a competitive system of gratuitous medical relief would be distinctly disadvantageous to the Voluntary Hospitals, and would hamper them in their special work of endeavouring to perfect the methods of treatment of disease. The voluntary subscriptions to such hospitals by the public would almost certainly decrease were a competitive State or rate provided system of gratuitous medical relief in existence.

Question IV.—What would be the effect on Voluntary Hospitals of State-provided aid towards building or management expenses, and if such a system were adopted what conditions do you suggest should be attached to such grants?

Answer IV.—I consider that State-provided aid would be distinctly advantageous to Voluntary Hospitals, and, in fact, that it has become a necessity. Rate-provided aid, on the other hand, would not, in my opinion, be advisable. This aid should be provided for building and management expenses. I would point out that the Voluntary Hospitals train all the doctors for the Army and for the Navy, and do this without receiving any recompense from the Government. The aid given to the Government by the nurses who are trained in the Voluntary Hospitals should also be considered.

The conditions which I suggest should be attached to such grants are as follows:—

- (1) That the hospitals thus aided should be subject to inspection by the Local Government Board.
- (2) That King Edward's Hospital Fund should report to the Local Government Board on the finances, management, and work of the hospitals to which such grants are made.

APPENDIX No. LII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY DRS. A. E. COPE AND ARTHUR DRURY, ON BEHALF OF THE ASSOCIATION OF PUBLIC VACCINATORS OF ENGLAND AND WALES.

1. The following extracts from Memoranda and Resolutions explain the position of the Association of Public Vaccinators of England and Wales upon the question of the transfer of vaccination from the guardians of the poor to some other administrative authority.

2. Resolution of the Council, November 22nd, 1901:—

"That in view of the very serious danger now threatening the community by reason of the obstructive methods adopted by many boards of guardians in regard to vaccination and re-vaccination, the Council of the Association of Public Vaccinators of England and Wales consider that it is of vital importance that the whole administration of vaccination should be removed from the control of local boards, and vested entirely in the Local Government Board, or some other central authority."

3. Report of Council to members of the association, 1902:—

"Your Council are of opinion that the administration of vaccination should be removed from the boards of guardians and placed entirely in the hands of the Local Government Board."

4. Letter to the President of the Local Government Board (Right Hon. Walter Long, M.P.), June 23rd, 1903:—

"With reference to the authority which should administer the Vaccination Acts, the Council begs respectfully to give it as its opinion that the only authority to which such administration can be wisely removed is the Central Government Sanitary Authority—namely, the Local Government Board itself.

"The Council's opinion is . . . that vaccination should be central, and not local, in administration, and

that, unless complete centralisation, or until satisfactory change of local authority, can be secured, the present authority should continue to administer the Acts, but the public vaccinator should be responsible solely to the Local Government Board."

5. Letter to the President of the Local Government Board (Right Hon. John Burns, M.P.), May 2nd, 1906:—

"The Association desires to emphasise as strongly as possible the absolute necessity which exists for a complete nationalisation of the vaccination service in England and Wales, if its inhabitants are to derive any advantage commensurate with the efforts put forth. . . . There is one branch of the public service which is completely organised and uniformly administered, is free from all local political influence, and is co-ordinated and controlled by a central authority, viz., the Registration Service. There are at present many points of contact between registration and vaccination and an extension of the vaccination organisation on lines parallel with that of registration, rather than on the lines of Poor Law or sanitary administration, would appear to afford the most satisfactory solution of the problem as to how, with a minimum of alteration in the existing law and practice, to render uniform and complete the vaccination system, and make it truly national."

6. The views of the association, as thus expressed, have been formed after careful consideration and with intimate knowledge of the difficulties of the problem to be solved. The Council of the association will be pleased to have the opportunity of sending representatives to explain the reasons which have led to these conclusions, and to answer any questions which the Poor Law Commissioners may wish to put to them.

APPENDIX No. LIII.

STATEMENT BY KING EDWARD'S HOSPITAL FUND FOR LONDON MADE IN REPLY TO QUESTIONS ASKED BY THE ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE POOR LAWS AND RELIEF OF DISTRESS.

81, Cheapside, E.C.
October, 1906.

GENERAL INFORMATION.

1. In 1897, when this fund was founded, it was calculated that £100,000 to £150,000 would put the hospitals of London on a sound financial basis.

2. The amount distributed among hospitals has been as follows:—

	£
1897 - - - - -	56,826
1898 - - - - -	32,500
1899 - - - - -	42,000
1900 - - - - -	50,000
1901 - - - - -	51,000
1902 - - - - -	101,000
1903 - - - - -	100,000
1904 - - - - -	80,000
1905 - - - - -	101,000

3. The number of hospitals to which grants were made in 1905 was 94.

4. The working expenses of the fund for 1905 were 12s. 6d. per cent. on the amount received for the year.

5. The first Statistical Report published related to the year 1903 and then included sixteen hospitals. For the year 1904 it comprised thirty-six hospitals. For the year 1905 it comprised forty-eight hospitals. The figures show that the saving on the sixteen hospitals which were the subject of the first report amounted to about £20,000 for the year 1905, this being the first year in which they had had time to avail themselves of the information supplied to them. The figures for the year following cannot yet be calculated.

(A) *The basis on which the fund is distributed among hospitals.*

6. Every spring a list of institutions applying for grants is considered by the executive committee, now sixteen in number, who decide whether any institution is to be debarred from the list by reason of not being strictly a hospital or being outside the limit, which comprises all within seven miles of Charing Cross or within the

APPENDIX No. LIII.—*Continued.*

London County Council area. Those admitted are then allocated in convenient groups to the visiting committee, consisting of medical men and laymen in equal numbers—in all at present fifty-two. Each hospital is subsequently visited by a medical man and a layman, who send in their report to the fund office. Care is taken to change round so that the same institution is not inspected for too long a period by the same visitors. The distribution committee, now ten in number, meet after the visitors' reports are received and other information tabulated and sit *de die in diem* until their work is concluded. Their first consideration is the amount available for distribution, which has been settled by the executive committee. This amount is then compared with the amount distributed in the year previous. The needs and obligations of the hospitals come next, for the fund was initiated to put the London hospitals on a sound financial basis. The reports of the visitors furnish the most important evidence and these are very carefully considered, foremost among their conclusions being the question as to whether the conditions, if any, on which last year's grant was given have been complied with. The working of each institution is judged from the economical point of view as shown in many cases by King Edward's Hospital Fund's Statistical Report (copies of which are appended together with copies of our last Annual Report, that for 1905), and encouragement is given to those who show good management. Awards having been agreed on and the list having been revised, it is then sent through the executive committee to the general council, numbering at present thirty-nine, and by them approved or amended.

7. But it must be remembered that these committees and the council itself are only advisory bodies, the members being nominated annually by His Royal Highness the President, who approves, or if he so desires has the power to disapprove, the course recommended.

8. Thus we have as security against error in all seven safeguards, namely the reports of the inspecting visitors both medical and lay, the Statistical Report, the judgment of the distribution committee, which includes leading representatives of the medical and surgical professions, the approval of the executive committee, through whom the proposals of the distribution committee pass on to the general council, which is in itself a strong and representative body. Further, we have the constant supervision of His Royal Highness the President and on more important matters the sanction of His Majesty the founder and patron of the fund which bears his name.

(B) *Whether any, and if so what, conditions are attached to the acceptance of a grant from the fund.*

9. All grants are subject to the following two conditions:—

(a) As the result of the report of a Committee appointed to enquire into the financial relations between hospitals and medical schools in London (a copy of which is enclosed), the Hospitals were notified on April 12, 1905, that on and after January 1, 1906, no grants would be made to any hospitals which made payments to, or on account of, their medical schools out of general funds subscribed for the relief of the sick poor.

(b) All hospitals receiving grants are required to present their accounts in accordance with the "Uniform System of Hospital Accounts," including a balance sheet.

10. Special conditions are frequently attached for such objects as the following:—

(a) To open (or re-open) and maintain beds closed for want of funds. 413 beds hitherto closed have been made available by this means up to the present date.

(b) To reduce debt.

Where a hospital owes money to its tradesmen it is practically unable to purchase supplies in the open markets, and is consequently put to additional cost for purchase of ordinary supplies. Or it may be that owing money to a bank it is handicapped by the interest payable.

(c) For special work, as for purchase of adjoining land which is urgently required,—or for an operating room, improvement of nurses' accommodation, etc.

(d) For removal to a place where its services are more required than on its present site, as in the case of King's College Hospital now removing to South London.

(e) For amalgamation, as in the case of the Orthopaedic hospitals now being amalgamated in view of the fact that one central special hospital with a country branch will be better for patients who require lengthy treatment, with probably a series of small operations, than three rival institutions all in the streets of London.

(f) For extension where this appears badly needed.

Care is taken that sums given for special purposes are used for the purpose intended, and it should be clearly understood that the sums given for special purposes are as a rule not necessarily to be considered as adequate for the purpose but as substantial grants to encourage the collection of the whole amount required.

(C) *The future of the finance of voluntary hospitals in London as judged by past tendencies and present conditions.*

11. The answer to Question C being a matter of opinion, we prefer to leave the subject to individuals whose responsibility is limited to their own evidence.

(D) *The extent to which the Poor Law infirmaries are competing with the work of the general hospitals.*

12. This being a matter which does not come within the scope of our work, we are not in a position to answer this question satisfactorily.

SUPPLEMENTARY STATEMENT, JULY, 1908.

13. As the result of the King Edward's Hospital Fund for London Act, 1907, the constitution and procedure of the Fund have been altered in the following respects amongst others:—

(1) The Fund is now a corporation and the governing body is the president and general council.

(2) The distribution committee recommends as to all questions of distribution to hospitals and reports direct to the president and general council.

(3) The power of deciding all questions as to the distribution or disposal of the funds of the corporation is vested in the president and general council.

(4) In all other matters the president has power to approve or to disapprove the course recommended.

MEMORANDUM BY THE MEDICAL OFFICER OF THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT
BOARD ON THE UNIFICATION OF THE OFFICIAL MEDICAL
SERVICES FOR THE POOR.

As indicated by the terms of the reference to me which is appended to this Memorandum, I am asked to make general observations on the feasibility and expediency of separating the powers and duties of the Poor Law guardians in connection with medical relief from those relating to ordinary relief and transferring them to the existing sanitary authorities; and to make further observations on points of detail in relation to this proposal.

It is assumed in the reference (Appendix): (1) That these powers and duties as to medical relief will remain the same as at present; and (2) that no change apart from the transfer will occur in the existing sanitary authorities.

These conditions have been assumed to hold good in the following Memorandum, except that, as occasion has necessitated, I have pointed out the unsatisfactory character of many of the smaller sanitary authorities, and the importance of modifying the official medical services for the poor, in such a way as shall prevent the evils arising from the belated and insufficient treatment of disease.

On the general question of the feasibility of the suggested severance, I have nothing to add to the answer given to Question 1 (a), except that the magnitude of any difficulties involved in the transfer will need to be considered in context with the advantages to public health which would result. If a given change of sanitary administration improves the value in sanitary result obtained for a given expenditure of money and energy, it is desirable to obtain this result; and a similar criterion must be applied to decide whether a measure is feasible or not. Feasibility is usually a relative term; and as there is no inherent impracticability in the suggestion to unify the medical services for the poor, which I am asked to discuss, the question turns on the degree of desirability, as set forth in subsequent sections of this Memorandum.

In my answer in detail I shall give reasons for the conclusion that the present division of medical duties is gravely mischievous to public health, and the unification suggested is very desirable. The only general observations which appear to me to be required in supplement to these detailed replies consist of a short statement of the principles on which, as it appears to me, the consideration of such questions should be based. Sickness is always more costly than the means for preserving or restoring health; and the standard of medical aid required by the community, both on economic and on hygienic grounds, is such a system as will ensure the early recognition and the proper treatment of all sickness. Early recognition of disease, followed by its efficient treatment, is one of the most important parts of preventive medicine, not only by preventing the spread of infection, but also by preventing in a large proportion of cases the later and less curable stages of serious disease which may not be infectious. It has to be added that under the present conditions of treatment of sickness for the poor, diagnosis is usually belated, treatment is curtailed, and its efficiency is correspondingly diminished.

(1) (a) *Assuming such severance as above mentioned, what practical arrangements could be made for medical relief by sanitary authorities?*

There would be no serious difficulty in the sanitary authority taking over the district medical officers, and undertaking through them the outdoor medical work now done under the Poor Law. Under the auspices of the sanitary authority, a larger proportion of the destitute sick might be expected to apply for medical aid. Any case in which the qualification was in doubt could be referred to the relieving officers, who would continue under the board of guardians or whatever body may take its place, and would make any necessary inquiry for the sanitary authority, just as at the present time attendance officers under the control of the education committee investigate and report to the watch committee cases of boy-workers, and to the medical officer of health the causes of absence from school of suspected children.

APPENDIX No. LIV.—*Continued.*

In some cases there would be difficulties in the transference to the sanitary authority of the medical work now carried on in workhouses and workhouse infirmaries, owing to structural and administrative identity between the two. Such difficulties are not likely to be insurmountable in any case, but it is impossible to express the mechanism best suited for the transfer in a formula universally applicable. As a rule the administrative arrangements would have to be considered with an eye to the special circumstances of each case. If there are separate buildings for sick and able-bodied paupers, separate administration can be arranged. In larger administrative areas it will even be practicable to specialise, allotting particular buildings to special classes of cases. In smaller areas, where at present the workhouse and infirmary are in the same building, it would be desirable to separate them, if this could be done conveniently and without too great expense. The possibility of such separation would depend on the nature of other purposes for which building accommodation was required, and on the possibility of adapting existing buildings of the guardians for such purposes or in some other way effecting an exchange. In many cases where this was impracticable the addition of some part of a building might possibly permit the separation of existing premises into two. The addition for instance of a separate kitchen might enable the infirmary building or the infirmary wing to be shut off from the workhouse. However, when the circumstances of each case allowed of it, it would be indispensable to find means for avoiding dual control in a single building, which would be likely to be fatal to efficient administration.

(1) (b) *Whether the existing use by sanitary authorities of their powers as to the prevention of disease and treatment of infectious disease including the management of hospitals are on the whole satisfactory.*

Among sanitary authorities are included bodies charged with the health of as few as 219 and as many as more than 700,000 persons, employing medical officers of health giving as little of their time as is represented by a salary of £3 per annum, up to whole-time officers, and differing in a great variety of other local circumstances.

I do not see how I can offer any trustworthy estimate of the efficiency "as a whole" of this heterogeneous collection of administrations. A first approximation to such an estimate is all that can be put forward with any confidence, and perhaps the most convenient way of obtaining this is to set forth the relative death-rates in successive quinquennial periods since 1861-65 from all causes and from certain diseases over which sanitary authorities have exerted especial control.

I do not include in this table the figures for phthisis and smallpox, because the administrative control of these diseases has been divided between the sanitary authorities and the boards of guardians. Nor have I included measles and whooping cough, which the majority of sanitary authorities have made little effort to combat. I may add that I entertain little hope of success in respect of these two diseases until more efficient medical attendance is promptly available in the homes of the very poor.

TABLE I.
RELATIVE DEATH-RATES, 1861-65 to 1901-05.

(The death-rate under each heading in 1901-5 is given as 100, and the death-rates in earlier quinquennia are stated in proportion to this).

—	General Death- rate.	Scarlet Fever.	Diphtheria and Croup.	Typhus.	Enteric Fever.	Diarrhoea and Dysentery.	Erysipelas.
1861-65	141	780	243	—	—	135	244
1866-70	140	762	152	—	—	182	230
1871-75	133	603	133	5,820	331	152	295
1876-80	130	540	125	2,440	246	126	226
1881-85	122	346	144	1,630	192	99	231
1886-90	119	192	134	472	159	101	151
1891-96	117	145	146	272	154	96	134
1896-1900	111	107	139	100	155	121	98
1901-05	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Death-rate per 1000 of population in 1901-05.	16.00	0.13	0.22	0.001	0.11	0.68	0.04

APPENDIX No. LIV.—*Continued.*

The record here set forth is, on the whole, extremely satisfactory. The improvement exhibited is due in part to general social amelioration, as broadly indicated in the reduction of the general death-rate. The much greater reduction than that shown by the general death-rate, which has occurred in the death-rate from those diseases with which sanitary authorities have busied themselves, suggests that the aggregate action of sanitary authorities must have had a very substantial share in the improvement of public health, although it cannot be measured with exact numerical accuracy by the excess of the reduction in the death-rate from these diseases over that from all causes in the aggregate. For enteric and typhus fevers the sanitary authorities may claim the entire credit.

An enumeration of some details of the work performed by sanitary authorities leads roughly to the same conclusion.

They have hospitals for the treatment of cases of the more serious acute infectious diseases, and occasionally they lend out nurses for the home treatment of cases of these diseases, especially of puerperal fever, erysipelas and enteric fever. They provide, in many instances, antitoxic serum for the gratuitous treatment of diphtheria, both for prophylactic and for curative purposes. The medical officer of health acts both in consultation with practitioners and independently in diagnosing doubtful cases of these diseases; and either he or his medical assistant visits infected or suspected houses, with a view to the detection of "contact" cases and "missed" or overlooked cases. A large proportion of sanitary authorities also provide gratuitously for the diagnosis of doubtful cases of diphtheria, enteric fever, and phthisis by bacteriological means. A few sanitary authorities pay doctors' fees when they have been sent for by midwives in difficult cases. Much work is also being done by sanitary authorities in the treatment of phthisis (consumption). Free examination of sputum is provided. Voluntary or compulsory notification of cases is followed, to some extent, by action beneficial both to the patient and his family. The patient's room is disinfected and cleansed; spit-bottles and handkerchiefs are supplied; sanatorium training and treatment may be, and is sometimes, provided (in Brighton half the total notified cases have been treated and trained in the sanatorium). Similar instructions as to the management of the patient's illness and the prevention of infection are given to the patient at home. Any relatives found to be flagging in health are encouraged to secure medical aid or helped by its provision. The new work opened up by the compulsory medical inspection of scholars under the Education (Administrative Provisions) Act, 1907, will lead to the detection of much disease, advice being given to parents as to the appropriate medical aid. School clinics have been begun in some towns for the treatment of certain diseases, especially the neglected chronic communicable diseases of the scalp and skin. The school nurse and health visitors are following up this work by school and domiciliary visits. The responsibility for lunacy is divided, the guardians paying for most of the patients in asylums, with the help of a capitation allowance from the Government, while county councils and county boroughs administer the asylums.

This statement is incomplete, but it discloses the facts that the line has never been strictly drawn between the prevention and the treatment of disease, and that sanitary authorities are already responsible for the treatment of a very high proportion of the total acute sickness among the poor. If lunacy be included under this head, sanitary authorities, including county councils, probably treat more than half of the total sickness institutionally treated at the expense of rates and taxes. The attribution of a substantial share in the reduction of disease to the administration of the sanitary authorities is thus justified by a summary analysis of their work, and the conclusion, favourable to the aggregate work of the sanitary authorities, must include, "on the whole," the several elements of administration to which reference is made in the Question 1 (b).

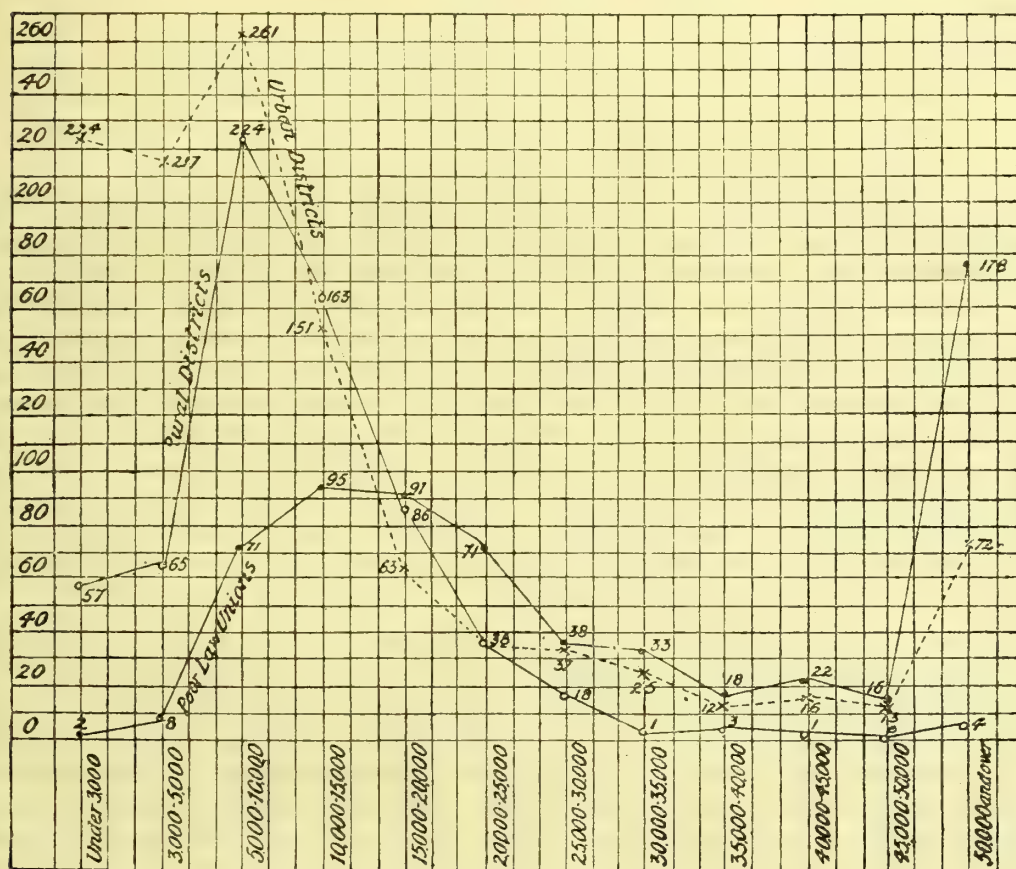
Although I do not wish materially to qualify this conclusion in respect of scarlet fever, it may be desirable to deal here with the suggestion occasionally made that the continued prevalence of this disease shows that the isolation hospitals of sanitary authorities have failed to restrain it. This suggestion, and such evidence as has been advanced to favour it, ignore the facts that our knowledge of the means of spread of this disease is imperfect, and that the segregation of recognised cases is only one out of many preventive means required. Before this extremely and rapidly infective disease can be expected to disappear, sanitary authorities will require more accurate and rapid means of avoiding "missed" cases and more efficient provision of medical supervision of the families of patients, than at present are usually secured. Meanwhile, hospitals for scarlet fever not

APPENDIX No. LIV.—Continued.

only meet a great social need, but, where established by sanitary authorities, aid in controlling the disease, although the results are masked by sources of infection at present beyond our control.

The conclusions to which these facts lead in regard to sanitary authorities are that their existing use of their powers as to the prevention of disease and treatment of infectious disease, including management of hospitals, are on the whole satisfactory, so far as a valid opinion can be expressed on the average behaviour of a very heterogeneous collection of bodies. To any one familiar with the workings of the less efficient sanitary authorities it will be obvious that this conclusion in regard to the general body of authorities, in regard to many of them is not justified. In order to form an idea of the extent to which this relative inefficiency is to be expected, it is convenient to consider shortly the distribution of the population of England and Wales among sanitary authorities and among boards of guardians respectively. The facts are summarised in Table II. and the same facts are set out graphically in Fig. 1.

FIG. 1.



APPENDIX No. LIV.—*Continued.*

TABLE II.
ENGLAND AND WALES.
Number of Poor Law Unions and Sanitary Areas classified according to population in 1901.

Population.	Poor Law Unions.	Rural Sanitary Districts.	Urban Sanitary Districts.
Under 3,000 - - - - -	2	57	224
3,000-5,000 - - - - -	8	65	217
5,000-10,000 - - - - -	71	224	261
10,000-15,000 - - - - -	95	163	151
15,000-20,000 - - - - -	91	86	63
20,000-25,000 - - - - -	71	33	33
25,000-30,000 - - - - -	33	18	37
30,000-35,000 - - - - -	33	1	25
35,000-40,000 - - - - -	13	3	12
40,000-45,000 - - - - -	22	1	16
45,000-50,000 - - - - -	16	-	13
50,000 and over - - - - -	178	4	72
Totals - - - - -	643	660	1 129

■ Taking the country as a whole, the average population of sanitary areas is not much more than one-third that of unions. This is owing chiefly to the number of very small urban and rural sanitary districts. Of the total 660 rural districts and 1,129 urban districts 8·5 per cent. of the former and 19·9 per cent. of the latter had a population under 3,000, 18·4 per cent. of the former and 39·1 per cent. of the latter had a population under 5,000, 52·4 per cent. of the former and 62·2 per cent. of the latter had a population under 10,000. On the contrary, only 12·7 per cent. of the Poor Law unions had a population under 10,000. These figures need to be partially qualified for the few districts which have combined to secure the services of a medical officer of health who devotes the whole or a large part of his time to the public service. Such combined authorities do not affect materially the general view that more than half of the sanitary authorities—happily, however, representing a much smaller proportion of the population of the country—consist of units of less than 10,000 population.

Experience has shown that, as area of administration is sub-divided below certain minimum limits, so local personal interests predominate; and that, in accordance with this, a very large proportion of the smaller sanitary authorities are unworthy of their powers. Local considerations of expense and favouritism, and the insecurity of tenure of office of their sanitary officers, make efficient work an exception. A chief reason why sanitary progress has been impeded, is furnished by the continued existence of these unsatisfactory small sanitary authorities. They do not as a rule obtain skilled advice, nor can they afford to obtain it when uncombined with other districts. Even when such advice is obtained, a small area of administration increases the risk of its neglect.

In considering, therefore, the work of sanitary authorities under any improved conditions, it is indispensable that the anomalously small authorities must be combined or re-distributed into units of at least the same order of magnitude as that of the large majority of the parochial unions, so that each may have within the reasonable limits of its purse the minimum staff and equipment required for efficiency.

(2) *Whether it would be prejudicial to the existing functions of sanitary authorities to super-impose upon them the functions of the guardians in relation to the treatment of disease.*

In the course of my answer to Question 1 (a) it has been shown that the sanitary authorities already treat a very large amount of sickness. The super-position on sanitary authorities of the medical functions of the guardians would in addition place under their control, such part of the medical treatment of the destitute poor as is not already in their hands. The destitute poor are precisely that class of the community whose disease is most largely caused or increased by the sanitary conditions of their homes and families, the supervision of which is already incumbent on the sanitary authorities. This supervision at present has to be conducted under the grave disadvantage that Poor Law medical

APPENDIX No. LIV.—*Continued.*

officers are the only persons with medical knowledge who are acquainted through daily intercourse with the evil and insanitary conditions associated with sickness among the very poor. The knowledge as to circumstances of sanitary significance, which they could acquire on the mere occasions of being called in to discharge medical duties, is at present sought by the sanitary authorities through the over-lapping but infrequent and less satisfactory visits of a sanitary inspector. Subject to the condition that new district medical officers should possess sanitary as well as purely medical knowledge, the transfer to the sanitary authorities of their duties and services and the daily co-ordination of their work with that of the medical officer of health, so far from being prejudicial to the existing functions of the sanitary authorities would immediately relieve the inspectors of these authorities of much work now done under less advantageous conditions than those of the district medical officer. Thus, with no greatly added expense, the sanitary authorities would secure more complete and more timely information than they now obtain. When account is taken of the importance of securing preventive measures at the earliest possible stage, the mere increase in promptitude of diagnosis of sanitary evils would be an enormous gain to the public health. Under the altered conditions, it would be possible to prevent and control many infectious diseases which baffle the belated efforts made under the present system. The gain would not end with the immediate gain of notification. In the hands of the sanitary authority notification of disease or of insanitary conditions is the start-point, not merely for treatment of recognised disease, but also for the application of all practicable measures for improving defective environment, and for the detection of fresh cases of disease at their inception. It is scarcely necessary for me to labour the contention as to the great assistance which can thus be given to the sanitary authority in adopting remedial measures for that proportion of the population which most breeds and most suffers from disease; but I may illustrate these definite but general propositions by instancing circumstances in which the proper work of the sanitary authority would be assisted by the transfer of powers under discussion.

Information as to insanitary occupations, as to overcrowding or uncleanness, or bad conditions of housing, or other conditions or habits militating against health will no longer be allowed to run into *culs-de-sac* and there be lost, but will be utilised to its fullest extent for the public welfare.

In phthisis, the sanitary authority can, and does to a certain extent in some instances, already utilise institutional treatment as an educational aid to the prevention of the spread of infection. A few boards of guardians have carried out similar work. With a unified medical service this work would become much more efficient.

In measles and whooping-cough, and in summer diarrhœa, the union of functions under one authority would greatly tend to the successful prevention of disease, and there is reasonable ground for hoping that it would bring under control these diseases which have hitherto been regarded as largely outside the scope of preventive influences.

In the light of my experience, my opinion is that the existing duties of sanitary authorities would incur no risk of being neglected through attention to their new medical duties, in the event of medical services for the poor being unified. On the contrary, it will be apparent from what I have said already, that the connection will tend to extract from each branch of the unified service a fuller measure of utility than can be obtained from the present separate branches. There might be such a risk in the case of the small sanitary authorities whose constitution I have discussed in my answer to Question 2 (b). No one responsible for the public welfare, however, so far as I am aware, proposes to entrust them with further duties, or favours their continued existence. With larger authorities increased duties are a question of adjustment, and, if needed, of increase in the number of executive committees. In my experience, it is immensely easier to secure active co-operation between the different committees of one authority than between different public authorities having no statutory relationship to each other.

(3) *Whether there is any evidence to show that the existing division of medical activity, as between the guardians and the sanitary authorities, is detrimental to public health.*

A detrimental effect attributable to the division of medical activity between the guardians and the sanitary authorities may be seen in certain individual instances. Thus the divided responsibility as to cases of puerperal fever and erysipelas needing institutional treatment at the present time leads to inefficient arrangements for such cases and to much suffering and some loss of life. Certain guardians, again, have neglected their statutory duties in respect to vaccination. Had they been charged with the maintenance of a small-pox hospital and its patients, an additional incentive to efficiency in vaccination would have been at hand. Such instances represent only a small part of the mischief caused by the division of responsibility and powers. The principal mischief, the existence

of which can scarcely be demonstrated except by personal experience, lies in the fact that treatment by the guardians is unpopular to the patient and wasteful of opportunity to the sanitary authority. General relief under the Poor Law is, necessarily, deterrent in character, and medical relief is entangled in the general system; the conditions under which it is given being consequently stricter than would be either necessary or desirable if every applicant was recognisably disabled by disease. For the most part, this strictness and the sense of indignity felt in connection with it, attaches in some measure to parochial medical treatment, although, in fact, it is administered with greater leniency especially in regard to institutional treatment. Hence the endeavour of many sick men on the verge of pauperism is to keep away from the pauper status, in which they could obtain efficient relief. They seek the cheap but extremely unsatisfactory medical aid available to those just above the pauper line; and thus aggravate their disease by delay, and by continuing work when physically unfit for it. There necessarily follows extension of disease, increase of the ultimate cost of treatment, and reduction of the prospect of cure. The close connection between disease and poverty, and the vicious circle in which they act and re-act on each other, make this exacerbation of the effect of non-communicable sickness a serious detriment to the public health. In infectious cases, the mischief does not end with the individual, but extends to the population in contact with the patient.

In the case of phthisis, the institutional treatment of patients is the most efficient of the several important administrative means for controlling the spread of the disease; and the effect, in this respect, of the treatment of phthisis in workhouse infirmaries would plainly have been greater if, on the average, the treatment had attracted patients at the earlier stage of their disease instead of repelling them till the disease was advanced.

The division of medical activity between guardians who treat disease and sanitary authorities who endeavour to prevent it presents the further disadvantage of wastage of valuable and opportune information. The houses visited by the district medical officer and the relieving officer are, as pointed out in my answer to Question 2, precisely those most urgently needing the attention of the sanitary authority. They are always the houses yielding the richest crop of sanitary defects and unwholesome conditions, and containing the most likely vehicles of infection; and the occasions when these houses are visited by the Poor Law officers are those on which the need for supervision from a public health standpoint is almost certain to be at its greatest. If the district medical officer were also an officer of the sanitary authority, trained to a certain extent in sanitary as well as general medical knowledge, and if it were made part of his duty to include sanitary matters in his purview, his visits would lead to the prompt recognition of conditions of persons and of their environment needing remedy at a time when the remedy could be applied most effectively. Thus preventive medicine, acting through the sanitary authority, would gain the advantage of early diagnosis both of disease and of unwholesome environment. In existing circumstances this advantage is lost altogether, infection and sanitary defects persisting until the attention of the sanitary authority is directed to them by further disease or by some independent circumstances.

(4) *Whether any general or particular suggestions can be made as to greater co-operation between guardians and sanitary authorities.*

It would be advantageous to the public health that the sanitary authority should be able to utilise the institutional accommodation at the disposal of the guardians in the same way as the guardians have the use of beds in the sanitary authority's isolation hospital. This advantage, however, would as a rule be reduced to a minimum by the effect of the association of the infirmary with the workhouse, to which attention is drawn in the answer to Question 3.

It is also desirable that the medical officer of health should receive from the district medical officer, the relieving officer and the medical officer of the infirmary, immediate notification of every case of phthisis when first brought to their notice, and advice of admission to and discharge from the infirmary and of change of address; immediate report from the district medical officer and relieving officer on insanitary and unwholesome conditions found in houses visited by them; and a weekly list of all houses visited by them in which there was any sickness. Such information would enable the sanitary authority to take the measures such as disinfection required for phthisis, etc., as well as to move in matters of sanitary defects, and to direct the attention of their sanitary inspectors and health visitors to houses specially needing supervision. On the grounds given in my reply to Question 2, I do not think that such arrangements, except those for the notification of phthisis, would work efficiently in practice, and I assume that in these circumstances it is not desired that I should discuss them in detail.

ARTHUR NEWSHOLME.

APPENDIX No. LIV.—*Continued.*

PAPER INDICATING THE NATURE OF THE MEMORANDUM DESIRED FROM THE MEDICAL OFFICER OF THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT BOARD.

The question has been raised whether the powers and duties of Poor Law guardians in connection with medical relief should be severed from those in connection with ordinary relief and transferred to the existing sanitary authorities. A memorandum containing general observations on the feasibility and expediency of this proposal is desired, and, in addition, observations on the following points:—

(1) (a) Assuming such severance as above mentioned, what practical arrangements could be made for medical relief by sanitary authorities.

(b) Whether the existing use by sanitary authorities of their powers as to the prevention of disease and treatment of infectious disease including

the management of hospitals are on the whole satisfactory.

(2) Whether it would be prejudicial to the existing functions of sanitary authorities to super-impose upon them the functions of the guardians in relation to the treatment of disease.

(3) Whether there is any evidence to show that the existing division of medical activity as between the guardians and the sanitary authorities is detrimental to public health.

(4) Whether any general or particular suggestions can be made as to greater co-operation between guardians and sanitary authorities.

APPENDIX No. LV.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY THE QUEEN VICTORIA'S JUBILEE INSTITUTE FOR NURSES.

1. Queen Victoria's Jubilee Institute for Nurses was incorporated by Royal Charter in September, 1889, and was endowed by her late Majesty Queen Victoria with £70,000, the offering of the women of Great Britain and Ireland, on the occasion of the celebration of the fiftieth year of her reign. The objects to which the annual income of the fund is to be applied are stated in the Charter to be "the training, support and maintenance of women to act as nurses for the sick poor, and the establishment (if thought proper) of a home or homes for such nurses, and generally the promotion and provision of improved means for nursing the sick poor." The provisional committee appointed by Her Majesty to give effect to her wishes decided, with her approval, to adopt as the institute's particular work, the larger development of district nursing by providing trained nurses for the sick poor in their own homes.

Affiliation.

2. The institute recommends Queen's nurses to affiliated associations only, the local committees having power to engage or dismiss such nurses.

That an association may become affiliated, the promoters agree to carry on the work on certain broad principles, and also to take the necessary measures to satisfy the council that the financial prospects of the association give reason to expect that the work will be permanent. The few rules that the institute has laid down as indispensable in defining the lines of work of its affiliated associations are such as have been proved by experience to be essential to success and the attainment of the objects in view, namely, the efficient nursing of the sick poor.

Inspection.

3. In order that the standard of efficiency may be maintained, the institute reserves to itself the right of requiring reports from affiliated associations and of periodical inspection of the nurses' work.

Systematic inspection is an essential factor of the work of the institute. It is carried out by Queen's nurses who have had practical experience in the various conditions of district nursing. Although these inspections are entirely professional, and in no way interfere with

local committees, the inspectors are always ready to help and advise committees and secretaries as to the organisation and conduct of the work.

Training.

4. The following qualifications are considered requisite in order to entitle a nurse to be placed on the roll of Queen's nurses:—

(a) Training at approved hospitals or infirmaries for not less than three years, to include at least two years in an approved general hospital or infirmary.

(b) Approved training in district nursing for not less than six months, including the nursing of mothers and their infants after childbirth.

(c) Nurses to be employed in midwifery must, in addition, receive the training required by the Central Midwives' Board, and be certified under the Midwives' Act (1902).

These conditions are subject to modification by the council, to meet exceptional cases of those engaged in district work under any association at the time of affiliation, who may afford satisfactory evidence of competency.

A hospital trained nurse engaged by the institute for district training enters one of the affiliated homes for six months, during which time she works in the district under the instruction and close supervision of the superintendent. She learns how to adapt the knowledge and skill she has gained in hospital to the circumstances of her district patients and how to make the best of the unfavourable conditions and limited appliances available in a poor home. Lectures on "Hygiene," "Cookery," and other subjects, with special reference to district work, are also given.

General Rules.

5. I. The nursing of patients is carried out under the direction of medical practitioners.

II. The nurses are strictly forbidden to interfere in any way with the religious opinions of their patients or of members of their families.

III. The services of the nurses are for cases of the sick poor and working classes in their own homes, without distinction of creed. Patients, however, may be attended

APPENDIX No. LV.—*Continued.*

who, though unable to incur the expense of a private nurse, are able to make some contribution to the funds of the association, provided that the full performance of their primary duty of nursing the sick poor leaves the nurses time for such work.

IV. The nurses attend cases of childbirth, either as midwives or where a medical man is in attendance, provided that proper precautions are taken. Nurses employed as midwives in large towns do not undertake general sick nursing. With regard to midwifery cases a fee is charged for the nurse's services, except in special cases.

V. The nurses may not attend infectious cases unless with the sanction of the medical men and committee.

District Area.

6. Experience has proved that one nurse is sufficient for a population of 4,000 to 9,000 in a town where midwifery is not required. A radius of from three to four miles, with a population of from 700 to 1,500 or 2,000, is usually a convenient area for one nurse in the country where it is possible to combine midwifery with general nursing, although much larger areas are undertaken. Much depends upon the geographical conditions of the district as to hills, rivers and the condition of the roads.

Expense.

7. A Queen's nurse costs the district which employs her from £85 to £100 a year. The minimum salary is £30 a year, with an annual allowance of £4 for uniform. In addition to this sum, which is independent of local conditions, board, laundry, furnished rooms, fire, light, and attendance, or equivalent allowances, have to be provided. In some cases the nurse receives an inclusive sum to cover her salary and all other expenses. The conditions and requirements of different districts vary so much that it is not possible to name a definite sum as the cost of a Queen's nurse, but, as a rule, except under very exceptional circumstances, £85 to £100 are the limits. When two or more nurses live together, the cost per head is a little less.

Lines of Work.

8. A nurse working alone in a small town or country district is responsible to the committee of the association and reports to them, at their monthly meetings, on her work. It is the nurse's duty to visit all cases on her books once or twice a day or as often as they require, and to do for them all that is necessary, in each carrying out the instructions of the medical man as to treatment, etc. She is responsible for the personal cleanliness of her patients and the nursing order of their rooms and should, as far as possible, teach the friends of patients to do what is needful.

In towns the nurses live together and, where more than four are employed, are under the supervision of a superintendent, herself a Queen's nurse. Each nurse is usually allotted a district, and all applications for the nurses' services are made to the superintendent. She keeps the register of patients and time book, and is generally responsible to the committee and the medical men for the management of the home and the efficient nursing of the patients.

To quote Mr. Charles Booth in support of this method of work: "A number of nurses collected at one centre, their course of work arranged and supervised by a lady superintendent—who is herself a trained nurse—can accomplish far more, and do it far better, than if distributed amongst the parishes and placed, each individually, under parish control."

Relief.

9. Except under very special circumstances no relief of any kind is administered to patients by the nurses. All cases needing help are reported to the hon. secretary or other proper authority, who would see that the necessary assistance is given.

County Nursing Associations.

10. County nursing associations are affiliated to the institute with the following objects:—

(a) To promote local interest in the work of providing trained nurses and midwives for the sick poor in their own homes throughout the county.

(b) To raise funds locally for the training and support of such nurses within the county.

(c) To establish nursing centres as far as may be throughout the county.

(d) To seek out and train suitable women either as Queen's or village nurses in accordance with the regulations of the Queen's Institute.

A county nursing association undertakes to provide for, further develop and increase the efficiency of district nursing throughout the county. It attains these ends:—

(i) By organising and affiliating local nursing associations and assisting them to obtain:—

(a) Queen's nurses, *i.e.*, nurses with full hospital, district and maternity training, at a cost to the local nursing association of from £85 to £100 a year.

(b) Village nurses, *i.e.*, nurses with preferably twelve, but in no case less than nine, months' district and maternity training in an accredited training school, certified as midwives under the Midwives' Act, at a cost to the local nursing association of from £45 to £60 a year.

(ii) By providing expert supervision by a Queen's nurse, the county superintendent.

County Superintendents.

11. The county superintendent is responsible for the efficient supervision of the village nurses, and, if the extent of the work require it, an assistant superintendent is employed. In connection with this duty the Queen's Institute will, when funds permit, contribute to the salary of the county superintendent or that of her assistant. The minimum salary of the county superintendent is £110 a year, rising £5 annually to £120; this covers salary, board, lodging, uniform and laundry.

The county superintendent is responsible to the county committee for the maintenance of a high standard of the nursing work throughout the county. Her duties include the interviewing and engaging of nurses, subject to the approval of the committee and arranging for their training and future work. She superintends the work of the nurses of the association, visiting them all and reporting to the county committee and the local associations as to their efficiency. In order to maintain the standard of nursing and to encourage and supplement the training of village nurses, she sees them at regular intervals, visiting with them the patients under their care. During their first year's and second year's work the visits are usually monthly, or oftener if need be. All the nurses connected with the county association report to her once a month, notifying their new cases: she keeps a register of the nurses, and a record of their work. She goes to places in the county desiring nurses, explains the methods of work, and helps to start the new association.

Employment of Nurses.

12. Queen's or village nurses are employed by associations according to the population and requirements of the district, in accordance with the regulations specified by the Queen's Institute, which will only sanction the employment of village nurses:—

(a) In a rural district where it is impossible to support a Queen's nurse and the population of the district does not as a rule exceed 3,000; or

(b) In a district in which a Queen's nurse is already employed, and where special conditions make it desirable that a village nurse also should be employed under her directions.

The employment of village nurses for general sick nursing shall be entirely on the responsibility of the association under which they work, and with the sanction of the medical men; they should only be allowed to live in the patients' houses where the local circumstances render it necessary.

Fees.

13. The council of the Queen's Institute, while approving the encouragement of contributions from patients, whether as voluntary offerings or by means of fixed charges on the provident system or otherwise, disapproves of charges for the nurses' services being made by the

APPENDIX No. LV.—*Continued.*

visit, or the nurses being made responsible for the collection of the fees, experience having proved that the adoption of either of these practices hinders the usefulness of the nurses' work. It is understood that the nurse's services are given free in all cases of necessity. With regard to midwifery cases, a fee should, except in special cases, be charged for the nurse's services when she is engaged to act as midwife. The nurses are strictly forbidden to interfere in any way with the religious opinions of their patients or of members of their families.

Existing associations in the county are in no way interfered with, but are eligible for affiliation provided they conform to the rules of the county association.

Training of Village Nurses.

14. Each county association makes its own arrangements for the training of its village nurses within the limits laid down by the agreement with the Queen's Institute. The majority receive their training at the Plaistow Home, where the training of village nurses has been systematised. There is an enormous population in this "London over the border," mostly of the unskilled labour class, which gives wide scope for nursing help, both for maternity and general district nursing. The candidates selected by the various county associations receive here a regular course of practical and theoretical midwifery, and are obliged to pass the examination required by the Central Midwives' Board. A further course of instruction is given in "First Aid" and "Sick Nursing" in the homes of the poor under a staff of trained district nurses.

In many counties the technical education committees of the county councils grant nursing scholarships for the training of the local women in midwifery and district work. When these scholarships are obtainable the expenses of the central funds are not so heavy.

If found satisfactory, candidates are required to sign an agreement to remain in the service of a county committee for a fixed period, usually three years. A village nurse is provided with the county uniform and nursing bag at the expense of the association. The usual training fees are from £30 (nine months) to £35 (twelve months); the bag, uniform, and other incidental expenses bring the total cost of twelve months' training to about £50.

The salary of a village nurse varies from 14s. a week, rising to 16s., 18s., or £1 a week during the term of agreement to cover salary, board, lodging and laundry. The uniform, provided in the first instance by the county association, is maintained afterwards by the local association.

Owing to the irregularity of the nursing work in the country the village nurse may be required almost day and night for a short time, and at other times have almost nothing to do. In such cases the nurse, when not busy, should be encouraged to visit any chronic cases or old people and read to or otherwise interest them, or to take charge of a young child to relieve a busy mother for an hour or two. Under wise supervision such employment is beneficial to both nurses and patients. As the nurse is responsible to the committee for the good order of the various garments lent to patients, she may also, when not busy, keep them in repair.

GENERAL INFORMATION.

Midwifery.

15. A Queen's nurse working in a rural district where midwifery is necessary will be a certified midwife. Due provision for the nursing of general cases must be made under the rules of the Central Midwives' Board. It is often practical and desirable to employ a village nurse as midwife in rural and small urban associations working under and in conjunction with the Queen's nurse.

By the agreement between the Queen's Institute and its affiliated associations, no midwifery cases may be undertaken without the payment of a fee, except under very special circumstances.

Valuable statistics have been collected with regard to the midwifery work of the nurses in connection with the institute during 1905. One satisfactory result is that they tend decidedly to show that midwifery and non-infectious district nursing may be combined with safety by Queen's nurse midwives or the village nurses of the institute.

In four county associations the county superintendent is also undertaking the duties of inspector of midwives for the county council.

School Nursing.

16. School nursing is undertaken in eight affiliated associations and it seems probable there will be a fresh extension of this useful work in the near future. The district nurses not only attend to the children and carry out the treatment prescribed by the doctors, but instruct the mothers in the prevention of many of the minor ailments which interfere with attendance at school.

Support of Associations.

17. There are various methods of raising funds to support the work. It depends on the condition of labour in the district as to which method should be regarded as the mainstay of the association.

In towns (large and small) with a mixed population without uniform employment, annual subscriptions and donations from all classes are the chief source of income. In this case general nursing is free, but patients should always be encouraged to give according to their means, and efforts should be made to secure small subscriptions—half-crowns, shillings, even sixpences—from tradespeople, small shopkeepers and the working classes, by house-to-house collections. A systematic collection by collectors, to each of whom a few streets or a ward of a town is allotted, gives substantial results. All churches and chapels should be asked to devote the collections on at least one Sunday in the year to the nursing fund. Boards of guardians may also be approached, as they are allowed to make grants to district nursing associations in order that the nurses may attend those in receipt of outdoor relief. There are often local trust funds or charities from which grants and even endowments can be obtained. A saving in the expenses of associations can also be effected if tram and railway companies can be induced to give free passes on the cars and railways for the nurses. Such passes are always a great boon to the nurses personally.

In many mining, colliery and manufacturing centres, where there is a uniform level of work and wages, it is possible to support an association on the lines adopted by some of the provincial hospitals, i.e., the men employed in the various industries agree to the deduction of a certain sum, $\frac{1}{2}$ d., 1d., or $1\frac{1}{4}$ d. weekly, fortnightly or monthly from their wages. Such a system with representatives of the various trades on the committee works well, and there is more than one instance of an association which is almost self-supporting. If medical clubs exist in the district it is better that the payments to the nursing fund should not be arranged on exactly the same lines.

In small country towns of a population of less than 10,000, and in rural districts, it is advisable, if possible, to place the scheme on a provident basis, with a scale of contributions suitable to all classes, from the labourer earning 15s. per week to the small tradespeople and farmers. Such a system entitles the subscribers of the fixed amounts to the services of the nurse for themselves and their families, non-subscribers may obtain her services at a higher rate, while cases in receipt of outdoor relief are provided for by a grant from the guardians. All subscribers should be provided with membership cards on which their payments (monthly, quarterly or annual, as the case may be) should be entered as received; these should be presented when application is made for the services of the nurse. It is not always possible to make such an association entirely self-supporting, and the funds may need supplementing by annual subscriptions and donations from the wealthier residents, by church collections, and the other sources suggested for urban districts.

The work in England, Ireland and Wales is directly under the central council of Queen Victoria's Jubilee Institute for Nurses. A Scottish council has from the beginning undertaken the responsibility and management of the institute's work in Scotland, raising all funds required beyond the annual grant from the central fund. A great impetus has recently been given to the work in Ireland by the foundation of Lady Dudley's "Scheme for the establishment of district nurses in the poorest parts of Ireland," in accordance with which nurses, provided by the institute, are maintained in the extreme west and congested districts, where poverty is so universal.

APPENDIX No. LV.—*Continued.*

that local committees cannot be formed. The comments of the Viceregal Commission on Poor Law Reform on the "unqualified success" which has attended the efforts of Lady Dudley's committee in the poorest parts of Ireland are most satisfactory. Two new districts have been recently added to the list, making the total of fifteen Queen's nurses thus supported.

It has been found necessary to specially train Welsh-speaking women for employment in many of the rural districts in Wales.

A striking testimony to the value of the work is given by Mr. Charles Booth in his volume "Notes on Social Influences" :—

"Of all the forms that charity takes, there is hardly one that is so directly successful as district nursing. It is almost true to say that wherever a nurse enters, the standard of life is raised.

"Not only are skilled women available for every public or private emergency, not only has each city its nursing institute ready to respond to all appeals, but every little country district is finding that about £100 a year is well spent in this form of assistance to the doctor's work, by which the whole population benefits, and to which all who will can subscribe. In every neighbourhood so provided the direct influence on health is considerable; but far greater must be the gradual educational influence exerted, which it may be hoped will eventually bring enlightenment to the common ideas of the people, not only as to the special requirements of a sick room, but on such subjects as cleanliness, the care of young children, and the preparation of food not for invalids alone; as well as on many other points of ordinary domestic economy which a trained nurse will generally understand and naturally inculcate."

Statistics.

18. Number of nursing associations in affiliation with the institute, employing Queen's nurses, on August 1st, 1907 :—

In England	-	-	-	-	-	-	411
„ Scotland	-	-	-	-	-	-	190
„ Ireland	-	-	-	-	-	-	86
„ Wales	-	-	-	-	-	-	85
Total	-	-	-	-	-	-	772

Number of county nursing associations in affiliation with the institute on August 1st, 1907 :—

In England	-	-	-	-	-	-	17
„ Scotland	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
„ Wales	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Total	-	-	-	-	-	-	21

These associations are employing 498 village nurses, in addition to 132 Queen's nurses (including 22 superintendents and assistant superintendents).

Number of Queen's nurses on the roll, August 1st, 1907 :—

In England	-	-	-	-	-	-	942
„ Scotland	-	-	-	-	-	-	282
„ Ireland	-	-	-	-	-	-	115
„ Wales	-	-	-	-	-	-	119
Total	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,458

The total number of nurses in England and Wales on August 1st, 1907, in connection with the institute, including Queen's nurses and probationers, village nurses and midwives, was 1,803—England 1,673 and Wales 130.

The total number of nurses in Scotland and Ireland on January 1st, 1907, in connection with the institute, including Queen's nurses and probationers, and midwives, was 456—Scotland 326 and Ireland 130.

19. The Poor Law Act of 1879, which gave to boards of guardians the power of subscribing to institutions formed to provide nurses for the poor, having now been in operation for twenty-eight years, it is possible to collect information showing how far this power has been made use of, how the system has been found to work in practice and what its effect has been on the nursing associations affiliated directly or indirectly to the Institute. Of the nursing associations in England and Wales affiliated to the Institute, 242 have received annual grants from boards of guardians, amounting to £3,632 15s. (The names of the associations receiving these grants, together with the amount of the different grants received, are shown in the schedule attached to this statement.) (See Appendix No. LV. (A).)

20. In the same way, of the associations affiliated to county nursing associations (employing about 493 village nurses) 144 have received grants from boards of guardians, amounting to £386 11s. (The names of the associations receiving these grants, together with the amount of the different grants received, are shown in the schedule attached to this statement.) (See Appendix No. LV. (B).)

21. During recent years on the whole the tendency of the boards of guardians is to increase the number of grants; this is especially marked in Cornwall, Cumberland, Devonshire, Lincolnshire, and Somerset.

22. The position of the institute, owing to its close connection with such a large number of nursing associations, gives it perhaps a unique opportunity of seeing whether these subscriptions from boards of guardians have resulted in any difficulty or friction arising either as to the appointment or management of the nurses, or as to the people who shall have the benefit of their services. There is no evidence of any such friction or difficulty having occurred.

23. While in many places, where nurses are supported by well-to-do people, the subscriptions of boards of guardians are essential to enable a nurse of a high level of efficiency, or even a nurse at all, to be employed, these subscriptions are found by experience to be of especial importance in districts where the nurses are supported on the provident system. In these districts the subscriptions are really in the nature of payments made year by year for the services of the nurse when required; and the very poor, particularly when old and infirm, can make no such payment and yet they are the people, many of them in receipt of outdoor relief, to whom the services of the nurse are most essential. In these districts the subscriptions of boards of guardians really represent payments made on behalf of these very poor people and enable them to receive the services of the nurse, without the regular contributors having to increase their contributions.

24. These grants also enable nursing services to be available for the class just above the recipients of Poor Law relief, who otherwise would come upon the rates in time of sickness.

APPENDIX No. LV. (A).

*Handed in by the Queen Victoria's Jubilee Institute for Nurses.*STATEMENT SHOWING THE GRANTS MADE BY BOARDS OF GUARDIANS TO 242 NURSING ASSOCIATIONS
AFFILIATED TO THE ABOVE INSTITUTE.

Name of District.	Grant.	Name of District.	Grant.
	£ s. d.		£ s. d.
Accrington - - - - -	9 9 0	Crook - - - - -	10 0 0
Albury and Little Hadham - - - - -	10 0 0	Croxley Green - - - - -	2 2 0
Amlwch - - - - -	5 0 0	Cumberland N. Association - - - - -	15 5 0
Ammanford - - - - -	3 0 0	Cumberland N. Association - - - - -	10 10 0
Arnold and Daybrook - - - - -	2 10 0	Darlaston - - - - -	10 0 0
Audenshaw - - - - -	5 0 0	Darwen - - - - -	30 0 0
Ashton-under-Lyne - - - - -	15 0 0	Denbigh - - - - -	2 2 0
Aberystwith - - - - -	10 0 0	Denton - - - - -	5 0 0
Abergele and Pensarn - - - - -	2 2 0	Dolgelly - - - - -	4 4 0
Bacup - - - - -	6 6 0	Droylsden - - - - -	5 0 0
Bala - - - - -	10 0 0	Dunmow - - - - -	5 0 0
Bangor - - - - -	5 5 0	Eastwood - - - - -	2 10 0
Barkston - - - - -	1 1 0	Ellel - - - - -	5 5 0
Barmouth - - - - -	3 3 0	Esclusham - - - - -	5 0 0
Barnetby, Bigby and Melton Ross - - - - -	2 2 0	Exmouth - - - - -	5 0 0
Barrow-in-Furness - - - - -	10 0 0	Exning - - - - -	2 2 0
Barry - - - - -	75 0 0	Failsworth - - - - -	7 7 0
Bath - - - - -	20 0 0	Festiniog - - - - -	10 10 0
Beaumaris - - - - -	3 3 0	Fletton - - - - -	3 3 0
Bedford - - - - -	5 5 0	Gateshead - - - - -	100 0 0
Bethesda - - - - -	3 3 0	Gillingham - - - - -	5 0 0
Bideford - - - - -	3 3 0	Gloucester - - - - -	150 0 0
Bilston - - - - -	5 0 0	Goole - - - - -	5 5 0
Bingley - - - - -	1 1 0	Gosport and Alverstoke - - - - -	10 0 0
Birmingham - - - - -	21 0 0	Gower - - - - -	5 0 0
Blackburn - - - - -	100 0 0	Gowerton - - - - -	5 0 0
Blaisdon and Longhope - - - - -	5 0 0	Gowerton - - - - -	5 0 0
Bodedern - - - - -	5 0 0	Grantham - - - - -	5 5 0
Bognor - - - - -	5 5 0	Great Harwood - - - - -	10 10 0
Bolton - - - - -	5 0 0	Great Shelford - - - - -	10 0 0
Braughing - - - - -	5 0 0	Grimsby - - - - -	50 0 0
Bridge - - - - -	2 2 0	Hampstead - - - - -	5 5 0
Bridgwater - - - - -	5 5 0	Hammersmith and Fulham - - - - -	21 0 0
Brigg - - - - -	2 2 0	Handsworth - - - - -	10 0 0
Brighton - - - - -	40 15 0	Hanley Castle - - - - -	4 4 0
Brymbo - - - - -	5 0 0	Harpenden - - - - -	5 0 0
Budleigh Salterton - - - - -	5 0 0	Haslingden - - - - -	3 3 0
Buntingford - - - - -	5 5 0	Hastings - - - - -	21 0 0
Burgess Hill - - - - -	5 0 0	Harlech - - - - -	5 5 0
Bury - - - - -	12 12 0	Hayle - - - - -	2 2 0
Burnley - - - - -	50 0 0	Headington - - - - -	1 0 0
Camberwell - - - - -	10 10 0	Heanor - - - - -	5 0 0
Cardigan - - - - -	2 10 0	Heavitree - - - - -	5 0 0
Carlisle - - - - -	10 10 0	East Malling - - - - -	3 3 0
Carnarvon - - - - -	20 10 0	Emily Bolitho Nurses' Home, Penzance - - - - -	2 2 0
Chatham - - - - -	10 0 0	Hereford - - - - -	10 10 0
Cheadle Hulme - - - - -	10 10 0	Hertford and Bengoe - - - - -	2 2 0
Central St. Pancras - - - - -	5 5 0	Heywood - - - - -	6 6 0
Cheltenham - - - - -	170 0 0	Holmfirth - - - - -	2 2 0
Chelsea and Pimlico - - - - -	15 0 0	Holyhead - - - - -	5 0 0
Church - - - - -	8 0 0	Horncastle - - - - -	3 0 0
Cleator - - - - -	5 5 0	Horwich - - - - -	10 10 0
Colwyn Bay - - - - -	5 5 0	Hucknall Huthwaite - - - - -	7 0 0
Conway - - - - -	5 5 0	Hucknall Torquard - - - - -	5 5 0
Corwen - - - - -	15 0 0	Huddersfield - - - - -	21 0 0
Coventry - - - - -	21 0 0	Hull - - - - -	15 15 0
Cowley - - - - -	5 0 0	Kettering - - - - -	15 15 0
Criccieth - - - - -	5 0 0	Kilburn - - - - -	15 0 0

APPENDIX No. LV. (A).—*Continued.*

Name of District.	Grant.	Name of District.	Grant.
	£ s. d.		£ s. d.
Kilgerran - - - - -	2 10 0	Rothwell - - - - -	5 5 0
Kensington - - - - -	21 0 0	Rottingdean - - - - -	2 2 0
Kirton - - - - -	2 2 0	Ruthin - - - - -	10 0 0
Lancaster - - - - -	10 0 0	St. Austell - - - - -	4 4 0
Leeds - - - - -	52 0 0	St. Olave's - - - - -	50 0 0
Leigh-on-Sea - - - - -	2 0 0	Sawston - - - - -	5 5 0
Lincoln - - - - -	3 13 0	Scunthorpe - - - - -	3 0 0
Littlehampton - - - - -	20 0 0	Selsey - - - - -	3 3 0
Liverpool - - - - -	95 0 0	Sheerness - - - - -	3 3 0
Llanberis - - - - -	10 0 0	Sheffield - - - - -	450 0 0
Landilo - - - - -	5 5 0	Shildon - - - - -	10 0 0
Llandoverly - - - - -	2 2 0	Shoreditch - - - - -	26 5 0
Llandudno - - - - -	2 2 0	Silvertown - - - - -	5 5 0
Llanfaethlu - - - - -	5 0 0	Skelmersdale - - - - -	7 7 0
Llanfairfechan - - - - -	6 6 0	Skegby and Stanton Hill - - - - -	7 0 0
Llangefni - - - - -	5 0 0	Snodland - - - - -	5 0 0
Llanidloes - - - - -	2 2 0	Southampton - - - - -	10 10 0
Llanrwst - - - - -	10 10 0	Southborough - - - - -	3 3 0
Llanwnda - - - - -	10 0 0	South London - - - - -	30 15 0
Looe - - - - -	3 0 0	Southwark - - - - -	120 0 0
Loughton - - - - -	1 1 0	South Tottenham - - - - -	10 0 0
Louth - - - - -	2 2 0	Spalding - - - - -	2 2 0
Llanelly - - - - -	15 0 0	Spaxton - - - - -	1 1 0
Llanerchymedd - - - - -	5 0 0	Stafford - - - - -	10 0 0
Machynlleth - - - - -	5 0 0	Sudbury - - - - -	3 3 0
Manchester - - - - -	241 16 0	Sunderland - - - - -	50 0 0
Menai Bridge - - - - -	3 3 0	Swansea - - - - -	75 0 0
Metropolitan - - - - -	10 0 0	Sidecup - - - - -	5 0 0
Millom - - - - -	14 0 0	Taunton - - - - -	3 3 0
Minchinhampton - - - - -	3 0 0	Thorpe and Ardsley - - - - -	2 2 0
Montgomery - - - - -	2 2 0	Three Towns - - - - -	60 10 0
Morriston - - - - -	25 0 0	Torquay - - - - -	12 12 0
Ickham and Littlebourne - - - - -	2 2 0	Totnes - - - - -	3 3 0
Nantlle Valle - - - - -	20 0 0	Towyn and Andoverly - - - - -	3 3 0
Neath - - - - -	10 10 0	Trumpington - - - - -	10 0 0
Newark - - - - -	5 0 0	Truro - - - - -	2 2 0
Newton Heath - - - - -	5 0 0	Tunbridge Wells - - - - -	10 10 0
Newtown - - - - -	2 2 0	Upper Llanddeiniolen - - - - -	10 0 0
North Malvern and Cowleigh - - - - -	4 4 0	Warsop - - - - -	7 0 0
Northampton - - - - -	21 0 0	Watford - - - - -	10 0 0
Norwich - - - - -	10 0 0	Westminster - - - - -	15 0 0
Oswaldtwistle - - - - -	12 0 0	Wheathampstead - - - - -	5 0 0
Ormskirk - - - - -	10 10 0	Whitehaven - - - - -	3 3 0
Paddington - - - - -	21 0 0	Willenhall - - - - -	5 0 0
Paignton - - - - -	3 3 0	Winsham - - - - -	3 3 0
Penarth - - - - -	10 0 0	Wolsingham - - - - -	5 0 0
Penmaenmawr - - - - -	5 5 0	Woolwich - - - - -	30 0 0
Peterborough - - - - -	6 0 0	Worcester - - - - -	5 5 0
Pleasley Vale - - - - -	7 0 0	Worthing - - - - -	40 0 0
Portmadoc - - - - -	4 4 0	Yaxley - - - - -	3 3 0
Portsmouth - - - - -	35 0 0	Yeovil - - - - -	13 6 0
Pwllheli - - - - -	7 0 0	St. Ives - - - - -	2 2 0
Penrhyn - - - - -	5 5 0	Stamford - - - - -	10 0 0
Radcliffe - - - - -	6 6 0	Dartmouth and Kingswear - - - - -	3 3 0
Radstock - - - - -	2 2 0	Torpoint - - - - -	3 3 0
Rawtenstall - - - - -	9 9 0	Charlton Kings - - - - -	1 0 0
Reading - - - - -	21 0 0	Gotherington - - - - -	2 2 0
Redbourn - - - - -	5 0 0	Groombridge and Ashurst - - - - -	2 1 0
Redditch - - - - -	4 4 0	Upton-on-Severn - - - - -	4 4 0
Redruth - - - - -	2 2 0	Headless Cross - - - - -	1 1 0
Rhayader - - - - -	3 3 0	Christchurch, Malvern - - - - -	2 2 0
Richmond - - - - -	10 10 0	East Quantoxhead - - - - -	1 1 0
Rickmansworth - - - - -	3 3 0	St. Buryan - - - - -	2 2 0
Rotherhithe - - - - -	10 0 0		

APPENDIX No. LV. (B.).

*Handed in by the Queen Victoria's Jubilee Institute for Nurses.*STATEMENT SHOWING THE GRANTS MADE BY BOARDS OF GUARDIANS TO 144 ASSOCIATIONS
AFFILIATED TO THE COUNTY NURSING ASSOCIATIONS.

Name of District.	Grant. £ s. d.	Name of District.	Grant. £ s. d.
Berkshire - - - - -	None.	Gloucester—	
Cheshire - - - - -	None.	Avening - - - - -	1 1 0
Devonshire—		Bredon, Kenniton, etc. - - - - -	3 3 0
Appledore - - - - -	3 3 0	Meysey Hampton - - - - -	2 2 0
Broadclyst - - - - -	5 0 0	St. Gerney - - - - -	5s. per week per case.
Bishopsteignton - - - - -	3 3 0	Apperley - - - - -	2 2 0
Buckland, Filleigh, etc. - - - - -	2 10 0	Huntley - - - - -	5 0 0
Bere Ferrers - - - - -	2 2 0	Painswick - - - - -	3 3 0
Bicton, Otterton, etc. - - - - -	5 0 0	Thornbury - - - - -	5 0 0
Chudleigh - - - - -	3 3 0	Lincolnshire—	
Crownhill - - - - -	2 2 0	Tydd St. Mary - - - - -	1 1 0
Chumleigh - - - - -	2 2 0	Holbeach - - - - -	1 1 0
Horrabridge - - - - -	2 2 0	Woodhall Spa - - - - -	2 2 0
Huish, Merton, etc. - - - - -	4 13 0	Branston - - - - -	2 2 0
Kenn, Dunchidcock - - - - -	5 0 0	Ruskington - - - - -	2 2 0
Marystowe - - - - -	2 0 0	Blankney - - - - -	2 2 0
Northam - - - - -	2 2 0	Long Sutton - - - - -	1 1 0
Ottery St. Mary - - - - -	2 2 0	Ashby - - - - -	0 10 0
Rose Ash - - - - -	1 1 0	Barrow-on-Humber - - - - -	2 2 0
South Molton - - - - -	2 2 0	Navenby - - - - -	2 2 0
Starcross and Cofton - - - - -	6 1 0	Moulton - - - - -	1 1 0
Thorverton - - - - -	3 3 0	Broughton - - - - -	2 2 0
Torrington - - - - -	8 8 0	Ingham - - - - -	2 12 6
St. Giles-in-the-Wood - - - - -	2 10 0	Sutton Bridge - - - - -	1 1 0
Winkleigh - - - - -	4 5 0	Wainfleet - - - - -	2 2 10
Holbeton - - - - -	2 2 0	Tendency to increase grants—no friction.	
Halberton - - - - -	2 0 0	Shropshire—	
Calverleigh - - - - -	3 3 0	No grants given; three associations have been paid for work done.	
Bampton - - - - -	3 3 0	Northamptonshire—	
Buckland, Yelverton, etc. - - - - -	2 2 0	Five districts, each receiving £5 annually.	
Silverton and Bickleigh - - - - -	3 3 0	Hampshire—	
Charlton - - - - -	2 2 0	Five districts are granted £1 ls. each and one £2 2s.	
Cornwall—		Cumberland—	
St. Germans - - - - -	3 3 0	Dalston - - - - -	2 10 0
Milbrook - - - - -	3 3 0	Weatheral - - - - -	2 10 0
Maker - - - - -	3 3 0	Upperby - - - - -	3 0 0
Saltash - - - - -	3 3 0	Wreay - - - - -	1 10 0
Pentillie - - - - -	3 3 0	Houghton - - - - -	2 5 0
Roche - - - - -	2 2 0	Raughton Head - - - - -	2 10 0
Mevagissey - - - - -	2 2 0	Burgh-by-Sands - - - - -	2 0 0
Treverbryn - - - - -	2 2 0	Heads Nook - - - - -	0 10 0
St. Blazey - - - - -	2 2 0	Greystoke - - - - -	1 4 0
St. Dennis and St. Stephen - - - - -	4 4 0	Hutton - - - - -	1 4 0
North Illogan - - - - -	2 2 0	Calthwaite - - - - -	1 4 0
South Illogan - - - - -	2 2 0	Lazonby - - - - -	1 4 0
Cararrick - - - - -	2 2 0	Low Hesket - - - - -	1 1 0
Ludyvan - - - - -	2 2 0	Watermillock - - - - -	1 4 0
St. Just - - - - -	2 2 0	Threlkeld - - - - -	1 4 0
Marazion - - - - -	2 2 0	Somerset—	
Paul - - - - -	2 2 0	Kilmersdon - - - - -	3 3 0
Treslothian - - - - -	2 2 0	Harptree - - - - -	2 2 0
Devoran - - - - -	2 2 0	Freshford - - - - -	2 2 0
Probus - - - - -	2 2 0		
Calstock - - - - -	4 4 0		
Wadebridge - - - - -	2 2 0		

APPENDIX No. LV. (B).—Continued.

Name of District.	Grant. £ s. d.	Name of District.	Grant. £ s. d.
Porlock - - - - -	2 2 0	Derbyshire—	
Nunney - - - - -	3 3 0	Pinxton - - - - -	7 0 0
Cannington - - - - -	1 1 0	Cotmenhay - - - - -	2 10 0
Bishops Lydeard - - - - -	2 2 0	Wingfield - - - - -	6 0 0
Shepton Mallet - - - - -	2 2 0	Nottinghamshire—	
Pilton - - - - -	2 2 0	Burton Joyce - - - - -	2 10 0
Selworthy and Luccombe - - - - -	1 1 0	Calverton - - - - -	2 10 0
Dunster, etc. - - - - -	1 1 0	Kimberley - - - - -	2 10 0
Langport - - - - -	1 1 0	Woodborough - - - - -	2 10 0
Kingston - - - - -	2 0 0	Wheatley - - - - -	2 0 0
Chipstable - - - - -	1 6 0	Blidworth - - - - -	7 0 0
Ilminster - - - - -	3 3 0	At Carlton-on-Trent Guardians pay from 1s. 6d. to 2s. per week for each patient.	
Williton - - - - -	1 1 0	Staffordshire—	
Tatworth - - - - -	3 3 0	Cheadle - - - - -	10 10 0
Washford - - - - -	1 1 0	Cheddleston - - - - -	3 3 0
Street - - - - -	2 2 0	Typstones - - - - -	3 3 0
Exford - - - - -	1 11 6	Sussex—	
Coombe St. Nicholas - - - - -	3 3 0	Battle - - - - -	2 2 0
Chewton Mendip - - - - -	3 3 0	Burwash - - - - -	2 2 0
Watchet - - - - -	1 1 0	Oving - - - - -	2 2 0
Wraxall - - - - -	1 1 0	Petworth - - - - -	2 2 0
Dulverton - - - - -	2 0 0	Worcester—	
Pensford - - - - -	2 2 0	Droitwich - - - - -	2 2 0
Clevedon - - - - -	2 2 0	Powyke - - - - -	4 4 0
Hereford—		Chacesly and Forthampton - - - - -	2 2 0
Holmer - - - - -	10 10 0		
Dorstone - - - - -	2 2 0		
Bromyard - - - - -	1 1 0		

APPENDIX No. LVI.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY THE SCHOOL DENTISTS' SOCIETY ON DENTAL SERVICE IN POOR LAW SCHOOLS.

1. The School Dentists' Society wish to emphasise the desirability of an efficient and uniform system of dental service in Poor Law schools throughout the country. They base this petition on three chief grounds:—

- (1) Improved general health during school years and in after life.
- (2) Freedom from toothache or other pain connected with the teeth and consequent loss of school time.
- (3) Avoidance of rejection for the public services on account of defective teeth.

That such results accrue from conservative dental treatment is abundantly testified to, so far as school years are concerned, by those having the care of children, such as superintendents, medical officers and matrons, in those schools where dental surgeons have already been appointed for several years. It is impossible in a few words to give proof as to the effects of treatment on the general health in after life, but it is now quite generally recognised by the medical profession that many serious diseases are occasioned by neglect of the teeth in childhood. As regards recruiting for the public services, it is only necessary to mention that according to the Returns for the Army for several years the rejections on account of defective teeth are far greater than from any other cause.

2. The School Dentists' Society wish to point out that effective treatment includes not only extraction of teeth and instruction in oral hygiene, or the care of the mouth, but also conservative work or the "stopping" of decayed

teeth; and that such work necessarily involves a great deal of time and must be adequately remunerated. They feel that this aspect of the matter is not always considered or appreciated sufficiently by boards of guardians.

3. The society would welcome the institution of compulsory regulations on the lines of those recommended to boards of guardians by the Local Government Board (See App. No. LVI. (A)), which deals with conditions of dental appointment, provision of instruments and equipment, etc. It is felt that it would be very desirable if the remuneration, either on a time or capitation basis, could be made uniform throughout the country, as, at the present time, different men are receiving varying stipends for the same amount of work. The question of travelling expenses, where it is necessary for the dental officer to come from some distance, should also be considered. As regards the equipment, this should as a rule be provided entirely by the guardians; but some elasticity is advisable in this particular, because under certain local conditions it may be most economical for part of the work to be done at the dentist's own house.

4. In urging the need for uniformity, the society wish to suggest that, if these appointments were controlled from a central office and reports were sent up, valuable statistics might be collected; and also that as the appointments become more general some supervision by a dental inspector may become necessary. Such inspection would be acceptable to dental officers, and would materially assist in standardising the scope and character of the work done throughout the country.

APPENDIX No. LVI. (A.).

Handed in by the School Dentists' Society.

STATEMENT OF CONDITIONS RECOMMENDED FOR ADOPTION BY BOARDS OF GUARDIANS, OR OF MANAGEMENT, IN REGARD TO THE APPOINTMENT OF DENTAL OFFICERS.

1. The officer appointed should be required:—

To attend at the school or other appointed place according to his agreement with the guardians or managers.

To inspect the teeth of all children admitted since his last visit.

From time to time, according to his agreement, to inspect the teeth of all the children in the school or workhouse, as the case may be.

To attend duly and punctually at each visit upon each child requiring dental treatment, and upon any child who may be brought to him for treatment in the intervals of such visits.

To keep a record of his work, and to report the same to the guardians or managers, in a book to be provided by them for the purpose, under the following heads:—

Date.

Number of children inspected.

Number of temporary teeth extracted.

Number of permanent teeth extracted.

Number of teeth filled.

Number of scalings.

Number of other operations performed.

Any matters which the dental officer may deem necessary or desirable to bring to the notice of the guardians.

This book should ordinarily be kept at the school or workhouse, and should be laid before the guardians or managers by the clerk at each meeting, and should be produced to the inspectors of the Local Government Board when required.

2. The dental officer must be duly registered in accordance with the Statutes in that behalf (41 & 42 Vict., c. 33, 1878, and 49 & 50 Vict., c. 48, 1886), or if not so registered, by reason of any medical or surgical qualification exempting him from the obligation of registration as a dentist, the officer appointed shall produce satisfactory evidence that he holds a licence in dental surgery from either of the following:—

The Royal College of Surgeons of England.

The Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh.

The Royal College of Surgeons of Ireland.

The Faculty of Physicians and Surgeons of Glasgow, or other approved authority.

3. The guardians or managers may pay a dental officer either by:—

(a) An inclusive salary; or

(b) Partly by salary, and partly by fees on a fixed scale for specified operations, provided that all payments for extractions shall be included in salary assigned to the officer and shall not be made by fee.

4. If the dental officer attends at the school or workhouse, it would be necessary that the guardians or manager should provide for his use a suitably equipped surgery including a dental chair and a dental engine, and such other apparatus as may be necessary. It is desirable that they should also provide the requisite materials for fillings and such special appliances as may be needed for mechanical treatment.

Local Government Board,

July, 2nd, 1897.

APPENDIX No. LVII.

MEMORANDUM FROM THE WORKHOUSE NURSING ASSOCIATION.

The executive committee of the Workhouse Nursing Association beg respectfully to draw attention to the following points:—

1. *That the present organisation of Workhouse Sick Wards, which remain unseparated from the Workhouse as regards Medical and Nursing Control, leads to friction.*—This, in its turn, acts injuriously on what should be the main object of all those who are employed in the nursing of the sick; namely, (a) in chronic cases the maintenance of their best comfort, and (b) in other cases efforts towards their cure and rapid return to active life outside. Obviously, an untrained master and matron should not be the supreme authorities over well-trained nurses who are, according to existing law, only in medical matters (and that to a limited extent) under the medical officers in non-separated infirmaries.

This relative position of master and matron and trained nurse leads to dual control, and thus, obviously, to friction; and therefore cannot tend to the best interests of the patients, which should be the chief care of those concerned.

The following is one of many instances:—

Poor Law Officers' Journal, April, 1907.

Question.

Workhouse Administration. Matron's Visits to Hospital. Duty of Porter.

(i) I am engaged as charge nurse of this workhouse hospital, and yet the matron of the house comes round the wards night and morning. Is it her duty to make these rounds when there is a trained nurse in charge and on duty? (ii) I asked the porter, who is

APPENDIX No. LVII.—*Continued.*

bathman, to bath a patient who has an ulcerated leg, and he refused to do it, saying the master had told him not to bath him because he had got a bad leg. Who is to know whether a patient is fit for the bath or not—the master or the nurse?—X. Y. Z.

Answer.

(i) In all matters other than those appertaining to the treatment of the sick, a nurse is subject to the directions of the master and matron of the workhouse. *The matron is required to visit the sleeping wards morning and evening.* (ii) If it is the duty of the porter to act as bathman to the patients in the hospital, we are of opinion that the master should not have interfered with the order given by the nurse.

2. *That Defects in the Nursing Order of 1897 lead to :—*

Article I
(1 and 2). (a) *The continued employment of Paupers to attend upon the Sick*, especially on night duty, a period in which chronic, aged, “senile” cases and sick children are, as well known by medical authorities, particularly dependent for their well-being or cure on skilled conscientious and *trained* care.

Reference need only be made to the reports of the Local Government Board inspectors, which show very clearly that this deplorable system of pauper assistants is far from decreasing in as rapid a manner as may have been hoped, after the issue of the Nursing Order of 1897. (*See Appendix No. LVII. (A).*)

Articles
II and III. (b) *Evasion of the Order* through the employment of entirely untrained nurses, which makes it possible to avoid the appointment of a superintendent nurse.

Extract from information received from a fully trained nurse who was working in a small infirmary on the date quoted. (This nurse does *not* belong to the Workhouse Nursing Association.)

September 25th, 1906 :—

“They call my assistants ‘wardsmaids’ here and I am nurse-in-charge, not superintendent nurse; why, I do not know. I am enquiring of the Local Government Board if it is an arrangement sanctioned by them. Where three or more ‘nurses or assistant nurses’ are employed, I see by the Order that there must be a superintendent nurse. I have three under me.”

Later date :—

“I have been told that this is being done in many small infirmaries for the same reason. This appointment of wardsmaids to the post of nurse is in order to obviate the necessity of appointing a superintendent nurse.

“We had two workhouse women to do the rough work. Our wardsmaids did the nursing work. When I came I was told ‘the pneumonia cases generally die with us.’” (*See Appendix No. LVII. (B).*)

Article III.
(3). (c) *Laxity in the enforcement of the Order* in some instances. This is evidenced by the following extract from the *Poor Law Officers’ Journal* of May 10th, 1907 :—

The Local Government Board have sanctioned the appointment of Mrs. M. M. Ablett, workhouse matron, Eton, to the additional office of superintendent nurse at the workhouse, without extra remuneration. The Board have also dispensed with the requirements, as regards the Eton Union, of Article III. (1) of the Nursing Order, 1897, whilst Mrs. Ablett retains the office of matron and so long as the arrangement is working satisfactorily.

(d) *Lack of uniformity.*—This forms a difficulty in engaging and securing the nursing staffs. One small infirmary may be well and carefully managed, whilst in another the guardians and officials are not interested in the sick; inspection cannot alter this. (*See Appendix No. LVII. (C).*)

3. *That a Supply of Probationers to Small Workhouse Infirmaries should be discouraged.*—The material is insufficient for training and the tone frequently undesirable, especially at a time when not only thorough technical knowledge should be carefully taught, but observation of and an improvement in general character of the probationer aimed at; such an effort alone deserves the title of “training” in its true sense. (*See Appendix No. LVII. (D).*)

APPENDIX No. LVII.—*Continued.*

The association therefore from long practical experience desires to suggest:—

4. (a) *That there is urgent need for the formation of a Nursing Department under the Local Government Board in which the whole Nursing Service should be reorganised.*—If this were done it appears essential that some of the Consolidated Orders should be altered, especially that which gives to the matron of the workhouse “the general care of the sick.” A rearrangement of duties should be aimed at in order to lessen friction.

(b) *That suitable and trained Women as Inspectors should be appointed to investigate the conditions of (i) Nursing generally in the sick wards of infirmaries and of workhouses, including the lying-in wards. (ii) The management of infants and young children in workhouses.*

HELENA, *President.*

HARRIET G. WANTAGE.

W. MONTAGU OF BEAULIEU.

HENRY BONHAM CARTER,
Secretary, Nightingale Fund.

JOHN WILLIAMS.

WILLIAM BOUSFIELD.

JOHN G. TALBOT.

SIBELLA C. BONHAM CARTER.

MERIEL S. TALBOT. } *Vice-*
LOUISA TWINING. } *Presidents.*

J. WILSON, *Honorary Treasurer.*

APPENDIX No. LVII. (A.).

“NURSING NOTES.”—JULY, 1906.

Mr. Bagenal's return for the East and West Riding of Yorkshire regarding the nursing statistics for 1905 shows an increase in the number of nurses employed. For 5,157 sick, 437 nurses (day and night) were in attendance “together with 104 pauper attendants.” For the epileptic patients the number of nurses employed was seventy-eight (day and night) to 1,123 cases, with thirty-six pauper assistants. Mr. Bagenal, in his summary, while admitting advance, remarks:—“The only weak point in the return is that in fourteen workhouses it has not been found possible to provide a night nurse.” This is certainly a serious blot on the administration of these institutions; we may also point out that the proportion of pauper attendants is still very high.

The return of Mr. E. B. Wethered, the general inspector for parts of Gloucestershire, Herefordshire, Somersetshire, Wilts and Worcestershire, is even more unsatisfactory; for he reports an increase in the number of pauper attendants. On January 1st, 1905, there were 159, and on January 1st, 1906, there were 175.

“NURSING NOTES.”—JULY, 1906.

Dr. Fuller, medical inspector under the Local Government Board, has recently made the following report on the sick wards of the Bedford Workhouse:—

“As regards the nursing staff, though it has vastly improved since my last inspection, it cannot be called adequate when the class of cases to be dealt with is considered. Out of a total of thirty-seven male and forty-two female cases, sixteen males and thirty-five females required constant nursing care by day and night. So long as the present wards are utilised, and to avoid pauper ward attendants performing nursing duties, a staff of four nurses, including the superintendent nurse, by day and two (one of whom should be trained) by night, is a necessary minimum to properly perform the nursing duties, and to give the inmates that care, attention, and comfort that their cases demand. A general principle in nursing in workhouses specially applicable here, is the fact now generally accepted by guardians, that helpless or wet and dirty cases or cases bordering upon or actually suffering from senile dementia, require much more skilled care and attention from suitably trained nurses, and should take up necessarily much more of their time night and day than average cases of illness, such as pneumonia, rheumatic fever, etc., after the very acute stage is passed.”

Dr. Fuller's remark “to avoid pauper ward attendants performing nursing duties” is welcome, but while such matters are left to the discretion of local authority, we shall continue to see “pauper attendants performing nursing duties.” The master hand of central control is needed to abolish this disgrace in the present arrangements for the care of our sick poor.

Dr. Fuller has already given evidence, we hear, before the Royal Commission on the question of the medical inspection of provincial workhouses, and it is to be hoped that he has dealt fully with this question of pauper “nursing,” which is of such vital importance.

Since the Nursing Order of 1897 was issued the number of nurses employed in Poor Law infirmaries has increased from 3,658 to 5,897. This is really a growth, and would be a considerable advance if the standard

APPENDIX No. LVII. (A).—*Continued.*

of training had improved; but, unfortunately, this is not the case. The assistant nurses employed are often very ignorant and quite unsuited to the responsibilities thrust upon them; and the system of accepting “probationers” in the smaller workhouse infirmaries is much to be deplored. What sort of training can they hope to get in institutions which have no real standard? In fact, they begin in the wrong way and get imbued with quite the wrong theories.

The appended extract from a report of Mr. James Lowry, issued this year (1907), is further and later evidence :—

“THE POOR LAW OFFICERS’ JOURNAL.”—MAY 10TH, 1907.

Nursing Staffs in the Northern Counties.

Mr. James Lowry, Local Government Board Inspector for Northumberland, Durham, North Riding of Yorkshire, and a part of Cumberland, has just issued the annual nursing return for his district for 1907. The particulars relating to sick nursing include the following, viz. :—

Date.	Number of Sick.	Nurses on Day Duty.	Nurses on Night Duty.	Total.	Number of Patients to each Nurse.	Number of Pauper Attendants.
January 1st, 1903 -	2,832	119	34	153	18·51	208
“ „ 1904 -	2,901	137	45	182	15·94	197
“ „ 1905 -	3,094	143	45	188	16·86	211
“ „ 1906 -	3,056	146	45	191	16·00	151
“ „ 1907 -	3,221	146	47	193	16·69	192

As regards the imbeciles and epileptics a similar comparison shows as follows :—

Date.	Imbeciles and Epileptics in Special Wards.	Attendants on Day Duty.	Attendants on Night Duty.	Total.	Number of Patients to each Attendant.	Number of Pauper Attendants.
January 1st, 1903 -	242	9	7	16	15	22
“ „ 1904 -	230	7	5	12	19	24
“ „ 1905 -	231	8	5	13	18	29
“ „ 1906 -	235	9	6	15	16	23
“ „ 1907 -	261	11	8	19	14	19

The figures for each separate union, which are given in the return, show that there is still room for additions to the paid nursing staff of several infirmaries. At Tynemouth, for instance, the number of patients to each paid nurse is thirty-five by day and eighty by night, or twenty-four by day and night. Hartlepool is almost similar. At Gateshead the figures are forty-eight by day and 142 by night, or thirty-six by day and night. At Auckland and Stockton the number of patients to each paid nurse is twenty, taking day and night duty together, and at Easington the number is twenty-two. There are several small unions where only one nurse is engaged, and this is not satisfactory, as there should always be some one on duty. The Newcastle, South Shields, and Middlesbrough unions seem to have staffs more approaching the standard which has been laid down as necessary for Poor Law institutions. The number of patients in each of these unions to a paid nurse is (taking night and day duty together) fourteen, fourteen, and eleven respectively.

APPENDIX No. LVII. (B).

The following are further extracts (dated October 23rd, 1906) from information received from the same writer—a fully trained nurse—as quoted in 2 (b) :—

“Our infirmary has forty beds. There are three nurses and myself—four in all. *But*, the nurses are called wardmaids—although they regularly take, one the male, one the female side of the infirmary, and one the night nursing, under my supervision. Whilst there was an interregnum between the resignation and departure of the last nurse-in-charge and my appointment, one of these girls had to take charge—imagine it! Of course, they are quite ignorant. It is a thoroughly anomalous condition of affairs and leads to great abuse. Is it common?”

“I find that, in consequence of their knowing nothing of nursing, if the patients are to be *in any sense* adequately nursed, I must devote my whole time to the work. Since I came here four months ago I have only been outside the gates three times.

“During the holidays of the three nurses, we have worked short-handed; at one time one day nurse and I were attending to thirty-eight patients, of whom twelve or fourteen were bed-ridden. That meant for me

APPENDIX No. LVII. (B).—*Continued.*

eighteen hours work per day for a fortnight and being called up at night as well, as we had a lying-in case, with twins, and the mother could not manage both babies.

"The extraordinary responsibility, too, of the nurse strikes one with amazement. I am the only person in the place who knows a thing about nursing. The doctor only comes round once a day, and we are very fortunate in the man we have here, but anything may happen whilst he is on his rounds, miles away—in which case I see to it. Practically, one is entirely mistress of the position; and yet one works as a *subordinate* entirely. The thing is absurd.

"I am very glad to have this experience and to see for myself what work under the Poor Law really is. At this moment I am sitting by a very sick man in the early morning, having had just two hours of sleep. Yet my work through the day must be done just the same. . .

"I have had some good cases:—Two pneumonias, a fractured ribs and cut head, a fractured femur, a pernicious anæmia, an aortic aneurism, a gangrene foot, a multiple neutitis (acute), besides several other things of interest. . .

"I have got them to provide some things most urgently required and more are coming. But the labour ward remains absolutely only four walls and a fireplace, for all my talking. Of course lying-in cases are extremely rare—I have had one, and a miscarriage, since I came. But if they are taken at all (as they must be) due preparations ought to be made for them. I had to manage the labour with most inadequate arrangements—and how I should have done for, say, hot water even, had I needed it for special purposes, I cannot imagine. . .

"I am not complaining as for myself. I came to see and I am seeing. Experience, *practically*, is the only real means of knowing the inner working of these places. Changes and improvements are badly needed."

APPENDIX No. LVII. (C). '1

"NURSING NOTES.—OCTOBER, 1906."

Infirmary Notes.—Reduction of Staff.

A special committee appointed by the King's Lynn Guardians have had under consideration the recent reduction of the nursing staff from six to five. The following entry made by the medical officer in his report book gave rise to the discussion:—"I consider that one night nurse to be responsible for the cases in two blocks in the infirmary building is inadequate to the patients' requirements, and incurs risk of accident." The committee stated that after an interview with the chief officials, they had come to the conclusion that the present staff of nurses should be maintained, but that there should be two nurses on night duty. The Rev. A. H. Hayes moved an amendment that the number of nurses should be six, two of whom should be on night duty. He said that he had special opportunities of watching the work at the infirmary, and that the committee had overlooked the fact that there were two distinct blocks of buildings. He had never found any idling on the part of the staff and could not see any reason for reducing the nurses from six to five. The reason given was of economy, and this perhaps was justified in certain cases. But considering the enormous responsibility in dealing with the sick, he did not consider economy was justified in the present case. According to the recommendations they would now have three day nurses and two on night duty. They said that this ought to be sufficient, but they seemed to overlook the fact that for ten weeks in the year the holidays were on and the day staff would be reduced from three to two.

A member of the board stated that they had by far the largest staff in the eastern counties, and when they were told by their own staff that the infirmary could be worked efficiently with one nurse less they could not do anything else than reduce the number of nurses. The infirmary would still be carried on efficiently if the report were adopted.

Only four members voted in favour of the amendment.

JANUARY, 1907.

Infirmary Notes.

The lack of uniformity as the weak point in the administration of Poor Law nursing is evidenced so continually that to draw attention to it seems to suggest a dull subject. Yet, until the fundamental principle of organised methods in dealing with the sick is admitted and acted upon, we cannot hope to welcome the long-looked-for day of advance in the important question of the economic and efficient care of the sick in Poor Law infirmaries. An interesting report was recently before the Frome Board of Guardians, giving particulars relating to the nursing arrangements in a number of unions, and the disparity in the average number of patients to nurses is an object lesson, and indicative of the different opinions of individual boards of guardians in regard to providing attendance on the sick under their care. For instance, at Frome itself, the number of nurses employed was two to forty cases, on an average; in contrast, we hear of Docking with four nurses to twenty patients, giving an average of five patients to a nurse. At Salisbury there were four nurses to take care of sixty-five cases; the average per nurse being just over sixteen. There is no mention in this report of whether the nurses take both day and night duty. It makes all the difference if these averages include day and night nursing. But we conclude it does, for the provision of any system of night nursing seems to be considered quite unnecessary in most of the smaller infirmaries.

Although in many unions great economy is exercised in regard to the employment of an adequate staff of trained nurses, expenditure in other direction is often lavish. Some late statistics in regard to the care of the insane in asylums give the curious fact that the cost of maintenance of the inmates of an ordinary workhouse is

APPENDIX No. LVII. (C)—*Continued.*

considerably higher than in a lunatic asylum. It points to very unsatisfactory organisation that a pauper inmate of a workhouse should cost more to maintain than an insane patient whose condition demands the most careful individual care and medical and expert nursing treatment.

At King's Lynn lately the board of guardians were compelled at the strong recommendation of the medical officer, supported by the Local Government Board Inspector, Captain Hervey, to appoint two special nurses, at a salary of two guineas a week each, to take charge of a typhoid case. It appears that neither of the night nurses had any experience in nursing, and the superintendent nurse had been on duty for twenty-four hours on a stretch. It is a disgrace that there should be no experienced nurse on night duty, and it is to be hoped the Local Government Board will insist on the appointment of at least one trained nurse for night duty in the King's Lynn Union Infirmary.

APPENDIX No. LVII. (D).

"POOR LAW OFFICERS' JOURNAL."—MARCH 16TH, 1906.

The St. Asaph Guardians have now decided to appoint a probationer nurse. It will be remembered that a few weeks ago they discussed a recommendation of the Local Government Board Inspector, that they should appoint a fully trained nurse, but action was then deferred. Last week, when the appointment of a probationer was decided upon, the medical officer stated that it was impossible for one nurse to deal adequately with conditions that had arisen during the past fortnight. A case was mentioned by a member where a patient had been brought to the workhouse infirmary in a state of coma and had to be watched day and night. Under the circumstances, it would appear that the guardians would have acted more wisely if they had followed the inspector's advice, for it is quite clear that the appointment of a probationer will not afford the assistance that is necessary in this institution.

"NURSING NOTES."—OCTOBER, 1906.

The Question of Training.

We are glad to note that the false position of many young women who enter for training in many workhouse infirmaries is at last arousing controversy in some directions.

The Chichester Board of Guardians, who undertake to give three years' training in the sick wards of their workhouse, recently received a letter from the father of one of the probationers, giving the board six months' notice on his daughter's behalf to terminate the engagement. The complaint was that no lectures were given by the medical officer, and that the probationer had had to look after lunatics, one of whom had kicked and bitten her. Some members of the Board considered that probationers who had signed for three years' training after the month's trial, should be compelled to remain and complete their full term. Dr. Barford pointed out that the guardians had promised that the probationers should have lectures, but that there was no contract with the medical officer, and any lectures he chose to give were gratuitous. After discussion, a lady guardian (Mrs. Webb) expressed the opinion that the training of the probationers should be put on a better basis. It was agreed to leave the matter in the hands of the visiting committee to hold an enquiry into the training of the probationers.

Probationer or Assistant Nurses.

The guardians of the Romsey Union recently engaged two young women as probationers, and the Local Government Board were asked to sanction their appointment, but demurred to do so unless the nurses were to receive training, and suggested they should be called assistant nurses. The reply of the guardians was that the nurses would receive training at the hands of the medical officer and the head nurse. The latest letter from the Local Government Board, which was read at a recent meeting of the board of guardians, stated that the board still considered that the nurses should not be regarded as probationer nurses, but assistant nurses.

The vice-chairman wished to know how they could tell the difference ?

Mr. Thurston : They are assistants to the nurse.

{ The clerk said they could not be assistant nurses, because when they came they knew nothing about nursing

Sir J. Hopkins said he had seen one of the young women, who said it would make a great difference to her in the future whether she was now to be recognised as an assistant to the nurse or a probationer nurse.

The clerk said that Miss Woolley had written to ask why she was called an assistant to the nurse, because if she was to be called that she must go elsewhere.

The vice-chairman thought they must fight the Local Government Board on the question, and if they would not allow them to appoint their nurses, they had better come down and do it themselves.

The clerk read some of the correspondence which had taken place on the subject, and Sir J. Hopkins said his opinion was that they *should be appointed probationer nurses, and allow the Local Government Board to take what action they liked.* He questioned if they had any power to prevent them. He then moved that the Misses Taylor and Woolley be appointed probationer nurses.

The vice-chairman seconded, and it was agreed to unanimously, and the two probationers were called in and told of the decision.

PART III.—POOR LAW AND MISCELLANEOUS.

APPENDIX No. LVIII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY GENERAL BOOTH.

INTRODUCTORY.

1. Some years ago I was led, as the outcome of a long experience in endeavouring to morally elevate the poor and vicious classes, to embark upon a more comprehensive and organised effort for their benefit in connection with the Salvation Army. The principles of that effort were :—

(a) *Individual Reformation.* I placed this principle in the front, and I still do so, in all operations which have for their object the betterment of society. Any effort at social reform which does not provide facilities for the regeneration of the individual is, in my opinion, foredoomed to failure.

(b) *Discipline.* All who participate in the proposed benefits must be subject to appropriate discipline.

(c) *Amelioration of immediate conditions.*

(d) *Co-operation* on the part of the individual in his own reclamation.

(e) *Labour.* Work must be found adapted as far as practicable to the capacity of each worker, and with a view of training for future usefulness.

(f) *Efficient control and oversight by trained officials.*

(g) *Repayment* in some degree, at any rate, of the cost of their reclamation by those benefited.

2. With one exception the main lines of what I proposed to do have been constructed. Many more branches of activity than I expected or dreamt of at the time have been added for grappling with sections of the social distress originally comprehended in the scope of the effort. The convictions I then felt have been strengthened by the experience gained, and the hopes I then cherished have been justified.

3. In proportion as the scheme has been adopted, I am more than ever satisfied with the soundness and practicability of the principles I set forth, and among others, for the following reasons :—

(a) The extent to which some of its proposals and departments have been freely adopted by religious, philanthropic and local government bodies.

(b) The gratifying measure of success which has attended the adaptation of the scheme to the national and social conditions of other countries, civilised and semi-civilised.

(c) The endorsement by Governments of many of my plans for dealing with some of the classes concerned, notably those affecting vagrants, and for colonisation and emigration.

4. In view of the immense importance to the nation of a wise and economical care of its poor, I am led in some measure by the experience thus gained to submit for consideration the proposals outlined in this statement.

5. If I have travelled outside or beyond the strict limits of the questions which have been raised under the general heading, "Distress due to want of employment," upon which the Salvation Army has been asked to furnish suggestions, it is because I feel that that is only one branch of the general question of the nation's relationship to its poor, and can only be adequately dealt with by treating that question as a whole.

6. I regret that the limitations proper to such a communication as this will prevent me from setting out my proposals in any great detail, or from expressing my opinions on many subsidiary matters of importance, but I will endeavour to present an outline of my views as concisely as I may.

7. Many considerations have guided me in framing these proposals. As a statement of these in full would involve the compilation of facts and statistics which I presume have already been tendered from official sources, I will confine myself to mentioning some of the accepted conclusions which have influenced me in arriving at specific opinions, viz :—

(a) The comparative failure of the present Poor Law system to restore to any degree of efficiency the lapsed classes who claim its assistance.

(b) The vicious influences of indiscriminate charity.

(c) The success which has undoubtedly followed the principle of compulsory segregation for certain classes.

(d) The principle that the recipients of State relief should pay the cost, or part of the cost, by some form of labour or otherwise.

(e) That rational reformatory methods should be associated with punitive arrangements.

(f) That a more commonsense classification of the persons concerned has become an absolute necessity.

(g) And the personal conviction stronger now than ever, that the principle of reclamation and reformation should run through the entire gamut of any system of relief.

THE PRINCIPLE OF CLASSIFICATION.

8. The principle of classification is already recognised to a limited extent in the dividing of the sexes, the keeping apart of the sick the feeble-minded the insane, and of the children, who are now largely treated by separate plans.

9. An example is furnished by the Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905, which for the first time recognised that the willing and able-bodied unemployed should be assisted by the State without the stigma of pauperism.

10. It is well known, however, that in some districts even the foregoing broad lines of demarcation are scarcely perceptible. Individual weakness of character, as well as the qualities conducive to restoration, can only be ascertained by a scientific, sympathetic and commonsense system of classifying the men, women and children concerned.

11. I would insist upon the application of this principle of classification to a much wider extent, with these objects :—

(a) To secure greater efficiency and economy in the management of the classes concerned, and

(b) To secure the restoration and reformation of those whose physical or moral conditions have compelled them to seek the aid and protection of the State.

12. Destitution is no longer, I believe, the only qualification for State aid. It has been wisely abandoned as the primary reason. The Act already referred to falls far short in my opinion of what is required by the situation which it was intended to meet, and its administration is open to considerable criticism; but it embodies a valuable principle which, under certain conditions, permits the rendering of aid to men who are able, willing and eager to work but cannot find it, without requiring their actual destitution as a condition precedent.

It removes the stigma of pauperism from a class whose circumstances are not mainly the result of their individual misfortunes or misconduct, and to that

Accepted conclusions which have led to the proposals submitted.

Extent to which classification is already recognised.

Objects of improved classification.

Valuable principle in Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905.

Removal of stigma of pauperism.

APPENDIX No. LVIII.—Continued.

extent (and to that extent only) the Act is an advance on anything that has gone before.

Other recent instances of adoption of principle of classification.

13. Other recent illustrations of the adoption of the principle of classification are supplied by the Probation of Offenders Act, and by the Children's Bill now before Parliament for creating amongst other things Juvenile Courts. If the administration of these measures be placed in the hands of competent and sympathetic persons, I have little doubt that the results will be satisfactory, and that the experience gained will confirm the principle for which I am contending.

Old Age Pensions.

14. But, more important still, the signs of the times point to a far-reaching application of the same principle in the projected provision of Old Age Pensions by the State.

How, then, would I apply this principle?

PROPOSED NEW CLASSIFICATION.

15. I would divide the classes to be helped by the State into four main sections, as follows:—

Class I.

16. *The destitute and the sick poor* who are incapacitated for doing remunerative work on account of—

- (a) Old age.
- (b) Physical unfitness.
- (c) Mental or moral infirmity.
- (d) Sickness.

Class II.

17. *The destitute who are able to engage in labour* to support themselves, but who, because of their idleness, drunken habits, or misconduct, have made themselves a nuisance or a danger to society, including:—

- (a) The vagrant and the unemployable.
- (b) The habitual drunkard.
- (c) The confirmed criminal.

Class III.

18. *The unemployed*, meaning those who are able and willing to work, but unable to procure it.

Class IV.

19. *The children.*

CLASS I.

20. *The destitute, who are incapacitated for doing remunerative work on account of—*

The aged to be separated.

(a) *Old Age.* I would separate this class and would provide for them work in character and quantity suited to their powers.

Desirability of work suited to their capacity.

Some, of course, would be unable to perform any work at all, and these I would maintain in a reasonable degree of comfort, and make their old age as congenial as the circumstances would permit. I am, however, convinced that some work suited to their capacity could and ought to be devised to a much larger extent than is at present done. Idleness even with the aged is not conducive to health, or to enjoyment of life. They ought to work, although in the nature of things their work could not be expected to realise more than a small sum towards their maintenance.

Effect of Old Age Pension scheme.

It may be urged that in the event of an Old Age Pension Scheme becoming law the best type of the aged poor will not seek the hospitality of the State. The effect will probably be that the friendless and those who for the want of a better name may be termed the inferior residuum will alone be left, but I would not deprive any of this class of the facilities for spending the remainder of their days in comfort.

Larger measure of freedom.

I would grant them a larger measure of freedom than many of them obtain at present. For example, I would arrange for their occasional recreation and entertainment, in the form of outdoor exercise, visits to friends, and the enjoyment of the companionship of children from time to time, and such like.

The blind, deaf, cripple and permanently diseased.

(b) *Physical Unfitness.*—Under this heading I include the blind, the deaf and dumb, cripples, and persons otherwise so afflicted or diseased as to make it impossible for them to earn a livelihood in the open market; but here again I would arrange a system of labour suited to their condition so as to give them the benefits which accrue from employment, however limited that employment may be.

Suitable work. Feeble-minded, epileptics, imbeciles, lunatics.

(c) *Mental or Moral Infirmity.*—Under this head would be included the feeble-minded, epileptics,

imbeciles, and insane persons. My experience convinces me that it is desirable—

(a) To segregate these classes as completely as possible. For some, probably, the segregation will need to be permanent and secure, but the harmless might, without disadvantage, be cared for in buildings and under conditions entailing much less cost than those at present adopted.

Segregation

(b) To allow none of them, when once they have come under the control of the constituted authority, to return to the outside world unless and until it be clearly proved that not only have they been "cured" but that there is reasonable ground for believing they are capable of permanently earning a livelihood.

Non-return to outside world

21. As in the case of the aged poor and the physically infirm, so with these classes—*some form of labour should be provided.*

Suitable labour or these assets also.

22. Under the beneficent effects of work, e.g., in the lighter branches of agriculture, many, I am convinced, will ultimately be restored, and will also be enabled thereby to contribute something towards their maintenance.

23. Impoverishment and unhealthy environment have helped to create a large proportion of these classes, and when once a radical change is effected in their condition it often becomes a mere question of time, patience, and skilful treatment to bring them back to a normal state.

Restriction by improved conditions.

24. It is necessary, however, that their replacement in society should be under conditions entirely different from those which were largely responsible for their affliction. Suitable work under healthy social conditions must be found for them, and until they are well on their feet they should remain under the supervision of inspectors appointed for the purpose. If they lapse again they should be immediately retransferred to the institution and dealt with accordingly.

Replacement in society

25. Feeble-minded women should, I think, be treated separately on the lines recommended by my daughter-in-law, Mrs. Bramwell Booth, before the Royal Commission on the Feeble-Minded. Mrs. Booth, with whose suggestions I entirely agree, submitted the following:—

Feeble-minded women. Mrs. Bramwell Booth's recommendation.

(a) Let it be compulsory to register the feeble-minded.

Compulsory registration.

(b) Every feeble-minded woman registered and duly certified by medical men to be made a ward and placed under the care of some legal guardian, such guardian to be, by preference, a relative—where relatives are found to be suitable—but otherwise, under the care of any person or society willing to accept the responsibility. Where no suitable person or society can be found to undertake this, I would make the Judge of the County Court, or some magistrate, the guardian, with power to place them out suitably.

Every feeble-minded woman to be made a ward.

(c) The guardian to be invested by law with full power and control over the feeble-minded woman, irrespective of her age, precisely as if she were a child under sixteen, and be made responsible for her safety and proper treatment.

Power of guardian.

(d) Every feeble-minded woman to be placed under the direction of the laws now in force for the protection of girls under sixteen years of age.

To be secured with girls under 16 for protection.

(e) The feeble-minded not to be removed into institutions from the care of guardians who can provide for them under the normal conditions of their class; but where such provision cannot properly be made, then I favour their being brought into institutions especially fitted for them, where they should be taught useful occupations.

Not to be removed from the care of guardians who can provide for them.

(f) I recommend that such institutions as are here outlined, should be voluntary institutions, and while the financial arrangements should be subject to careful audit, and the homes open to proper inspection, the State should have nothing further to do with them. They should, in short, be as far as possible like homes, and as little as possible like workhouses, asylums, or prisons.

Voluntary institutions. State inspection.

(g) I am of opinion that the only hope of permanently benefitting the feeble-minded is to be found in careful classification, instruction in industries, and constant supervision, combined with the influence of a happy religion.

The only hope for the feeble-minded.

APPENDIX No. LVIII.—*Continue 1.*

26. Now it will be observed that I attach great importance to the operation of the principles of detention and labour.

27. The first requires no argument, I think, in its support. Where the liberty of any person, aged or otherwise, becomes a nuisance or a menace to society there must be a resort to compulsion. Society must be protected, and the individual in his own best interest either segregated or placed under restraint.

28. As to their labour, objections I know are urged against the organised employment of these classes. It is contended that the produce of their labour would come into competition with that of ordinary workmen. On this matter I have considerable experience. At the present time thousands of destitute men and women are engaged in various occupations under our control, *thereby meeting part of their own temporary needs*, while being fitted for future permanent employment.

29. Without such a system they would now either—

(a) Be maintained by the State in enforced idleness; or

(b) Be eking out an existence on the doles of the charitable.

30. On the other hand, their labour saves them from being pauperised or demoralised; on the other, they produce a large number of articles required by themselves and others embraced in my scheme as a whole.

31. I would recommend that this plan should be adopted in providing wholly or partially for the requirements of the above classes, and I claim that it is a right, as well as a sound and economical method of utilising the labour of the State-aided, to say nothing of the obligation which the authority is under to consider the interests of the taxpayers and rate-payers.

But it may be urged that the placing of the surplus articles produced by this class of labour upon the market might be unfair to the trade or workmen generally, to which I reply that such is not the case where—as with articles made in our workshops—there is no under-selling.

33. If the produce of this labour is sold at the market price, the only objection that can be raised is that a new competitor has entered the field. But surely, in the name of common sense and humanity, it is as legitimate to use commerce as a means of uplifting and reforming men as of increasing the personal wealth of individuals.

34. Besides, is there any other method of enabling the recipient of State aid to co-operate with the State to effect his social salvation and to contribute something towards paying the cost involved?

I think not.

(d) *Sickness*.—I contend that the sick poor should be the first care of the nation, whether the sickness be induced by their own ignorance or folly or by poverty, contagion, or natural causes.

The method of dealing with the sick poor should be such as to make it possible to afford immediate aid. There should be no circumlocution about it. It is better that mistakes should be made than that the sick, especially serious cases, should be allowed to suffer unnecessarily or to spread disease.

To protect the State I would give the authority concerned power to recover the cost in certain events.

For a considerable number of years the care of persons suffering from infectious diseases has been the duty of the local authorities.

By municipalities this has been freely rendered without pauperisation. In rural districts the cost has, in fact, at times been paid out of the poor rate, with consequent pauperisation of the recipients, while at other times it has been paid out of the sanitary rate without pauperisation.

The sick poor, whether suffering from infectious disease or not, should be treated by the Public Health Authority without any stigma of pauperisation.

There should be one Local Health Authority for each district directing and controlling the necessary duties, and health visitors ought to be organised, and sufficient infirmary or hospital provision made for the patients requiring treatment in such institutions.

In connection with my visit to Japan last year the necessity for a large development of the principle underlying such an authority was very forcibly brought before me by the system adopted in Japanese cities. A re-examination of the social conditions of the poor in this country induces me to believe that the time has arrived for a similar movement here.

Lessons from Japan.

At present the outdoor medical relief afforded by the State is generally limited to the service of the parish doctor. Voluntary agencies have certainly sprung up in the form of free dispensaries and kindred charities, which no doubt render valuable service to the community, but they are not organised or co-ordinated so as to cope with the sickness or disease in the parishes in which they are situated, and I fear there is some overlapping.

Voluntary free Dispensaries.

The Health Authority should, in the system I advocate, take the initiative. It should not wait for the sick poor to come; it should find them out.

The Health Authority should find out the sick

CLASS II.

35. *The destitute who are able to engage in labour to support themselves, but who because of their idleness or drunken habits or misconduct have made themselves a nuisance, an expense, or a danger to society.* Under this head I would include:—

(a) The vagrant and those who, from various reasons, are unfitted for regular employment, sometimes called the unemployable.

(b) The habitual drunkard.

(c) The confirmed criminal.

36. For these classes I propose the establishment of compulsory labour colonies, I would divide the country into zones, in each of which one or more of such colonies should be established, in which persons belonging to these classes should be detained.

37. The persons affected should be transferred to the proposed colonies in the following manner. That is to say:—

Method of transfer to the colonies.

(a) Convicted vagrants, on the order of any court of summary jurisdiction.

Of vagrants.

(b) Habitual drunkards, confirmed criminals, incorrigibles, on the order of a magistrate or judge, who should be empowered to commit to the colony and others, in lieu of, or in addition to a term of imprisonment.

Of habitual drunkards, confirmed criminals, incorrigibles, on the order of a magistrate or judge, who should be empowered to commit to the colony and others.

(c) Prisoners who at the expiration of their term of sentence are unable to produce to the visiting justices of any prison in which they may be detained, satisfactory evidence that they have the means of supporting themselves by honest labour, and are intending to do so, on the order of two such visiting justices.

Time expired of sentence are unable to produce to the visiting justices of any prison in which they may be detained, satisfactory evidence that they have the means of supporting themselves by honest labour, and are intending to do so, on the order of two such visiting justices.

(d) Any member of either of the above classes voluntarily declaring before a magistrate his desire to be committed to a labour colony, on the order of the magistrate before whom such declaration is made.

Voluntary entry.

38. Speaking broadly, I do not see any serious objection to mixing individuals of these classes in the same colony. It may be found advisable to place persons guilty of the most serious offences in a class by themselves, but experience leads me to conclude that those who are nearly akin in feelings and character, though transgressing in different ways, do better together than apart. For some of the more intelligent and those who belong to a higher social class conditions should be provided favourable to their superior breeding and education.

Mixing of classes in colonies.

39. The aim of these colonies would be reclamation and reformation of the persons committed to them with a view to their subsequent return to their ordinary occupations and privileges in society.

Aim of the colonies reclamation and reformation.

40. The means to be employed in seeking the attainment of this object would be in the main as follows:—

Means to be employed.

(a) *Detention* for such a period as the necessity of each individual case would suggest.

Detention.

(b) *Discipline*. I would not abrogate the penal principle in the discipline of such colonies. Provision should be made for compelling the idle to work, and the drunkard to undergo the treatment prescribed for him. Insubordination should also be subject to disciplinary measures. But I would

Discipline.

APPENDIX No. LVIII.—Continued.

Discipline.	not rely upon compulsion to any great degree. Hence my next method would be :	(e) Thus it will be seen that they frequently bring bad reput upon the genuine worker, who is often discredited on a wide scale solely because of the idle, loafing, filthy habits and ingratitude of a handful of tramps, who appear and re-appear in a locality with the regularity of the seasons.	Bring ad reput on genui worker.
Kindness.	(c) <i>Kindness.</i> I would treat the colonists, not as convicts, but as men or women desiring and deserving to be reformed in their disposition and habits.	(f) Much of the charity dispensed in the large cities finds its way to this class. It is thus rendered not only unproductive of good, but a source of positive evil, if only because it helps to support a section of the poor which propagates disease and demoralises all who come within its influence.	Receiv undue proportion of charit
Instruction.	(d) <i>Instruction.</i> By all sorts of means, I would set before the inmates of a compulsory labour colony the physical, moral, and material benefits arising from honesty, industry, and sober living. Many of these classes are what they are by reason of superficial and false education.	(g) Most of the efforts to check the growth of the evil are rendered abortive chiefly by the fact that there is no method of keeping the tramp in one place, and compelling him to work until he acquires the habit of industry and prefers it to idleness. Some magistrates, when a vagrant of this class is brought before them for some petty larceny, feel so deeply the importance of giving him a chance of settled employment that they pass upon him the fullest sentence permissible by the law—for example, sending a man to prison for two years for a theft of a clothes peg or a turnip. Such cases have occasionally been known to turn out well ; but, as a rule, I fear the prison associations are no more likely to reform him than those of " the road " or the workhouse.	Abortiv effort to check the evil.
Formation of character.	(e) <i>Formation of character or the actual formation of habits favourable to right living.</i> It is not enough to instruct them in morals. I believe in the practicability of making men moral, if taken in hand as unruly children, and compelled to eat, drink, labour, walk, talk, and act, on very much the same principles as would be the case in dealing with such children.	(h) If an effective system of State control were established under reasonable and benevolent conditions, I am led to believe that a considerable proportion of these wandering vagrants would be reformed. In our experience on the Hadleigh Land Colony, where men of this class have formed a fair proportion of the total number received, our officers have seldom found them absolutely refusing to work. We have observed that many of them were not averse to labouring for a day or two, but the continuity of the thing was the real trouble! The results with the man who could keep steadily at his task for the first month or six weeks were almost invariably satisfactory. Some such have been permanently recovered from their lost estate, and if we could have prevailed upon the others to remain, and persistently struggle against the habits of years, they too might have been restored. But when the "moving on" impulse moved them it proved too strong. On they must go, and so our efforts for them, and their own little labour and hope for themselves, were lost. These are, I think, fit subjects for State treatment. Nay, the State is under obligation to give them at least the opportunity for reform.	State intr necessity.
Training.	Many of these classes I am convinced can be reformed—		
Influences of religion.	41. By training in some suitable form of employment ; and 42. By the influences of religion—by a change of nature through the operation of the Divine spirit. 43. Now I submit that those who compose this Class II. have ever been and still are both the curse of the poor generally and the despair of every State official who has to deal with them. The vagrants, at any rate, up to the present, show no sign of diminishing in number. The habitual drunkard is still with us ; the professional and confirmed criminal still preys on society, and while constituting a big percentage of our prison population, is constantly on and off the poor rate in some way or other. It is generally agreed that the present system both in its punitive and reformatory character has practically failed, and that the moment is at hand for introducing complete reform. Punishment alone is no remedy, and the prison is not a reformatory.		
Vagrant and unemployable.	44. In the year 1904 I endeavoured to arouse public opinion to the need of reform with regard to the existing system of dealing with vagrants, and on looking again at what I then published in a pamphlet entitled, "The Vagrant and the Unemployable," I am more strongly convinced than ever that the propositions there set forth are worthy of serious consideration.		
Provision for dealing with "tramps."	45. I take this opportunity of repeating some general observations and proposals submitted at that time, as follows :— For several years it has appeared to me that some definite provision should be made by the community for dealing effectively with that class of vagrant known to us all as "the tramp." 46. The information acquired by my officers in their large experience amongst the submerged classes, especially since the inauguration of the Darkest England Scheme, and partly as a result of the success attending that effort, leads me to several important conclusions with regard to this class.	(i) Provision should also be made for that pitiable class—the willing but inefficient, from whose numbers the ranks of the vagrants and loafers are recruited.	The w ng but ineffici
Those who live without work.	(a) It is beyond question that there is a section of the population who by one means or another contrive to subsist at the expense of the community without work.	47. Having regard to these conclusions, I venture to propose that a new departure, so far as this country department is concerned, should immediately be sanctioned by the Government.	Time f ne depart
They secure help intended for the genuine unemployed.	(b) This class is prominent in times of bad trade and scarcity, and being skilled in habits of "sponging" and other objectionable courses, manages to secure a large proportion of the help intended for the genuine worker who, often without fault of his own, has fallen out of employment.	48. A central authority analogous to the Prison or Lunacy Commissioners will, I think, ultimately become a necessity ; but for present and practical purposes, in order to carry out the plan, I would suggest :—	Author
Habits of vagrants.	(c) These vagrants are a kind of nomad. They take advantage to the fullest extent possible of the Poor Law provisions. They contrive, in extreme weather, and in sickness—often induced by their vicious habits—to pass in and out of the workhouses, infirmaries, and casual wards with the greatest freedom, while at other times they prey, in one way or another, on all around them.	(a) That the Vagrancy Laws be so amended as to give magistrates the power under certain prescribed conditions to commit tramps coming before them to colonies or settlements established for that purpose, for periods of not more than three years.	Suggest Commi to labor colonies
Averse to work.	(d) As a class they are constitutionally averse to work, partly because they have never felt its necessity, having learned how to exist without it, and partly because they have never been set to any sustained and remunerative labour which they were capable of performing.	(b) That local authorities be empowered to establish labour colonies for such vagrants, and that they or any charitable society doing so may—on receiving the licence of the Secretary of State—receive and detain vagrants so committed to them for the purpose of employing them, the licence to be issued after such inspection as the central authority may determine (much as in the case of the Inebriates Acts).	Establishment of labor colonies
		(c) That such disciplinary powers (for the purpose of compelling the idle to work), as the Secretary of State may think necessary be granted under bye-laws, as in the case of inebriates' reformatories.	Discipl powers.
		(d) That the cost of maintaining such colonies be provided by a contribution from the Treasury at the same rate as it now contributes to the support of inebriates' reformatories, and that muni-	Cost of mainte

APPENDIX No. LVIII.—Continued.

cialities, county councils, and other authorities be also empowered to contribute at such rates as may be agreed upon.

(e) That the necessary capital, in at any rate a large part, be provided by extending the powers of the Board of Agriculture with respect to land improvement loans, or by conferring on the Home Office similar powers for industries.

49. Should this proposal be adopted, I would urge the great importance of employing to the full the influences of kindness and sympathy, as well as the motives of religion, in dealing with these men. Many of them, notwithstanding their idle and repulsive habits, are still capable of making an effort at reformation. With some the memory of better days is not dead, or anything approaching it, and on others the barest hope that they may rise to lives of decency and industry has a wonderful effect. That they may have at least a chance under favourable conditions is the object of my suggestion.

These proposals were received with general approval by Statesmen, Poor Law experts, Justices of the Peace, and the Press.

50. With some, it may be undue, confidence that if put into the form of a Bill, Parliament would accept them, I was emboldened to promote a Bill on these lines. In the arena of legislation the Bill was received with favour, and its principles were endorsed by an inter-departmental Committee on Vagrancy, which, in its Report, 1906, page 75, paragraph 28, made the following statement:—"Of the many schemes which have been put before us, we would draw special attention to that contained in a Bill introduced in the House of Commons by Sir John Gost during the Session of 1904, with the support of a number of Members on both sides of the House. Its main principles have received wide approval. We understand that it was prepared at the instance of the Salvation Army, and represented their views at the time."

51. But the Government of that time took no action in the matter, nor has the Government now in power indicated any disposition to legislate on the lines recommended. This is all the more disappointing when it is remembered that there was nothing to prevent the Government adopting the Bill, which it was generally agreed would not only deal effectively with the vagrant class, but at the same time would do much to clear the ground for a practical consideration of the unemployed question as a whole.

52. It appears to me, therefore, that the present moment is opportune for reviving the consideration of the plan for establishing compulsory labour colonies, and I earnestly hope that the Government may be prevailed upon to promote legislation for this purpose.

53. I have pleasure in appending a copy of the Bill.*

54. The financial aspect of such colonies as are contemplated, has occupied my close attention. In connection with my frequent visits to America, and to Canada, and other parts of the British Empire, as well as to several Continental countries, I have been able to discuss the question with experts and others who have had official and practical experience in directing beggar and labour colonies. I may also claim to have acquired a considerable acquaintance with the economical working of undertakings somewhat akin to those proposed, by experience gained in connection with the City and Land and Industrial Colonies of the social work of the Salvation Army.

55. My leading officers in the management of this division of our operations in different parts of the world have reported to me from time to time on the working of other similar institutions, especially the labour colonies on the Continent, and, altogether, I am more than satisfied that, if the State will provide the facilities for the establishment of such colonies in this country for the purpose specified, the financial results will not after a time be found to involve any serious burden.

56. Take the Witzwyl Colony, Switzerland, as an example of what can be done with forced labour. This I especially quote, as it is the most successful financially of those which have come under my notice.

57. H. Preston Thomas, Esq., Local Government Board Inspector, in a Report to the Right Hon. Walter Long, M.P., dated June, 1904, stated:—

"The forced labour farm at Witzwyl, Canton, of Berne, was established in 1895, and in various respects appears to be admirably successful. It occupies an area of about 2,000 acres in the plain lying at the

foot of the Jura mountains, at the north-east end of the Lake of Neuchatel. It used to consist mainly of water-logged soil, subject to inundations, but extensive works of reclamation have been carried out, and, at the present time, at least two-thirds of it is under cultivation, and produces considerable crops. It is under the control of the Police Committee of the Canton of Berne, and receives persons sentenced by criminal courts for terms of imprisonment up to three years, including some forty or fifty convicted of habitual tramping with refusal to work. There is accommodation at present for about 200 men (picked as able-bodied, and otherwise suitable to be present here), but the number seldom exceeds 150. The violent and insubordinate, and those who make attempts to escape, are transferred to ordinary prisons; but such cases are rare.

"Great stress is laid on the importance of the staff not merely supervising the men, but taking active part in the work so as to stimulate them by example, and also to get acquainted with them. All inmates on their first entry are set to labour on the farm, and, after some experience has been gained of their conduct and their capacity, they are either retained there or are employed in other occupations.

"There are various workshops where tailoring, shoemaking, smith's work, and carpentering are carried on. Only men brought up in these trades work at them.

"The guiding principle of the management is to 'improve the land by man, and man by the land.' The first of these objects, at any rate, is secured in a conspicuous degree. A huge marsh has been converted into a fertile farm, traversed by newly-constructed roads, and supplied with sufficient buildings. More and more ground has been reclaimed each year, and, while the peat extracted has been sold at satisfactory prices, the soil, by scientific treatment and the abundant use of chemical manures, has been made to produce abundant crops. The original price paid for the land by the canton was £29,710. No trustworthy estimate of the present value can be given, but it is noticeable that the sales of farm produce in the three years, 1901-2-3, are about double what they were in 1896-7-8, and it is not unreasonable to suppose that the worth of the estate has been raised in a corresponding degree. Without reckoning interest on the first capital outlay, the establishment is really self-supporting. It is true that the canton makes an annual grant, which in 1902 amounted to about £1,200, but this was more than counterbalanced by the increased value of buildings (all erected by home labour) and stock in the course of the year. When the land was originally taken over, in 1896, the valuation amounted to £200; it has now risen to £17,385.

"In the course of five or six years more the work of reclamation, on which a large number of men are now employed, will be finished, and all the land at present covered by peat (about one-third of the whole) will have been brought under cultivation. The amount of labour then required will depend upon the crops grown, and if, as is proposed, vegetables are produced in considerable quantities on land now employed for stock-raising, the additional work involved will take the place of that which has been devoted to drainage. There is, therefore, no reason to anticipate that, even in the altered circumstances, the establishment will require any substantial contribution from public funds for its continued maintenance."

58. Since Mr. Preston Thomas made the above statement, I have reason to believe that his anticipations have been more than fulfilled. The colony, economically at least, is such a success as to lead me to hope that with better land, experiments of a similar kind would be attended with even more important results here.

59. On the question of cost, the late Sir Walter Besant, after a visit to our colony at Hadleigh, which was established rather for restoring "unemployables" than for finding work for the reputable unemployed, made some very appropriate remarks. "Every man," he wrote, "who does not work lives on the labours of other men. If a wastrel of London streets devours and consumes and uses up, one way and other, in a year, at least £40 worth of food, drink, clothes, light, fire, and shelter he ought to produce by his own work at least £60 worth of something or other; so that every such idle and worthless creature is a dead loss to the community of £100 a year."

Witzwyl Colony under control of Police Committee of Canton of Berne.

Inmates start on Farm.

Workshops.

Guiding principle of management.

Reclamation and improvement of the land.

Establishment self-supporting.

* See Bill No. 124 of 1904.

APPENDIX No. LVIII.—Continued.

"If 260 of these creatures are converted from ways of waste to ways of carefulness, there is a saving to the community of £26,000 a year in clear money.

"Most of my readers will agree with me, however, that this is not the best or the truest estimate of the gain to the community. By the gain or rescue of one hundred men—less the failures who were quite fallen, degraded, and apparently hopeless—the gain to the country of every single case can never be estimated, can never be measured by any standard; it is the gain of an example; it is the gain of children and grandchildren—one knows not how far and wide the gain may reach—brought up in honesty, with the example of honesty and temperance; it is the gain of one man more on the side of order; it is the gain of infinite possibilities in the direction of good rather than evil. These gains can never be set down in figures or estimated by dollars."

CLASS III.

What is meant by the unemployed.

60. *The unemployed*—meaning those who are able and willing to work but unable to procure it. They may generally speaking be described as working men and women of good repute out of work.

Causes of unemployment.

61. I need not occupy much time in enumerating what I consider are the principal causes which lead to periodical displacements of labour. The causes of unemployment are manifold. Some are totally beyond the foresight and control of any Government.

Financial crises.

62. For example, financial crises. That which originated on the other side of the Atlantic a few months ago brought about not only a serious shrinkage of money there, the suspension of banks and many bankruptcies, but it also disturbed the money market here and on the Continent of Europe, and no disturbance in the money market can occur without the labour market being also affected. The crisis in America caused a measure of unemployment in England and elsewhere.

War.

63. War is another cause of unemployment. It undoubtedly releases and sends in circulation a large amount of capital, and revives trade in certain directions, but the waste which invariably occurs produces an effect similar to that which happens when a man has been living for some time beyond his income. He has to reduce his expenditure and the people who depended on his disbursements become sufferers. Moreover it also leads to the actual destruction of capital in one form or other and so reduces the spending powers of the community.

Destruction of capital.

New laws.

64. At home the introduction of new laws intended ultimately to benefit the people and, it may be to raise the standard of existence and comfort, have the effect of throwing people out of employment for a time. Such is the penalty a progressive nation has to pay for reform, and I suppose it cannot be avoided.

Labour-saving machinery.

65. The invention of labour-saving machinery often acts in a similar way.

Other causes.

66. Then we have strikes, bankruptcies, the gradual absorption of many male occupations by women, bad harvests, the effect that the seasons have upon outdoor occupations, and the inscrutable tidal-like rise and fall in trade all operating against the regular continuity of employment.

Plans for alleviating the difficulty.

67. Now, I frankly confess to the complexity of the problem; but that very complexity affords, I submit, a ground for introducing the assistance of the State in dealing with it. I know, of course, that such assistance must be most carefully safeguarded, or it may do more harm than good. The difficulty is, no doubt, in many of its aspects an economic one, but having regard to some of the causes from which it springs it is not merely economic, and, in my judgment, it will never be satisfactorily solved without some degree of help from the law and some measure of co-operation from the State.

68. I believe the distress caused by want of employment could be considerably lessened by the adoption of the following plans:—

Compulsory registration of both employers and employes.

69. *Compulsory Registration* at Local Bureaux both by those who are in need of employment and by those who seek workers.

70. At present it is almost impossible to ascertain at any given time the number of skilled and unskilled persons out of work on the one hand, or to discover, on the other, where and to what extent labour is in demand.

71. There is no national Labour Exchange, while Defects of local and many voluntary Labour Bureaux have become a delusion and a snare. Registrations are duplicated, and exaggerated statements as to the number of the distressed follow with corresponding disturbing effects on the public mind.

72. Then, again, Municipal Labour Bureaux, for the lack of compulsory registration on both sides, are not in a position to bring the needs of capital and labour together. We simply muddle through both normal and abnormal periods of distress, the unemployed being driven to wander hither and thither in search of work, and the employers mainly, and often vainly, relying upon advertisements in the newspapers or voluntary applications at the gates to meet their needs.

73. Without elaborating the details I suggest the adaptation of the Continental system of labour registration for this country.

Roughly stated my plan is—

(a) To compel all able-bodied men generally who are out of work for more than a week to register personally on forms provided for the purpose, giving particulars of age, occupation, where last employed, and whether prepared, if the authorities will grant facilities to travel, to go to places at a distance where their particular class of labour is in demand.

(b) To compel all employers of labour to make a weekly return to the Local Bureau of the number to of their employees actually at work and how many new hands, if any, they are in immediate need of, and whether they desire the aid of the Bureau to fill these vacancies.

Such a return should also specify the divisions of labour.

(c) To affiliate the Local Bureaux with the National Labour Exchange, so that the entire facts relating to unemployment may be tabulated and the local authorities be kept regularly informed of the districts to be avoided, and those which they may recommend to applicants for work.

74. With such an instrument in the hands of the authority, it would be possible, as I have hinted, for that authority to bring the requirements of capital and labour together at least in a greater degree than is the case at present.

75. How far it would be possible for local authorities to assist the unemployed in finding work outside the area of their jurisdiction is a question which I need not here discuss, though I would point out that the principle for enabling authorities to do so to the extent of assisting unemployed persons to migrate and emigrate has already been accepted by the Legislature in the Unemployed Workmen Act of 1905.

76. But when you have registered the forces of capital and labour in the manner described, or, in fact, by any other scheme, there will remain, I fear, a serious amount of unemployment accompanied, of course, by a want of wages—and on the heels of that calamity follows want of bread—and then slowly, but surely, in too many instances come starvation or vice and crime.

77. There is no doubt that, here and there, some of the idle and loafing classes who prefer to live on the relief supplied by the Poor Law Authorities and the doles of the charitable rather than earn their bread by the sweat of their brow will always succeed in attaching themselves to the ranks of the bona-fide unemployed. If, however, my suggestion to establish Compulsory Labour Colonies were adopted, these would soon be reduced to a very small number, and the brand deserved by the few ought not to be indiscriminately stamped on the many who are unemployed owing to the lack of employment.

78. *Work.* The question now arises how we shall provide work for this unfortunate surplus and thereby prevent them from falling into the ranks of the unemployable.

79. The higher grade of skilled workmen might on the whole be safely left to a system of insurance against unemployment, which should be supplied by their respective trade combinations. Except in the case of prolonged strikes, which result in depleted funds and consequent misery, these protective associations might be expected to prevent their members becoming a charge on the State.

80. The unemployed problem, and especially that aspect of it with which the Poor Law is chiefly concerned, is mainly caused by unskilled labourers, and it

APPENDIX No. LVIII.—*Continued.*

is to this class that we must principally address ourselves. I think that extended powers with proper safeguards should be conferred on local authorities to enable them to make temporary provision in the shape of work for the unemployed when a state of general unemployment is found to exist in a community.

81. The responsibility for mitigating distress rests to some extent at present on the local authority, and if we are to grapple in dead earnest with the unemployed problem, it seems to me that ultimately we must look to a Statutory authority to set in motion the necessary machinery.

82. It is important that we should be clear as to the principles which should determine relief in the shape of work for the unemployed, and I venture to submit the following conclusions:—

(a) That every man who is able to work should be enabled to work, and that at some form of remunerative labour.

83. An opportunity to work for his maintenance should be afforded every man, and if he cannot find it by the exercise of his own powers and energy, and is thereby placed in a condition of want, the community should step in through its constituted authority and provide him with work.

(b) That the work so provided should be of a character likely to prove of value to the community.

(c) That the rate of remuneration to the worker should be fixed below that ordinarily paid for the kind of labour offered.

(d) That the responsibility for fixing this price should devolve on the local authority, which should take into account, of course, the economic conditions of the area within their jurisdiction.

84. The rate for one class of labour in Birmingham during a period of distress might be higher or lower, as local circumstances might determine, than that fixed under similar conditions at Newcastle.

(e) That payment at the rate thus fixed, should be made according to the amount of the work done, and that only.

85. Without such safeguards the unskilled in partial employment might be tempted to get out of the same by some means and throw themselves on relief works.

86. I am absolutely opposed, in the interests of all parties concerned, to the fixing of an attractive price for labour carried on under these abnormal conditions.

87. Where the value of the work done is inadequate to the needs of the worker, and it is thought expedient to pay more than is earned, such payment should be debited to the worker as a grant in aid or as a loan, the latter to be recoverable by the local authority, in the event of the worker being considered able to pay in the future, within a period to be fixed by the local authority.

(f) That the selection of work be left entirely in the hands of the local authority. In one place it may be deemed best to manufacture goods so as to fit the capacity and habits of the local unemployed. In another place the local authority may decide upon the repair of roads, making footpaths, planting trees, building sea walls, reclaiming land, the creation of parks, etc.

(g) That where articles are produced, however, either by machinery or hand labour, they shall not be put in the open market at prices lower than the prevailing trade figure—in other words, there must be no under-selling.

88. I believe the wider application of these measures will set in motion a vast body of unskilled labour, which really, after all, contributes two-thirds to the unemployed problem.

89. I need not dwell upon the obvious advantages that such an arrangement would bring to their dependents, as well as to the landlord, shopkeeper, artisan, and the rates.

90. I am compelled, however, by the logic of experience to admit that, even given the most vigorous action by local authorities in all the directions above indicated, there will still be a surplus of the people unprovided with work. I proceed then to make a suggestion for dealing with that surplus, by means of emigration.

91. *Emigration.*—By emigration I do not mean the imperfect and unsystematic effort which, in the past has so often led to disappointment and misery.

92. For instance, no one can condemn more than I do the indiscriminate transfer of men and women to another country where, on landing, they are left in their ignorance to shift for themselves, and as a consequence become only too often a prey to unprincipled people, and ultimately a source of perplexity and expense to the new community.

93. Neither do I mean the exportation of a class more or less composed of the refuse of the community, whether vicious and criminal, or shiftless and wastrel.

94. The recent experiences of some public authorities who have engaged in emigration work would show, I think, the unwisdom of sending abroad large parties of one class, and leaving them practically without after care in the way of advice or help.

95. As an illustration of what can be done our agencies in this country have during the last three or four years selected and transferred over 30,000 people from the British Isles, and successfully settled them, mostly in Canada. The number of "disappointments" does not amount to 1 per cent. of the total. The repayment of moneys advanced from our funds to assist the emigrants is being made in a measure which is gratifying and the authorities in Canada ask us to send more emigrants of the same character. The vast majority of those sent out were either out of employment here or in work which was so uncertain that we had little hesitation in advising them to emigrate.

96. The organisation of the Salvation Army has placed us in a position peculiarly favourable to regulating this work. Our agents are scattered all over the world, and it is their business to keep in close touch with the conditions which affect the supply and demand of labour. This has enabled us to guide the emigrant without delay to the district where there was the greatest need for his labour, and to afford him advice, assistance, and sympathy which have proved of real service. Our arrangements have included the provision of conductors to travel with the parties from the port of embarkation to the port of landing, where each emigrant is introduced to other officers, who have been previously advised of the needs and qualifications of the persons composing the party. It is the business of these reception officers to find work for the new arrivals.

97. By special arrangement we have also secured the entire accommodation on certain Atlantic steamers, and have thus been able to guard against intoxicating drinks and other evils common on ocean passages.

98. Advantage has been taken of the voyage in these cases to place before each emigrant various openings for settlement, with the result that each man and woman has left the ship fully instructed for his or her destination, and with the definite assurance of a particular situation, or employment, to some extent of his or her own selection.

99. Now I submit that the law should include in its system fuller provision for the emigration to other parts of the Empire of that surplus of respectable labour for which employment cannot be found at home.

100. The principle involved in such transfer has long been admitted, for since 1848 guardians have been empowered to expend a limited amount of money "in or about the emigration of poor persons." In this connection I would refer in addition to the Unemployed Workmen Act of 1905, to the Crofters Acts, and to the work which is being accomplished by the Congested Districts Board in Ireland. There cannot be, I suggest, any serious difference in principle between the transfer and settlement of men from one part of the country to another, and their transfer and settlement from one part of the Empire to another.

101. My view is that the authority responsible for the poor should itself be prepared, if necessary, to make provision for dealing with the particular class we are now considering. At any rate, the work should not be left to inexperienced persons, societies or bodies who with the very best intentions often fail in their efforts, because they have not the experience necessary for selecting the right kind of people for transference nor the machinery to provide adequate oversight during the journey, and, more important still, cannot give itself that after care in the early days of settlement which is so vital to success.

102. I suggest that such emigration could not but be beneficial from whatever point of view it may be considered.

(a) It must be beneficial for the Empire at large. No one in his senses would contend that it is in the interests of the British Empire that its most

Unwise methods of some public authorities.

Salvation Army emigration over 30,000 in 4 years.

Disappointments under 1 per cent.

Repayment of emigrants satisfactory.

Unique qualifications of Salvation Army for emigration work.

Conducted parties.

Employment provided.

Special temperance sailings.

Choice allowed as far as possible

The Law should make fuller provision for emigration of surplus population.

The principle already admitted Crofters Acts Irish Congested Districts.

No real difference between transfer from one part of kingdom to another, and from one part of the Empire to another.

Work to be skilfully done by the State itself if necessary.

Beneficial from all points of view. For the Empire at large.

APPENDIX No. LVIII.—*Continued.*

fertile possessions should be the home of every nationality but our own.

It has been, and is, no small matter of concern with many statesmen who have discussed the subject with me, in various parts of the world, that aliens in blood and sentiment may so easily outnumber the Anglo-Saxon communities.

Surely those who have any regard for the permanence of our race and the continued prosperity of this Empire must see the enormous advantages which accrue from a wise and careful emigration.

(b) The country would be benefited. It is obvious that the presence in any community of a class which produces nothing and the members of which are from time to time in one form or other a charge upon the producers is a serious evil.

The United Kingdom as a whole would benefit by their transfer, for not only would it be a direct advantage that they should become self-supporting elsewhere, but it should be remembered that their location in some other part of the Empire would create a market for the products of their fellow workers left in the home country.

(c) It must be in the interests of the Colonies to receive a working population. It is quite unnecessary to say anything in support of such a proposition. It is universally admitted that the Colonies are capable of assimilating practically unlimited numbers of the right class of immigrants, and every family adds to the strength and wealth of the whole.

(d) Such emigration must be beneficial to the emigrants themselves. Here they suffer from the uncertainty of casual employment, or from the misery and wretchedness of absolute want. Here, if they cannot obtain work, the community, in one form or other, must support them in idleness, to the ultimate loss of that self-reliance which is so important. Here they are not wanted, and presently they become the prey of discontent and often come under the influence of predatory doctrines, or are exposed to temptations which have a more lamentable effect upon them because of the conditions into which they have fallen. There they are welcome and find immediate employment, and are absorbed into the community in a healthy and natural way, to become citizens of repute.

103. I believe that, under suitable conditions, a large part, if not the whole, of the cost of such emigration as I here advise would be recovered from the emigrants after their settlement.

CLASS IV.

104. *The Children.*—It is now so generally accepted that the education and physical development of children, especially of the poor, degraded, vagrant, and criminal classes, constitutes one of the important duties of the State, that the suggestions I submit do not involve any serious departure from the principles upon which recent legislation on behalf of children has been founded.

105. Just as I believe that the compulsory registration of the unemployed, the granting of larger powers to the local authority for dealing with abnormal periods of distress, and the steady operation of a properly-organised system of emigration would prevent the manufacture of the pauper class, so I am equally persuaded that wider measures than those at present in force for the reclamation of the children of vagrants, confirmed drunkards, and criminals will be of the highest value to the State.

106. Looked at from any standpoint—whether economic or moral, from the individual point of view or from that of the community—the measures I have in mind would be a great gain. Money wisely spent on the child in the formation of a healthy body, brain, and character must prove in the long run a remunerative investment.

107. If, as has been recently stated on high authority, a child at birth is worth £5 to the State, and a skilled mechanic at 25 is worth £200, then it is obviously to the interest of the country that a child who is in danger of becoming a pauper, thief, hooligan or unemployable should be rescued.

108. Surely one of the saddest sights to be met with under our present civilisation is that of little children, dirty, verminous, thinly clad, poorly fed, weak and stunted in growth, being left to themselves or being dragged about the country in all weathers by parents who have practically lost all sense of decency and parental responsibility. It is inevitable that such children will join the ranks of the indolent, the vicious, and the criminal. I maintain that the State should come in with a stronger hand than it has yet exerted and say, "this shall not be allowed to continue."

109. I am encouraged by the attitude of the Government on the general question of children to believe that Bill. legislation calculated to reach this end may now be obtained. The Children's Bill at present before Parliament, with its provision for establishing Juvenile Courts and desirable improvements in existing laws, is a gratifying sign of the times.

110. The Salvation Army carries on a widely extended work among women who have been betrayed and ruined, and my officers engaged in that rescue work would advocate the following important amendments to the present Bastardy Acts:—

(a) A more humane treatment of the mother.

(b) The allowance to the mother for the support of her child to be fixed with some reference to the income and circumstances of the father of the child, and to be further secured on behalf of the child in the event of the death of the mother.

(c) Provide for drastic punishment where the father of a child, as is now so often the case, fails to meet a maintenance order.

111. Amendments framed on these general lines would, I think, prevent the destruction of many illegitimate children.

112. My experience leads me to suggest that the authority should have power to send to a well-regulated rescue home, at the public cost, any young woman seeking relief who in their opinion was a fit subject for such a home, and in the case of unmarried women who enter a State-maintained infirmary for a second confinement provision should be made for their being placed in a rescue home and being maintained there, with a view to reformation, for a period not exceeding two years.

113. I would strongly urge with reference to all children (the blind and imbecile as well as the able-bodied) coming under the control of the State that every reasonable effort should be made to instruct them in some useful handicraft or manual labour, even if they are not apprenticed to some trade. It appears to me to be both cruel and wasteful to compel the children of the poor to spend the most valuable years of life in acquiring book-knowledge to the neglect of that training which will best fit them to succeed in the form of labour upon which their very existence must depend in the future.

114. It is, I believe, a fact that 90 per cent. of the girls who have left Industrial schools during the last three years, and 86 per cent. of the boys, are now in permanent employment. It is submitted that the money spent on these children has been a good investment, for if it had not been spent, the majority of them would probably have cost infinitely more to maintain in workhouses and prisons.

115. While encouraging "boarding out" at farms and cottages here, I would suggest the granting of extended powers to the authorities to provide not merely the means for the emigration to British Colonies but also the maintenance and training there of suitable children.

116. I have recently been led to advocate an important change in the working of the Industrial Schools Act, and for that purpose to promote a Bill in Parliament (a copy is attached, see *Appendix No. LVIII. (A)*). The Acts are only a partial success, and in many parts of the kingdom an admitted failure, so much so, indeed, that (in the fiftieth report of the Inspector of Reformatory and Industrial Schools) it is stated that "as reforming institutions the industrial schools may claim to have been successful, but as preventive institutions in the fullest sense their good work has been neutralised by the lack of interest in them displayed by the local authorities as a whole."

For the
United
Kingdom.

For the
Colonies.

And for the
individuals.

Economic
gain.

The cost, in
part, would
be recovered.

Care of the
children a
principal
duty of the
State.

The central
idea, Preven-
tion.

A sound
investment.

Financial
value of good
citizens

Neglected
children to
rescue.

Children's
Bill.

Children
betrayed
and ruined.

Amend-
ments to
Bastardy
Acts.

Power to
send girls
and men
to rescue
homes.

Insti-
tution
of chri-
stian
indus-
trial
schools.

Mis-
taken
value
of
book
know-
ledge.

Success
of
Industrial
Schools.

"Board-
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appro-
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power
to main-
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children
in the
country
of the
Em-
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Indus-
trial
Schools
Amer-
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Bill in
Parlia-
ment.

APPENDIX No. LVIII.—*Continued.*

117. Mr. Bramwell Booth, in a pamphlet entitled "*The Abandoned Child*, a plea for the amendment of the Industrial Schools Acts 1866 and 1880," points out:—

Under the Act of 1866 "any person" may bring a child under 14 years found begging, wandering without home or proper guardianship, destitute, having parents in prison, who frequents the company of thieves, or who lives with or frequents the company of prostitutes, before a Justice of the Peace, who may commit such child to an Industrial School.

(a) Now, it is proposed (by the amending Bill) to make it a duty of education authorities, and also the duty of the police, to bring such child before the court. The court, if satisfied on inquiry that it is expedient to deal with such child under the proposed Act, *shall*, instead of *may*, as at present, order him to be sent to an Industrial School. The provision that "any person" may bring the child still remains.

(b) It is further proposed to empower magistrates to issue search warrants, so that a house of ill-fame may be entered, and a child searched for and removed in the same way as magistrates are now empowered to act under the Prevention of Cruelty to Children Act (4 Edw. 7, c. 15, s. 10). This provision would mainly affect brothels.

(c) At present education authorities are not obliged to provide school accommodation.

It is proposed by Section 3 of the Bill to make it as compulsory on the education authorities to provide Industrial School accommodation when required as to provide elementary schools.

The first Schedule to the Bill shows the offences for which children can be committed to Industrial Schools. The reasons are also given for the proposed amendments.

118. If this new power be granted by Parliament, which I hope may be the case, I believe that some 30,000 children belonging to the classes enumerated may be rescued from their appalling surroundings and placed where they can be educated and brought up in habits of purity and industry.

AUTHORITY AND COST.

119. I do not feel myself competent to offer any suggestion as to the best authority for carrying out such proposals as those I have outlined. I have no doubt that if they, or any important part of them, should be adopted, careful consideration would be given to that question by those better able than I am to decide the matter.

120. I think that the present system of administering the Poor Law is quite unsatisfactory. It is costly, and often absurdly slow and inadequate. The country has, I feel, outgrown it. No one can admire more than I do the immense amount of splendid work done by guardians of the poor, but I doubt very much if its serious, delicate, and costly character has been fully realised, and whether it has always been in the hands of the most capable class of citizens.

121. The multiplication of Acts of Parliament and of Local Government Board orders; the unequal system of valuation and rating; the complicated nature of the relationships and obligations of one union to another; and the tendency of the Poor Law system,

by its refusal to consider anything but destitution as a condition of relief, to foster hypocrisy and fraud; have all made the work of the guardians extremely and growingly difficult—far too difficult, in fact, for such a body to carry out effectively. It is unquestionably work which requires the highest technical skill, combined with the wisdom, patience, and sympathy which only enthusiasts in the cause of the poor can supply.

122. As to the cost of giving effect to the proposals I have formulated, I do not put them forward on the grounds of present economy. I do not, however, consider they would be more costly than the present system, even in the initial stages, and it is my belief that after a few years they would prove a great economy.

Proposal submitted would prove a real economy.

123. As to existing buildings, I believe that, with slight alteration, many could be utilised for one or other of the purposes to which I have made reference.

Use of existing buildings.

IN CONCLUSION.

124. I desire, in conclusion, to make one observation of a general character. The ethical principle which I believe to govern the views I have here somewhat hurriedly and crudely set out, is one which I am convinced cannot in our civil life, any more than in our family or our commercial or our national affairs, be ignored with impunity. It is best expressed in words which I quote with all reverence:—"Whatsoever ye would that men should do unto you, do ye even so to them."

125. I believe that the working out of that principle as between the community—representing the whole of the individuals composing it—and the poor, vicious, and less fortunate of its members, is most likely to be successful in safeguarding the true interests of the one, and in improving the condition of the other. What is bad for either must be bad for both. What is beneficial for either must be beneficial for both.

126. On the low ground of self-interest it is wise that the State should make every reasonable provision for the aged, the sick, the defenceless, and the workless, lest their neglect become a danger to its own security. It should give every possible opportunity alike by voluntary and by compulsory means, for the reform of the idle, the vicious, and the criminal, if only because their neglect must become a menace of moral disorder to the whole people.

127. And it is because I am convinced that the economic recovery of the classes which so largely occupy the attention of our Poor Law system can only be achieved by their moral recovery that I urge the employment of the means I have here indicated. The whole history of our Poor Laws stretching back for a thousand years or more testifies to the truth that mere economic changes can never effect the economic prosperity of the dependent poor. Only moral forces—the touch of human sympathy—the light of truth—the influences of divine grace—can effect that moral change which is the foundation of their economic recovery. While urging, therefore, the organisation by the State of the various agencies on behalf of the poor to which I have here alluded, I confess that I have little hope of their success in dealing effectively with many of the problems before us unless they be worked with true sympathy and with the full recognition that society has an intellectual, an ethical and a religious, as well as an economic work to do for all who seek its shelter or its aid.

APPENDIX No. LVIII. (A).

Handed in by General Booth.

INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS AMENDMENT BILL.

MEMORANDUM by Mr. BRAMWELL BOOTH with Reference to the Industrial Schools Acts, 1866 and 1880 and Proposing a Bill to compel Education Authorities to provide Industrial School Accommodation.

I.—MAIN FEATURES OF THE PROPOSED BILL.

1. Under the Act of 1866 "any person" may bring a child under 14 years coming within any of the descriptions set out in the repealed sections on page 4 of the draft Bill.

It is proposed to make it the duty of education authorities and also the duty of the police to bring such child before the court. The provision that "any person" may bring the child still remains. The court, if satisfied on inquiry that it is expedient to deal with such child under the proposed Act, shall, instead of may, as at present, order him to be sent to an industrial school. This makes it obligatory upon the court to exercise their discretion, but leaves them still discretion.

2. It is proposed to empower magistrates to issue search warrants, so that a house may be entered and a child searched for and removed in the same way as magistrates have power to do at the present time under the Prevention of Cruelty to Children Act (4 Edw. 7. c. 15. s. 10). This would mainly apply to brothels.

3. At present education authorities are not obliged to provide industrial school accommodation.

It is proposed by Section 3 of the Bill to make it as compulsory on the education authorities to provide industrial school accommodation as to provide elementary schools.

The first schedule to the Bill shows the offences for which children can be committed to industrial schools. The reasons are given in the margin of the Bill for the proposed amendments.

The sections under the present Acts, which it is proposed to repeal, will be found following the second schedule, on page 4 of the Bill.

II.—ARGUMENTS AND FACTS.

Among the really beneficent Acts which have been put on the Statute Book on behalf of children are the Industrial School Acts of 1866 and 1880. These Acts aimed at the rescue of children who were in danger of becoming vagrants or thieves, or having their morals corrupted.

The working of the Acts, however, leaves much to be desired. It is scarcely an exaggeration to say that in many parts of the country they are not put into operation at all, and in those parts where some industrial school work is done, that work does not, in our judgment, meet the requirements of the case.

The reason for the failure to put the Acts into operation is that there is no compulsion on the local authorities to provide industrial school accommodation. A magistrate may think it is in the interests of a child, and in the interests of the State that it should be saved from becoming a vagrant, pauper, thief, or prostitute, but the child cannot, of course, be placed in an industrial school unless the local authorities provide such a school. Free education (at great expense), free meals, free medical inspection, and (in many towns) free clothes, are worse than thrown away on thousands of children who, because of the apathy of the local authorities, grow up under the most harmful conditions.

If, as has been recently stated on good authority, a child at birth is worth £5 to the State, and a skilled mechanic at twenty-five is worth £200 to the State, then it is obviously to the interest of the country that a child who is in danger of becoming a pauper, thief, hooligan, or unemployable, should be rescued so as to make it an asset instead of a burden. In this connection it may be mentioned that 90 per cent. of the girls who have left industrial schools during the last three years, and 86 per cent. of the boys, are now in permanent employment. It is submitted that the money spent on these children has been a good investment, and if it had not been spent the majority of them would probably have cost infinitely more to keep in workhouses and prisons.

Investigations into the working of the Acts have been made in most of the large centres of population in Great Britain, and the figures of industrial school committals supplied by the cities and towns visited show clearly the need for a more efficient and systematic carrying out of the law.

London, although far from perfect, has always been to the front in this respect, and ever since the passing of the Act of 1856 has supported a staff of industrial school officers. According to last reports, London sent to industrial schools 752 children; Liverpool, with about one-seventh of the population of London, sent 616; while Manchester and Salford, with a combined population of nearly 80,000 more than Liverpool, sent about 100, or one-sixth the number of Liverpool; Birmingham sent 120, Glasgow 165, and Edinburgh only 21; while in many districts absolutely nothing was done.

The majority of education authorities in the country allege that their work begins and ends with seeing that children go to school. If they come to school clean and properly clothed, it is not the business of the school attendance officers to inquire into their habits or surroundings outside the school.

The police, on the other hand, say their work is to detect and punish crime, and to prevent it, and not to rescue children who have committed no crime. The consequence is that many thousands of children are allowed to become criminals, paupers, and prostitutes, because it is no one's business to rescue them. It is true the Act says: "Any person may bring," but it is very seldom that any private individual brings a child before the court. Few people, even among those interested in the question, know of their powers under the Acts.

It is submitted that it ought to be as much the duty of a policeman to arrest a child with a view to its rescue from certain conditions, as to arrest a drunken man with a view to his punishment; and it ought to be the duty of an attendance officer to bring before the court any child who comes under the descriptions mentioned in the Act.

Some education officials are zealous in the work of child rescue, others simply ignore what appears to be their duty.

There are two classes of children who are practically untouched by the present Acts:—

1. Children on tramp with their parents.
2. Children living in immoral surroundings.

APPENDIX No. LVIII. (A)—*Continued.*

III.—CHILDREN ON TRAMP WITH THEIR PARENTS.

As to the former, at a very low estimate there must be at least 5,000 who are wandering with their parents from town to town, receiving little or no education, and who will, in their turn, grow up to be vagrants, and possibly criminals, and produce another generation of their kind.

On the night of the 7th July, 1905, a census was taken, at the request of the Vagrants Committee, by the different police forces in England and Wales, of persons without a settled home, living in common lodging-houses and elsewhere, but not in casual wards. 62,212 persons were found in this condition, of whom 2,718 were children. And no fewer than 2,230 children were received in the casual wards of Berkshire in 1905 according to a return obtained by the chief constable of the county. It is true that some of these children might have been in all the twelve casual wards in Berkshire during the year, but when it is considered that the census was taken by the police in the middle of the summer, when many would probably be sleeping out, that the figures given by them do not include the children in casual wards, and that Scotland is not included, it will be admitted that 5,000 is a low estimate.

The argument usually urged by the local authorities against their rescuing these children is that they do not belong to their own districts. Why should they pay for their maintenance? They seem to forget that if they get tramps from other districts, such other districts get tramps from theirs. Some local authorities have suggested that such children ought to be paid for entirely by the Treasury and other authorities have suggested that the only way of doing industrial school work effectually is that all the expense of maintenance should be borne by the Treasury.

IV.—CHILDREN LIVING IN IMMORAL SURROUNDINGS.

With regard to children living in immoral surroundings, the question of girls need only be strongly emphasised here, because while it is bad enough for boys who are brought up amid such surroundings, it is much worse for girls, who in the nature of things may be expected to become prostitutes.

In 1906 only 995 girls were placed in industrial schools, committed for all the offences mentioned in the Act. The number for 1905 was 847. It is submitted that these figures do not represent probably a tenth of the number of girls living in immoral surroundings in Great Britain, who could and (in the interests of the community) ought to be rescued.

It has not been possible to obtain the exact figures of these cases from the education authorities in the places in which investigations have been made, but a fairly accurate estimate may perhaps be made. During the three months ending 31st December, 1906, eight girls

were committed at Liverpool—say, 32 for the year—and in London, during 1906, 31 were committed, making a total for the two cities of 63. London and Liverpool together actually send one-third of the total number of children sent to industrial schools in Great Britain. Basing an estimate on these figures, it would appear that not more than from 180 to 200 girls are rescued yearly from immoral surroundings. Investigations all over the country clearly show the awful surroundings of thousands of children, and the little that is being done for their rescue. It has been a common saying by people with a thorough knowledge of some districts, and working among children, that an industrial school could be filled with girls from immoral surroundings alone in some of them.

In these cases also the same arguments are used by the police, who say that if they have information about a brothel, and the evidence is sufficient, their business primarily is to raid the brothel and prosecute the keepers. That is what their warrant calls for; the rescue of children is a secondary consideration. They may be rescued if there is industrial school accommodation. Some instances have been mentioned of children going to the workhouse during the imprisonment of parents, and rejoining them when they come out of prison. The police, as a rule, do not seem to understand that the Act says nothing about a brothel, that it is not necessary to prove a child is living in a brothel before it can be rescued. They act merely because a crime has been committed, and ought to be punished.

The education authorities say, with respect to cases of immoral surroundings, that if children go to school regularly, they know nothing about their circumstances. It is only when they do not attend that inquiries are made, and it may be ascertained then that they are in an immoral environment. They also state that they have not the men or the time at their disposal to deal effectively with these cases, which necessarily require watching. They are, therefore, usually referred to the police or to some voluntary society.

Investigations clearly prove that the Industrial School Acts have very largely failed in their purpose for the reasons given above, and it is suggested that the only remedy for the present condition of things is that it should be made obligatory on the part of the local authorities to provide industrial school accommodation. The cost to the ratepayers, so far as can be ascertained, would not exceed 4s. per week per child, and the majority of authorities freely admit that it would be cheaper and more profitable for the State to spend money for the rescue of the children than to provide workhouses, prisons, reformatories, and similar institutions for those who are allowed to become failures in life.

APPENDIX No. LIX.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY THE CHELSEA COMMITTEE OF THE CHARITY ORGANISATION SOCIETY.

278, King's Road, Chelsea, S.W.
June 1st, 1908.

Dear Sir,

My Committee desire me to submit the enclosed tables for the consideration of the Commissioners. The scheme which it is desired to bring to their notice was instituted 3½ years ago with a view to the prevention of overlapping, and promotion of co-operation amongst the relief agencies in Chelsea and the procedure is as follows. The agencies forward monthly or weekly lists of their cases to this office, where they are compared, and if the same name is found on two or more lists, the fact is notified to those agencies upon whose lists the name appears.

The scheme receives increasing support, and we have lately commenced holding monthly conferences of the overlapping agencies for the purpose of considering the possibility of restoring the families to a state of independence and mutually agreeing upon future action in regard to them.

I am

Yours faithfully,

M. Z. HADWEN,
Hon. Sec.

R. G. DUFF, Esq.

APPENDIX No. LIX.—*Continued.*

CHELSEA MUTUAL REGISTRATION OF ASSISTANCE.

+Aged Pilgrims' Friend Society	- - - -	Mr. Hazelton, <i>Sec.</i>
+Belgrave Presbyterian Church	- - - -	Rev. J. Strachan.
+Blind, Association for the General Welfare of the	-	Colonel Selfe, <i>Sec.</i>
+Blind, Home Teaching Society for the	- -	Miss Jessie Winstone.
+Board of Guardians	- - - -	Mr. C. W. Shepherd, <i>Clerk.</i>
+Borough Council (Endowed Charities)	- - -	Mr. T. Holland, <i>Town Clerk.</i>
+Brompton Hospital	- - - -	Miss Maurice.
Catholic Apostolic Church, College Street	- - -	
+Catholic Prisoners' Aid Society	- - - -	Mr. H. Davison.
+Charity Organisation Society	- - - -	Mrs. Curteis, Miss Hadwen, <i>Hon. Secs.</i>
+Chelsea Apprenticeship Association	- - - -	Miss Carbutt.
Chelsea Baptist Chapel	- - - -	
+Chelsea Benevolent Society	- - - -	Mr. G. White, <i>Sec.</i>
+Chelsea Children's Mission	- - - -	Mr. Connor, <i>Supt.</i>
Chelsea Congregational Church	- - - -	Rev. T. Mardy Rees.
+Chelsea Old Church	- - - -	Rev. S. Prideaux.
+Chelsea Relief Society	- - - -	Mr. Wheeler, <i>Sec.</i>
Chelsea Wesleyan Methodist Church	- - - -	Rev. G. Armstrong Bennetts.
+Children's Care Committee (Group I.)	- - - -	Mr. C. R. Crookes, <i>Hon. Sec.</i>
+Children's Care Committee (Group II.)	- - - -	Miss Thompson, <i>Hon. Sec.</i>
+Children's Care Committee (Christ Church Schools)	- - - -	Miss Bower, <i>Hon. Sec.</i>
+Children's Care Committee (Servite Schools)	- - - -	
+Children's Protection League	- - - -	Miss Rose Harrison.
+Christ Church Relief Committee	- - - -	Rev. J. Pullein-Thompson.
+Church Army	- - - -	Rev. Prebendary Carlile.
+Church Army League of Friends of the Poor	- - - -	Miss Collin.
Church Sister's Home	- - - -	Miss Dumbrell, <i>Lady Supt.</i>
+Convalescent Dinners Society	- - - -	Miss Carbonell.
+Daily Dinners for Mothers	- - - -	Mrs. Gordon.
+Deaf and Dumb, Royal Association in aid of	- - - -	Rev. F. W. G. Gilby.
+Distress Committee	- - - -	Mr. Salmon, <i>Clerk.</i>
+Distressed Widows, Society for the Relief of	- - - -	Mr. S. Rayson, <i>Sec.</i>
+Emmanuel Church	- - - -	Rev. R. H. Keable.
+Friendly Aid Society, South Kensington and Chelsea	- - - -	Mr. E. Roe, <i>Sec.</i>
Gospel Hall, Manresa Road	- - - -	
+Holy Trinity	- - - -	Rev. H. R. Gamble.
+Invalid Children's Aid Association	- - - -	Mrs. Rathbone.
+Invalid Women and Girls, Fine Needlework Association for	- - - -	Miss Everett.
+Kensington and Chelsea Benevolent Society	- - - -	Mr. J. Kitchingman, <i>Sec.</i>
+Lloyd's Patriotic Fund	- - - -	Major Inglis, <i>Sec.</i>
+London City Mission	- - - -	Mr. H. Veitch, <i>Supt.</i>
+London Mendicity Society	- - - -	Mr. W. F. Arbuthnot.
+Mentally and Physically Deficient, Society for the Employment of	- - - -	Miss Arnould.
+Metropolitan Association for Befriending Young Servants	- - - -	Miss Curtis.
+Most Holy Redeemer Ladies' Visiting Society	- - - -	Rev. D. Skrimshire.
+National Blind Relief Society	- - - -	Rev. J. Pullein-Thompson.
+Nursing Association, Chelsea and Pimlico	- - - -	Miss Rose.
+Onslow Baptist Chapel	- - - -	Rev. G. D. Hooper.
+Our Lady of Seven Dolours	- - - -	Rev. A. M. Coventry.
+Pimlico Ladies' Association	- - - -	Miss A. E. Wilson.

Those agencies marked with a dagger have joined the scheme of Mutual Registration of Assistance for the prevention of overlapping and promotion of co-operation.

It is requested that the Hon. Sec., Charity Organisation Society, 273, King's Road, be informed of any relief agencies in Chelsea not upon this list, in order that their co-operation may be invited.

APPENDIX No. LIX.—*Continued.*

†Ragged School Union	-	-	-	-	-	-	Sir J. Kirk.
†Royal Hospital, Chelsea	-	-	-	-	-	-	The Chaplain.
†St. Columba's (Church of Scotland)	-	-	-	-	-	-	Rev. A. Fleming.
†St. Elisabeth Society	-	-	-	-	-	-	Miss Burman, <i>Hon. Sec.</i>
†St. George's Hospital Maternity Fund	-	-	-	-	-	-	Miss L. Ferard, <i>Hon. Sec.</i>
†St. George's Hospital Samaritan Fund	-	-	-	-	-	-	
†St. John's	-	-	-	-	-	-	Rev. F. W. A. Wilkinson.
†St. Luke's Maternity Society-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Mrs. Romer.
†St. Luke's Relief Committee	-	-	-	-	-	-	Miss Edith Lubbock, <i>Hon. Sec.</i>
†St. Mary's	-	-	-	-	-	-	Rev. M. A. Kelly.
†St. Paul's	-	-	-	-	-	-	Rev. Preb. H. W. Webb-Peploe.
†St. Peter's Relief Committee	-	-	-	-	-	-	Rev. S. Swayne.
†St. Saviour's Relief Committee	-	-	-	-	-	-	Rev. G. Edmundson.
†St. Simon's Relief Committee	-	-	-	-	-	-	Rev. W. M. Selwyn.
†St. Vincent de Paul, Chelsea Conference	-	-	-	-	-	-	Mr. F. St. Aubyn, <i>Hon. Sec.</i>
†St. Vincent de Paul, South Kensington Conference	-	-	-	-	-	-	Mr. W. R. Andrew.
Salvation Army	-	-	-	-	-	-	
†Soldiers' and Sailors' Families Association	-	-	-	-	-	-	Miss Banbury, <i>Hon. Sec.</i>
†Soldiers' and Sailors' Help Society	-	-	-	-	-	-	Captain Laprimaudaye.
Strangers' Friend Society	-	-	-	-	-	-	Mr. Gerrans.
†The Oratory	-	-	-	-	-	-	Rev. S. Bowden.
United Methodist Free Church, Marlborough Square	-	-	-	-	-	-	
†Victoria Hospital for Children	-	-	-	-	-	-	Mr. H. Everard, <i>Sec.</i>
Wesley Chapel	-	-	-	-	-	-	Mr. W. J. Hopwood, <i>Sec.</i>
Welsh Congregational Chapel	-	-	-	-	-	-	Rev. J. M. Rees.
†West Brompton Congregational Church	-	-	-	-	-	-	Rev. G. Sadler.
†Women's Holiday Fund	-	-	-	-	-	-	Miss L. Antrobus.

Those agencies marked with a dagger have joined the scheme of Mutual Registration of Assistance for the prevention of overlapping and promotion of co-operation.

APPENDIX No. LIX.—Continued.

CHELSEA MUTUAL REGISTRATION OF ASSISTANCE.

NUMBER OF CASES ON LISTS EXCLUSIVE OF POOR LAW, DISTRESS COMMITTEE, AND CERTAIN OTHER LISTS.

AGENCY.	1905.	1906.					1907.												1908.			
	December.	January.	February.	March.	October.	December.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	January.	February.	March.	April.
ID.	44	42	45	49	29	31	24	29	34	40	37	38	31	32	26	26	28	29	34	36	47	44
II.	16	25	30	19	16	24	33	43	45	7	5	5	-	-	-	11	21	44	53	24	11	7
V.	4	6	5	6	6	5	7	6	6	3	7	7	5	-	-	5	8	4	-	8	3	5
V.	5	5	-	-	-	-	5	5	5	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	6	-	-	-	-
V.	9	9	22	35	-	-	-	-	-	-	9	9	9	-	-	9	6	15	21	16	16	5
VI.	45	38	17	26	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	23	9	20	8	18	15	16	27	27	18
VII.	30	2	1	4	-	18	7	6	2	1	-	-	9	-	-	1	-	16	-	-	7	-
VIII.	3	2	1	-	1	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	2	-	-	-	1	5	-	2
X.	5	9	8	4	14	12	2	3	2	6	1	2	4	-	2	1	5	7	3	2	2	3
X.	49	49	49	49	6	46	53	53	53	32	9	22	11	9	-	9	48	48	-	-	-	-
XII.	14	5	9	6	10	9	15	7	15	5	6	1	4	5	8	17	8	16	20	11	12	11
XIII.	-	19	20	17	-	19	-	21	20	20	21	21	18	19	19	14	12	9	8	10	11	10
XIV.	15	13	11	8	14	12	12	12	16	16	10	8	-	-	8	10	20	13	19	5	28	23
XVII.	29	17	23	25	21	30	22	20	25	21	18	16	15	-	-	32	26	-	28	23	19	15
XVIII.	144	143	135	128	130	132	125	130	120	not counted						125	128	78	5	9	16	5
XIXB.	10	17	20	21	7	10	18	22	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	9	7	39	57	37	22
XX.	20	19	-	-	6	36	-	-	-	6	-	16	-	-	-	6	24	-	-	-	17	-
XXIII.	4	3	2	-	2	3	-	3	1	-	-	2	-	-	-	3	5	-	-	5	5	5
XXIV.	33	6	12	11	5	28	8	12	5	5	6	10	-	-	1	10	14	11	5	3	12	3
XXVI.	20	24	22	22	12	19	9	17	-	17	-	-	-	-	-	-	17	15	19	30	32	22
XXVII.	-	17	17	17	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
XXVIII.	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	-	7	4	4	4	-	-	7	3	-	-	13	5	10	-
XXIX.	8	11	8	9	6	-	9	3	9	5	3	3	4	4	3	7	8	5	30	20	15	22
XXK.	64	67	63	{ 32 30 } { incomplete }	-	-	-	{ 21 13 } { incomplete }	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	45	17	-
L.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	7	8	11	4	17	21	6	2
M.	4	-	4	-	-	-	1	-	4	1	3	-	4	-	2	1	-	-	1	1	-	-
O.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	6	6	14	8	6	12	12	7	4
P.	-	-	-	-	9	-	-	6	-	-	7	8	-	3	3	3	11	-	-	-	-	-
R.	-	-	-	-	13	17	27	13	21	19	35	45	-	-	35	70	66	-	22	22	55	31
S.	-	-	-	-	-	26	18	10	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	-	14	35	-
W.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	15	4	-	-	-	-	3	6	6	8	8	6	5	11

Where figures are omitted the omission is due to one of the following causes:—

(1) No cases were dealt with.

(2) Co-operation was temporarily discontinued owing to changes in the parish or for other reasons.

APPENDIX No. LIX.—*Continued.*
CHELSEA MUTUAL REGISTRATION OF ASSISTANCE.

Number of Communications made to some of the Co-operating Agencies relating to relief given during the last 3 years which it was thought desirable to send.

Agency.	1904.			1905.												1906.												1907.												1908.								
	November.	December.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	January.	February.	March.	April.																		
I.	7	10	4	15	11	16	12	6	7	4	3	7	14	14	15	2	23	23	13	11	8	13	5	8	10	15	18	20	22	12	8	11	17	26	5	6	16	30	19	15	22	27	23					
II. D	4	8	6	7	10	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	12	5	3	2	9	9	-	-	-	-	1	1	13	11	13	6	1	-	-	-	9	18	27	6	8	2							
III.	11	10	1	2	5	-	1	2	1	2	-	17	1	-	2	1	1	1	6	1	2	1	3	3	-	-	2	5	5	2	-	-	-	2	-	4	9	1	-	-	1	-						
IV.	3	-	1	1	-	-	2	-	-	-	1	4	6	1	1	1	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	4	1	3	2	-						
V.	-	2	1	7	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	3	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	2	2	1	-					
VI.	13	15	15	36	22	15	10	-	5	6	7	14	12	6	23	2	28	20	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	7	18	23	38	25	18	20	16					
IX.	-	6	7	7	7	6	4	2	-	-	2	2	2	8	3	8	2	3	3	2	2	1	-	1	1	6	4	3	3	3	5	5	7	3	4	-	2	1	10	5	4	2	4	3				
X.	-	9	10	11	9	2	1	1	-	-	-	2	2	20	2	-	9	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	6	-	1	3	2	16	8	-	-	-	-					
XL, XXI., XXV.	-	86	51	49	81	44	41	23	5	25	10	45	42	68	45	31	42	15	37	28	13	9	8	15	11	11	22	51	58	28	20	24	19	40	4	8	37	46	57	25	25	33	30					
XII.	11	20	6	7	10	7	2	1	-	5	-	3	4	19	6	7	6	3	4	6	5	1	-	8	11	11	8	10	16	11	8	6	1	7	2	3	12	22	16	17	18	21	13					
XIII.	3	4	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	4	-	1	1	1	1	-	-	-	4	3	3	1	3	2	6	-	-	-	2	4	16	7	9	3	-	-	1	-					
XIV.	3	7	2	8	3	1	9	-	2	1	3	6	3	5	7	2	2	1	2	9	-	1	-	4	1	3	4	3	4	3	6	2	4	-	-	2	4	16	7	9	3	-	-	1	-			
XVII.	-	-	8	13	3	4	5	2	3	2	-	-	5	12	9	5	7	8	3	-	-	1	-	-	-	11	3	11	8	4	3	1	7	5	2	1	-	32	25	36	7	9	16	6				
XVIII.	-	21	35	21	35	25	16	9	-	15	-	18	16	28	40	16	20	-	22	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	28	14	15	24	9	34	-	-	4	4	11	24	16	14						
XIX. B	3	8	1	7	3	5	-	-	-	-	-	5	13	-	-	3	8	4	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	2	4	-	6	17	-	-	-	-	-	4	4	4	4	11	24	16	14					
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XXIV.	-	-	13	6	4	3	2	-	-	-	-	5	7	19	6	5	7	4	5	7	-	-	-	4	9	-	5	14	8	3	2	1	4	1	-	6	1	7	16	8	13	8	3	3				
XXVI.	-	-	5	4	1	11	-	-	-	-	-	-	11	7	9	7	6	2	-	-	-	-	-	4	2	-	6	3	2	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	16	6	-	6	-	5	12	4			
XXIX.	-	-	-	-	-	6	8	4	-	-	-	2	1	3	3	4	4	1	2	-	1	1	2	2	-	-	2	1	11	7	1	5	5	2	1	2	4	28	19	18	16	19	15					
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APPENDIX No. LIX.—*Continued.*

CHELSEA MUTUAL REGISTRATION OF ASSISTANCE.

OPINIONS ON THE SCHEME.

Agency XXIX. writes: "May I take this opportunity of saying that the Registration is absolutely invaluable . . . without its aid half the good of our work would be neutralized."—December, 1907.

Agency XXIV.: "I am requested by the Committee to express their appreciation of the valuable assistance rendered."—November, 1907.

Agency P.: "I found the Registration the greatest help while I worked in the District."—January, 1908.

Agency XVII.: "The information received has been invaluable."—November 9, 1907.

Agency XXIV.: "We have been greatly assisted in obtaining information concerning the cases in our hands by the Hon. Secretary of the Registration Bureau established at the office of the Charity Organization Society in Chelsea."—*Annual Report*, 1905.

"We have again to acknowledge the valuable assistance rendered."—*Annual Report*, 1907.

Agency IX.: "Throughout the year we have continued to exchange with the Chelsea Committee of the Charity Organization Society lists of cases before us, and thus have been enabled to gain most useful information, and also to prevent overlapping."—*Annual Report*, 1906.

London Unemployed Fund, 1904-5. Report of the Central Executive Committee.—"Overlapping" is one of the curses of disorganised administration, providing, as it does, the opportunity for the unscrupulous and penalizing the honest man. As one step towards

its prevention, the list of the Relieving Officer should be consulted, and if possible the list of the organised charities of the district. In at least two Boroughs last winter a general register was accessible at a single centre, and it was an instruction that the "Relieving Officer's and Charities Register (now kept at ———) must be consulted."

"It would be desirable that in every district such a 'clearing' list should be formed and used. It is to be noted, however, that unity of action has a far greater value than that of checking abuses such as overlapping. Unity and co-ordination are also first steps towards efficiency and the greatest outcome of efficiency is not the merely negative advantage of detecting abuses, but the positive one of more assured remedial and preventive action. To this point we return in the section dealing with Decisions."

"It should be the duty of the Committee to report to the Guardians, as has already been done in at least two districts, the names of those by whom employment has been refused, and where registration of assistance is in operation, lists of all to whom assistance is offered should be contributed."

Agency IX.: "We have to thank the Hon. Secretary for the invaluable assistance rendered in preventing overlapping."—*Annual Report*, 1907.

Agency VI.: "The Committee thank the Charity Organization Society for the information furnished by the Mutual Charities Register and for the attendance of their delegate at the Society's weekly meetings."

APPENDIX No. LX.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY MISS MARY CLIFFORD.

1. That (in my estimation) the main causes of the present defective condition of Poor Law administration are of two kinds.

2. The lack of public intelligent interest.

(a) Guardians are not as a rule acquainted with Poor Law.

(b) There is practically no public opinion and little interest. In this city (Bristol) scarcely one-third of the voters record their votes at an election.

(c) There are at present few, if any, generally accepted principles of administration, the result of this being that there is no uniformity of practice and no knowledge on the part of applicants of how they will be treated. Therefore, little sense of justice and little moral stimulus.

(d) Even in the case of relieving officers, no certificate or test of acquaintance with Poor Law is required.

3. As practical suggestions, may I mention :—

(a) The nomination of persons to serve as guardians by some independent authority, such as the Local Government Board (as has been done in some London Boards).

(b) The requirement of a certificate of Poor Law knowledge in the case of all relieving officers prior to their appointment.

(c) Clear definite bye-laws as to relief and a guarantee that they are attended to.

4. The absence of directing power in the Local Government Board. The practice of the Local Government Board is to abstain from initiating any scheme but to express approval or disapproval of what is submitted to it. Considering the circumstances alluded to in Paragraph 2, a more constructive policy might be expected to answer better. This may be illustrated by the account of the recent scheme for a new infirmary in Bristol (not

to be taken as advocating the infirmary, but as an example of the entire absence of initiative or directing power on the part of the Local Government Board).

TREATMENT OF DEFAULTING PARENTS.

5. The Bristol Union has adopted a large number of children under the 1899 Act. (I hope to supply details as to number, etc.)

6. The plan has been to adopt children deserted by both parents, orphans, and cases of aggravated cruelty and neglect, and as to the latter to allow no visiting from relatives. The parents are of course ordered to contribute, and as payment is diligently demanded, it is found that with this description of parent adoption is very unpopular, and there have been frequent requests for the return of the children.

7. When, on inquiry, there is improvement in the home, the children are allowed to return on trial (without rescission of the adoption) and the official visitors (ladies employed by the Bristol Board under the Infant Life Protection Act,) visit and report.

8. There are, however, three legislative alterations required :—

(a) The process of recovery of sums due for maintenance of children by guardians is cumbrous and tedious and not effectual. It should be the same as that in use under the Industrial Schools Act.

(b) In many cases no payment will ever be recovered owing to the socially hopeless character of the parents. Is not this a strong instance of the need of a penal industrial "colony" or institution? Such people ought not to escape their responsibilities and their detention would act as a real deterrent.

9. May I add that the real reclamation of the children is in numbers of cases very striking and a great testimony to the national importance of the Act. Only it cannot be denied that more power is necessary to punish and if possible reform the parents.

APPENDIX No. LX.—*Continued.*

(c) There is an ambiguity in the 1899 Act which should be cleared up. It is left uncertain whether a child may be adopted under the Act if deserted by one parent only or whether desertion by both parents is required. The Local Government Board seems to hold that one parent only is indicated. The Act may, therefore, be used to deprive a good parent of his or her family which would be contrary to the intention of the Act and a manifest injustice.

10. As in occasional instances it has been desirable to adopt the children of a respectable mother in order to protect them from a bad father who has deserted them, I would suggest a clause to the effect that under such circumstances the adoption to be valid must have the consent of the parent who is not in fault.

YOUNG UNMARRIED MOTHERS IN WORKHOUSES.

11. It seems very desirable that cost of maintenance for these should be recoverable from the date of chargeability. This would make the obtaining of orders of maintenance far more general. In the interests of morality this is of importance. The Bristol Union has a carefully organised plan and has succeeded in a good proportion of cases. Out of 417 cases only 156 have failed through absolute want of proper evidence.

12. It is also very desirable that women of the above class should, if of feeble intellect, be detained under care for their protection.

13. This, of course, does not imply that the detention of women who are mentally responsible would be wise or right. A large number of those who come repeatedly to the workhouse and who have or have had several illegitimate children are no doubt of weak mind, but some are responsible.

14. These latter may very likely in the future come under some general legislative arrangement dealing with able-bodied persons who make themselves continuously chargeable to the rates.

15. I would earnestly deprecate any special legislation for the special class of unmarried women with children.

16. It would be necessarily one-sided, would deal with an effect of wrong-doing and not its cause and would inevitably produce more serious evils than it could prevent.

17. There are several alterations in the law relating to the subject of unmarried mothers required.

18. Detention for their protection under humane conditions should be applied to both men and women of feeble mind if they are without natural protectors.

APPENDIX No. LX. (A)

ADDENDUM TO STATEMENT BY MISS MARY CLIFFORD.

COPY OF OPINIONS EXPRESSED AT A MEETING OF WOMEN GUARDIANS.

AMENDMENTS.

1. Steps should be taken to obtain affiliation orders and to recover costs of the mother's maintenance as soon as she becomes chargeable.

2. The putative father should be called upon to find security for the payments he is ordered by the magistrate to make.

3. The death of the mother should not prevent a maintenance order being made if the evidence of paternity is sufficient.

4. Five shillings should not be the maximum payment that can be ordered in court.

5. If a child of sixteen is unfit, from its bodily or mental condition, to maintain itself, the father should continue to contribute to its maintenance.

6. The child should be legally liable to maintain the mother in her old age.

7. The mother should be legally able to appoint a guardian to the child.

We would suggest that the employment of qualified women in the investigation and treatment of these cases should be encouraged.

APPENDIX No. LXI.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY MRS. ELLINOR C. L. CLOSE.

1. I am the founder and president of the Children's Farm Home Association, the object of which is to receive certain of the pauper and other children of our workhouses and public institutions in England for upbringing in such parts of our Colonies, and Canada in particular, as provide the conditions of a free open-air life, wholesome surroundings, good educational advantages, and an invigorating climate, calculated to make them self-reliant, self-respecting, and healthy citizens.

2. I am about to hand over to this Association a farm fifteen miles from St. John, New Brunswick, which I bought in 1906.

It is known as the Ellinor Farm Home, and consists of a good house, with outbuildings and land—185 acres in extent, of which 90 acres are highly cultivated, and situate on a main road a quarter of a mile from a station on the main line of railway.

In addition, there is a house which I have built for the farmer and his wife—Canadians—whom I employ to work the farm and instruct the children. Since April, 1906, I have maintained in the farm an average of 13 boys and girls from 6-13 years of age.

3. The capital cost involved in this farm, including land, two houses, all farm stock and furniture, is about £80 per child, against £280 to £320 here, without land or stock.

The maintenance of the children works out at £22 per head per annum, against an average cost of £33 9s. prevailing in some of the institutions in England.

The journey of a child under 12 from London to the door of the farm costs £2 12s. 6d.

4. Under my scheme we include delicate children (free, however, from actual disease), who would be difficult to board out and impossible to adopt.

5. The children of the farm go to the local school, and work and play with the rest of the school children of the place. They take the keenest pride and pleasure in the farm and the horses, cows, poultry, gardens, and orchards upon it. The change that takes place in their physique and appearance is remarkable.

Two English ladies, one of whom is a trained nurse, are in charge of the children.

APPENDIX No. LXI.—Continued.

The doctors' visits have been merely formal visits of inspection.

6. Among those who have been interested in my experiment I may particularly refer to the testimony of (a) Earl Grey, the Governor-General, who visited the farm last year, and stated it to be an ideal place to rear a healthy, God-fearing race; (b) the Bishop of St. Albans, who inspected it last October, and who considers the experiment wise from every point of view; (c) the Duke of Argyll, who, in presiding at a Mansion House meeting held last year in support of the Association, said: "If adopted on a large scale the scheme would not only benefit both the children and the Colonies, but would tend to relieve the rates in England very considerably. It was like sending the children from one side of the Thames to the other."

7. A committee of local Canadian ladies and gentlemen superintend the farm and the children.

The liveliest interest is taken in the venture by the people of the locality, and by many others throughout the entire province of New Brunswick.

The Agent-General for New Brunswick remarks: "New Brunswick will certainly do everything possible to encourage this scheme, which we heartily approve of. It is an object good for the Old Country and the new. Yours is a home in the true sense."

8. We have recently been offered another farm as a gift, with house complete, and stocked with cattle, sheep, etc., in one of the most beautiful parts of New Brunswick.

It will prove an ideal home for a further number of poor children on funds being provided for working it.

At present the best plan is to take up improved farms, which are to be found in plenty in New Brunswick at most remarkable prices, and will always be worth the money expended on them.

It may be said of the eastern provinces of Canada that they are:—

- (a) The nearest part of the empire to England;
- (b) considerably warmer than North-West Canada;
- (c) specially suitable for fruit growing; (d) most like the Old Country.

9. My submission to the Commission is that this scheme is well calculated to meet the difficulty now existing with regard to the boarding out of poor children who have to be brought up at the public expense, and, in particular,

(a) *The children of our workhouses* under the Local Government Board and the Guardians of the Poor, especially the *orphans* and *deserted* children.

(b) *The children of our Industrial Schools* under the London County Council. There is practically no difference in the classes (a) and (b); all are of the poorest, and all are, under existing conditions, beginning life under the most serious disadvantages.

We do not, of course, propose to apply the scheme to children afflicted with bodily or mental diseases, or to Reformatory children.

10. All experts agree that country-bred men and women are superior to town-bred. (See Departmental Committee's Report on Rider Haggard's Report and Wilson Fox's Notes, etc.)

11. Notwithstanding this consensus of opinion, we bring up some 50,000 children under the Local Government Board, and several thousands more under the London County Council and other public bodies, in towns, in wholly unsuitable places, such as Mile End, Brixton, etc. (See Local Government Board's Reports.)

We consider that the dull routine, the cramped outlook in life, the impossibility of giving individual attention to large numbers of children herded together are the reasons why so many pauper children become listless, indifferent, and lacking in initiative.

12. Six hundred to 700 girls are annually discharged from Metropolitan Unions alone, wholly ignorant, and necessarily ignorant, of real home life, duties, etc. (See Local Government Board's Reports.)

13. Training schools would appear to be very costly and bad substitutes for what is really required. The expert opinion is that the system of boarding out is excellent, but that it is not capable of wide extension in the rural districts of England, each rural district appearing to have quite enough to do to provide for the boarding out of the children of its own locality without being able to receive children from such a quarter as the Metropolis. (See Local Government Board Report, Miss Mason, Miss Pell, etc.) Some 8,000 children only can at present be dealt with under the boarding out system; some 80,000 require to be thus dealt with.

14. Simple country life, healthy environment, and an agricultural experience in youth, are no hindrance to boy or girl in after life.

These advantages can be afforded to many of our State children by availing ourselves of the cordial co-operation of our colonies, and purchasing small, old-established, comfortable farm houses, with from 100 to 200 acres of land or thereabouts.

For physical reasons it appears to us best that this out-door treatment should be commenced at as early an age as possible. Say from six years onwards.

The ultimate destination of each child must of course rest with its legal guardians. They can either return to England as capable of taking up good situations here, or they can remain in the Colony, and become capable citizens there, as may be decided by those in authority in this country.

Children returning to England will have benefited by the exhilarating air, the wholesome food, and excellent environment.

For those who wish to remain in Canada the benefits are inestimable. Brought up in the country where they will later settle, surrounded by friendly neighbours, with whom they will eventually work, fully acquainted with local conditions and requirements, they will naturally secure the best situations and openings in life.

The number of children on each farm being limited to twenty, our ladies in charge are enabled to give each child personal attention to develop their characters and powers, and train them to be self-reliant and self-respecting.

15. The opinion of competent counsel (Mr. Hartley B. Mothersole), has been taken as to the powers of the different public authorities to provide for the upbringing of children under their charge in the ways above directed.

The opinion, which is herewith enclosed (*See App. No. LXI. (4)*) is to the following effect:—

A. AS TO POOR LAW CHILDREN.

(1.) *Orphan and Deserted Children* under 16 who are chargeable may be sent out by Guardians with the consent of the Local Government Board and of the children themselves under Section 4 of the Poor Law Amendment Act, 1850. (See also Local Government Board Memorandum April 10th, 1888, and circular letters Jan. 22nd, 1898, and April 20th, 1898, which enable public money to be expended for outfit, journey, and inspection, but not apparently for maintenance.)

Maintenance, however, is probably authorised by Section 4 of the Act of 1850.

Statistics supplied by one of the poorest districts in East London show that in one night there were seventy orphan or deserted children sleeping in the workhouse school building.

(2.) *Children maintained* by the guardians to whom they have resolved to stand in *loco parentis* up to the age of eighteen, may be sent out to be placed under the permanent or temporary control of any society or institution for the care of children under Section 1 of the Poor Law Act, 1899.

(3.) *Boards of Guardians* may also with the consent of the Local Government Board expend sums for the maintenance of *emigrated children* under Section 6 of the Poor Relief Act, 1849, or in default under the Poor Law (Certified Schools) Act, 1862, which is extended to illegitimate children by the Poor Law

APPENDIX No. LXI.—*Continued.*

Amendment Act, 1868, Guardians may also under the first named Act (same section) provide for the maintenance of paupers in houses not being workhouses, under contracts for payment, regulated by the Local Government Board.

Canadian schools for the children sent out may be certified under Section 2 of the Poor Law (Certified Schools) Act, 1862. Local inspection is provided for by the order of 20th April, 1898.

(4.) *Guardians* may with the consent of the Local Government Board *subscribe* to any institution (without apparently being restricted as to locality) which appears to both bodies to be calculated to render useful aid to the administration of the relief of the poor.

(Poor Law Act, 1879, Section 10.)

B. AS TO INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL CHILDREN.

(1.) A child may with its own consent and that of the Secretary of State be placed out on *license* from an *Industrial School* (Industrial Schools Act, 1891, Section 1).

(2.) A child may be *discharged* from any *Industrial School* either absolutely or conditionally for purposes of emigration or otherwise under the Industrial Schools Act, 1866, Section 43.

(3.) Children may be *licensed* to live (without restriction as to locality) with any trustworthy and respectable person, named in the license and willing to receive and take charge of them.

Such license, limited to a period of three months, is renewable (Industrial Schools Act, 1866, Section 27); and if children may under this section be licensed to reside outside the United Kingdom, the Treasury can contribute to their custody and maintenance because such residence may be regarded as part of the period of detention in the school. (See same Act and Section.)

It is a question whether the Treasury can contribute to the custody of children discharged from a certified Industrial School. If it can contribute in the case of *licensed* children, surely it should be able to contribute in the case of *discharged* children.

16. The law on this subject would appear to be somewhat of a puzzle, and to require simplification, and codification and some expansion.

17. It appears to me quite feasible for such a body as the London County Council to save a great portion of the capital outlay of £70,000 involved in the building of an institution here for the accommodation of three hundred children by availing themselves of the emigration scheme which I have described.

Such a scheme is much more economical than either of the schemes outlined in the Report of the Special Schools Sub-Committee, and yet it is in accordance with the principles set forth in one of such schemes.

The present cost in an Industrial School is apparently about £25 per annum for maintenance, exclusive of capital charges. Our charges vary from £16 to £25, inclusive of capital charges.

18. The Government of New Brunswick has agreed to set aside 200 acres of land for every home of twenty children established in the province, and to help in other ways, notably in free education for the children, in the provincial schools, and freedom from taxation for 20 years.

It is, I submit, for our public bodies, who can borrow money if need be at a lower rate of interest than provincial bodies or private individuals, to come to the front when such an offer as this is made, and at least to avail itself of voluntary enterprise.

19. The objects of my Association satisfy entirely, as I submit the double test of supplying what is best for the children and of affording material relief to the taxpayer and the ratepayer.

APPENDIX No. LXI. (A.)

Handed in by Mrs. Close.

Re MRS. CLOSE'S SCHEME.

CASE FOR OPINION.

What powers have the different central and local authorities and managers of reformatory and industrial schools in respect of Poor Law children and reformatory and industrial school children:—

(a) To license or discharge children for purposes of emigration, and

(b) To make payments, whether periodically or in a lump sum, in respect of outfit, journey and subsequent maintenance of children so emigrated.

(c) Where a single body, such as the managers of a reformatory or industrial school, draws its funds from different sources, out of *which*, if any, can they pay?

(d) What amendments in the existing law would be required to give powers for the above purposes where they do not now exist?

(e) If there was constituted, to the satisfaction of the Local Government Board as regards the guardians and the Home Office as regards reformatory and industrial schools, a committee of trustees of Mrs. Close's Scheme, would it be possible, *under the existing law*, for children to be handed over to this committee by the authorities concerned and payments to be made by them in respect of such children

without any special stipulation as to where those children are to be brought up, *i.e.*, whether in England or Canada.

OPINION.

I propose to consider these points under the heads:—

A.—Poor Law Children.

B.—Reformatory and Industrial School Children.

A.—*Poor Law Children.*

(a) Orphan or deserted children under sixteen years of age who are "chargeable" may be emigrated by the guardians, with the consent of the Local Government Board, provided that the consent of such orphan or deserted child shall have been given before the Justices in Petty Sessions and that a certificate of such consent signed by the Justices shall have been transmitted to the Local Government Board (Poor Law Amendment Act, 1850, 13 & 14 Vict., c. 101, Sec. 4). Guardians desiring to emigrate such children must pass a resolution to expend a sum not exceeding £ on the emigration of each of the children named therein.

The Local Government Board require a copy of the resolution to be sent to them, and to be satisfied that the conditions in their Memorandum of April, 1888,

APPENDIX No. LXI. (A)—Continued.

their Circular Letter January 20th, 1898, and their Circular Letter of April 20th, 1898 (copies annexed hereto) have been or will be complied with. I am of opinion that the guardians may exercise these powers not only in the case of orphan and deserted children referred to above but also in the case of children maintained by them to whom they have resolved to stand *in loco parentis* up to the age of eighteen years, under Sec. 1 of the Poor Law Act, 1899, 62 & 63 Vict., c. 37.

The children referred to in Sec. 1 of the Poor Law Act, 1899 are:—

- (1) A child deserted by its parent.
- (2) A child whose parent is in the opinion of the guardians by reason of mental deficiency or vicious habits or mode of life unfit to have control of it.
- (3) A child whose parent is unable to perform his or her parental duties owing to detention in penal servitude or under the Inebriates Act, 1898.
- (4) A child whose parent has been sentenced to imprisonment in respect of any offence against his or her children.
- (5) A child whose parent is permanently bedridden or disabled and is the inmate of a workhouse and consents to the "adoption."
- (6) A child both of whose parents are dead or in the case of an illegitimate child, whose mother is dead.

The guardians are authorised by Sec. 1 of the Act of 1899 "to permit the child to be, either permanently or temporarily, under the control of any society or institution for the care of children."

The section also provides that a court of summary jurisdiction, if satisfied on complaint by the parent or guardian of the child that there was no ground for the resolution or that it is for the benefit of the child that it should be under the permanent or temporary control of the parent or guardian, or that the resolution of the guardians should be determined, may make an order accordingly.

I am of opinion that this limitation would not prevent the guardians emigrating such children, but it is probable that the Local Government Board would require, as a condition of its consent to the emigration (Poor Law Amendment Act, 1850, Sec. 4), that the parent should consent to the child being emigrated, or in the event of that consent not being forthcoming, that the guardians should undertake to bring the child back to the country in case of a successful appeal by the parent under the Act for the restoration of control over the child.

(b) Under the conditions referred to in (a) above, the guardians may "expend money *in and about* the emigration of orphan or deserted children under sixteen years of age" (Poor Law Amendment Act, 1850, 13, 14 Vict., c. 101, Sec. 4). The money may, however, only be expended in accordance with the conditions contained in Sec. 20 of the Poor Law Amendment Act, 1849 (12, 13 Vict., c. 103) one of which conditions is that the money may be expended "with the order, and subject to the rules and regulations of the Poor Law Board (now the Local Government Board) but not otherwise."

The orders of the Local Government Board of April, 1888, January 20th, 1898, and April 20th, 1898, are annexed to this Opinion, and under these Orders the guardians may expend money for outfit, journey, and subsequent inspection of these children, but not apparently for maintenance.

I am of opinion that the Local Government Board are clearly authorised to make any regulations they, in their discretion think fit as to the manner of payment of such sums as they authorise the guardians "to expend in and about the emigration," *i.e.*, as to whether the payments are to be made periodically or in a lump sum. I am further of opinion that the words "in and about the emigration" in Sec. 4 of the Poor Law Amendment Act, 1850, would authorise the guardians to expend, and the Local Government to assent to the expenditure of money for the subsequent maintenance of the emigrated children.

The Local Government Board have already, by their Circulars (annexed to this Opinion) authorised money for expenses other than those actually incurred "*in*" emigrating, *viz.*, for subsequent inspection.

I am of opinion that they have authority to do so under the words of the Statute authorising money to be expended "*in and about the emigration*," but I submit that they have also authority under the Statute on similar grounds to authorise an expenditure for the maintenance of the emigrated children.

If I understand Mrs. Close's Scheme rightly, the allowance of a sum for maintenance either periodically or compounded for in the first instance is more vital to its success than is the case with other emigration schemes for children, in that other agencies emigrate the children when they are likely soon to become wage-earners and self-supporting, whereas under her scheme provision for maintenance, though at a less cost than in England, is still necessary.

Assuming that under Mrs. Close's Scheme it can be shown that a net saving to the guardians would result by its adoption in the case of orphans or deserted children when the expenditure incurred in England up to sixteen years was compared with the expenditure incurred "*in and about the emigration*" up to sixteen years in Canada the Scheme appears to be one which, on grounds of economy, ought to appeal to the guardians and the Local Government Board.

I am of opinion that some one or more boards of guardians who are friendly disposed to it should call the attention of the Local Government Board to the possibilities, under Sec. 4 of the Poor Law Act, 1850, of authorisation of sums for maintenance being paid by guardians in respect of these emigrated children. I understand that the Local Government Board have expressed some general opinion that the guardians have no lawful authority to expend money for maintenance of these children under the existing law, but I do not know whether their attention was specially directed to this section. Any decision of the Local Government Board, advised as they are by the highest authorities, must of course be treated with great respect, but their decisions on the construction of Statutes are not, of course, authoritative, and in one well-known instance were not upheld (*R. v. Cockerton*, 1901, 1 Q.B. 726). The Local Government Board would probably refuse to give an opinion on any hypothetical case. I would, therefore, suggest that a definite offer to take certain children on certain terms including maintenance, payment to be made either by way of a lump sum or periodically, be made to a friendly board of guardians, that the said board of guardians should then apply, stating the terms of the offer, to the Local Government Board, for an order under Sec. 4 of the Poor Law Amendment Act, 1850, authorising its acceptance. The board of guardians should state in their letter the advantages, from the point of view of economy, which would ensue, and that, in their opinion, the words of the Statute "*in and about*" would cover such an expenditure.

The board of guardians should remind the Local Government Board that by authorising and requiring a sum to be paid for subsequent inspection they have already, by their Circulars, shown that they interpret these words of the Statute to cover more than the actual expenses of the journey, etc., and that in the opinion of the guardians the subsequent maintenance stands on the same footing as the subsequent inspection already authorised, both being expenses incurred outside the United Kingdom.

The board of guardians should also say that they have noted with satisfaction the opinion of the Local Government Board expressed in their Circular Letter of March 3rd, 1903, that "emigration affords one of the best means of providing satisfactorily for the orphans and deserted children under the care of the guardians," in which opinion they concur.

The board of guardians has (in accordance with the hope expressed by the Local Government Board expressed in that letter) given "the matter their careful attention with a view to emigrating such of the children as are suitable for the purpose."

APPENDIX No. LXI. (A)—*Continued.*

The board of guardians is of opinion that the present systems, though useful as far as they go, whereby children about to become wage-earners and self-supporting are emigrated, are only able to deal with a very small portion of the children, in their opinion, "suitable for emigration" and that by a new Order in the terms applied for a much larger number of children could be dealt with annually to the advantage of the children themselves and to the economy of the rate-payers.

(c) I am of opinion that in the case of the boards of guardians the expenses would be chargeable on the common fund.

(d) I am of opinion, for reasons stated in (b) above, that the boards of guardians have power, subject to the consent of the Local Government Board, to expend sums for the maintenance of emigrated children in addition to those sums already authorised by the Local Government Board for outfit, journey, and subsequent inspection. I am of opinion that the power exists, under Sec. 4 of the Poor Law Amendment Act, 1850 (13, 14 Vic. c. 101) and that, therefore, there is no need of new legislation, but in the event of the Local Government Board refusing to adopt this view of Sec. 4 referred to, I am of opinion that before resort is had to the legislature that the Local Government Board should be asked by a friendly board of guardians as before, for their assent to the expenditure, either under Sec. 6 of the Poor Relief Act, 1849, or, in default, under the Poor Law (Certified Schools) Act, 1862.

The maintenance of paupers in houses not being work-houses under contracts for payment by the guardians is regulated by the Poor Relief Act, 1849. The inspection and visitation of such persons is by the Justices or by an inspector, appointed by the Local Government Board, but paid by the guardians, who shall visit and inspect such houses and report thereon to the Board.

Under Sec. 6 of the Poor Relief Act, 1849, the Local Government Board may issue such Orders as they deem necessary for regulating the mode in which such contracts shall be entered into, for lodging, board, maintenance, etc., and the terms and duration of such contract.

No Order, as far as I know, has been made under this Act to allow the maintenance of paupers under contract abroad, and probably on a hypothetical case the Local Government Board would refuse to give an opinion or state that no such Order was contemplated as feasible at the passing of that Act in 1849, but in order that the matter may be definitely settled I am of opinion that some board of guardians should apply to the Local Government Board for sanction to a provisional agreement, say in Canada, where the inspection of such paupers could be arranged for locally, as in the case of inspection of orphan children sent to Canada, the cost of inspection of whom is already authorised by the Local Government Board (Order April 20th, 1898.)

Under the Poor Law (Certified Schools) Act, 1862, the guardians may send any poor child who is an orphan or deserted by his or her parents or surviving parent, or one whose parents or surviving parent shall consent, to any "school" certified by the Local Government Board, as fitted for the reception of such children, and supported wholly or partially by voluntary subscriptions. Application being made by the managers of the school to the Local Government Board, the Local Government Board may appoint "such persons as they deem proper" to examine into the school and report to the Local Government Board, who, if satisfied certify the school." There appears to be no reason why the Local Government Board should not appoint one of the inspectors of the Canadian Government to make this report and the necessary subsequent inspections; as is already done as to subsequent inspections of orphan and deserted children emigrated to Canada under the Local Government Board's special rules as to emigration (Local Government Board Order, April 20th 1898.)

Under the Act of 1862, the guardians may pay out of the same fund and in the same manner as the relief otherwise supplied to the child would be charged, expenses incurred in maintenance, clothing and education of such child in such school, and may pay the conveyance of such child to and from the same, and, in case of death, the expenses of his or her burial.

The Poor Law (Certified Schools) Act, 1862, limited the expenditure for maintenance, etc., to a sum "not exceeding the total sum which would have been charged for the maintenance of such child if relieved in the work-house during such period," but this limit of expenditure is removed by the Divided Parishes and Poor Law Amendment Act, 1882, Sec. 13, under which the guardians may now pay the reasonable expenses for maintenance, etc., in accordance with a scale to be sanctioned by the Local Government Board for that particular school.

The Poor Law (Certified Schools) Act, 1862, is extended to illegitimate as well as legitimate children by the Poor Law Amendment Act, 1868, Sec. 23.

There appears to be no restriction in the Acts above quoted which would prevent the Local Government Board certifying a "school," *wherever situated*, and the conditions as to report and inspection might easily be satisfied in accordance with the precedent already established by the Board under their Order (April 20th, 1898) as to inspection of children emigrated to Canada by the inspectors of the Canadian authorities.

I am of opinion, therefore, that it would be advisable for the managers of some school or institution in Canada desiring to take these children to apply to the Local Government Board under Sec. 2 of the Poor Law (Certified Schools) Act, 1862, for such school to be certified and to point out that the conditions of preliminary report and subsequent inspection requisite under Sec. 2 and 6 of the Act can be satisfied in the manner already authorised by the Board by their Order of April 20th, 1898, *re* inspection of children emigrated to Canada.

In the event of the Local Government Board refusing to authorise the expenditure for maintenance, either under the Poor Law Amendment Act, 1850, the Poor Relief Act, 1849, or the Poor Law (Certified Schools) Act, 1862, I am of opinion that steps should be taken to induce the legislature, if possible, to amend the sections of these Acts above referred to, in order to specifically cover this charge, but unless the authors of the scheme can convert the guardians generally or the Local Government Board to the desirability of the scheme, I am afraid the chances of a Bill being passed are not very good.

(e) I am of opinion that it would be possible, with the sanction of the Local Government Board, for the boards of guardians under the existing law to hand over children to a committee as suggested, but if the Local Government Board should hold that the powers alluded to in (b) and (d) above do not authorise the boards of guardians to spend money on the maintenance of children outside the United Kingdom, I am of opinion that probably they would also veto the accomplishment of the end in view by a "side wind." There is, however, another way in which the Local Government Board might be approached for their sanction to a scheme for handing over these children to a committee as suggested.

By Sec. 10 of the Poor Law Act, 1879, the guardians may, with the consent of the Local Government Board, subscribe towards any institution which appears to the guardians, with the consent of the Local Government Board, "to be calculated to render useful aid in the administration of the relief of the poor," provided that the Local Government Board be satisfied that the paupers under the guardians have or could have assistance herein in case of necessity.

The objects of an association on the lines indicated in the case for opinion would come within the definition of this section. I may point out that the legislature itself has extended these powers under the section to subscriptions for associations for the prevention of cruelty to children (4 Edw. VII., c. 15, Sec. 23). The connection here is somewhat remote and legislative power may well have been considered necessary, but in the case under notice it would not appear to be so.

The matter is again, however, one absolutely in the discretion of the Local Government Board, but if the Local Government Board desired to further the scheme I am of opinion they would have power under Sec. 10 of the Poor Law Act, 1879, to sanction subscriptions of any amount, dependent on the number of children benefited or otherwise, and that they would not be obliged under the Statute to impose any condition as to *where* "the useful aid in the administration of the relief of the poor" was to be rendered.

APPENDIX No. LXI (A).—Continued.

B.—Reformatory and Industrial School-Children.

(a) The managers of any certified reformatory or industrial school may emigrate any youthful offender or child detained in or placed out on licence from the school, who conducts himself well, with his consent and that of the Secretary of State. (Reformatory and Industrial Schools Act, 1891, 54-55 Vict., c. 23, Sec. 1.)

3 The Secretary of State may at any time order any offender to be discharged from a certified reformatory school under Sec. 17 of the Reformatory Schools Act, 1866 (29-30, Vict., c. 117.) The Secretary of State may at any time order any child to be discharged from a certified industrial school or from any industrial school, whose rules have been approved by him, either absolutely or on such condition as the Secretary of State approves. (The Industrial Schools Act, 1866, 29-30 Vict., c. 118, Sec. 43.)

The usual practice, is, I believe, to make application to the Secretary of State for discharge of a youthful offender or child for the purposes of emigration, and the Secretary of State requires to be satisfied on the following points:—

- (1) The consent of the child.
- (2) A certificate that the child is of good conduct, sound health and good physical development and is well fitted for emigration, such certificate to be signed by the medical officer of the school as well as some responsible manager or official.
- (3) The consent of the parent, or in lieu thereof, satisfactory evidence that the parent's character is such that the Secretary of State is justified in ignoring his or her wishes.

I do not know whether the powers possessed by the managers of certified reformatory schools and of industrial schools at the expiration of eighteen months of the period of detention of children therein, to licence such children "to live with any trustworthy and respectable person named in the licence willing to receive and take charge of them" have ever been exercised in this direction outside the United Kingdom. These powers are contained in Sec. 18 of the Reformatory Schools Act, 1866, and in Sec. 27 of the Industrial Schools Act, 1866 (29-30 Vict., c. 117, c. 118.) It will be noted that these Sections contain no limitation as to the place of residence. The duration of the licence must not exceed three months, but it is renewable from time to time until the period of the child's detention is expired. In view of Sec. 1 of the Reformatory and Industrial Schools Act, 1891 (54, 55 Vict., c. 23) I am of opinion that the consent of the Secretary of State would still be necessary to such disposal by emigration, but if procedure under these Sections should be found possible, I am of opinion that the difficulty as to the legality of contributions by the Treasury for the purposes of emigration might be solved. (See Opinion on (b) below.)

(b) Under Sec. 24 of the Reformatory Schools Act, 1866 (29, 30 Vict., c. 117) and under Sec. 36 of the Industrial Schools Act, 1866 (29, 30, Vict., c. 118), the Treasury may, on the recommendation of the Secretary of State, contribute such sums as he thinks fit "towards the custody and maintenance of (offenders and) children detained in" the reformatories and industrial schools.

I am of opinion that the contributions of the Treasury under these sections must be limited to sums expended on children, etc., "detained in" the schools and reformatories and therefore cannot be made in respect of children discharged from these schools and reformatories for emigration.

If, however, it should be held that the managers, in the exercise of their powers under Sec. 18 of the Reformatory Schools Act, 1866, and under Sec. 27 of the Industrial Schools Act, 1866 (29, 30, Vict., c. 117), to license children to live with trustworthy persons willing to receive them, might license children so to reside outside the United Kingdom (see Opinion on (a) above) I am of opinion that the Treasury could in that case contribute towards the "custody and maintenance" of these children because under these sections the time during which the youthful offender or child is absent from the reformatory or school in pursuance of a license is "deemed to be part of the time of his detention in the school or reformatory."

The county councils, to whom (except as to boroughs with a population of over 10,000), the powers of the prison authority were transferred by Sec. 3 of the Local Government Act, 1888 (51, 52 Vict., c. 14), may contribute towards the ultimate disposal of any child to whose support in a reformatory or industrial school they have contributed (Youthful Offenders Act, 1901, 1 Edw. VII., c. 20, Sec. 8).

The borough council with a population over 10,000 remains a prison authority and under Sec. 5 and 9 of the Reformatory and Industrial Schools Act, 1872, may contribute towards the ultimate disposal of any inmate of a Reformatory or industrial school established by it (35, 36, Vict., c. 21).

The councils above referred to have similar powers as successors to the school boards under the Education Act, 1902 (2 Edw. VII., c. 42), and in consequence of the same Act the council of an urban district with a population of over 20,000 acquires a similar right to contribute towards the ultimate disposal of children to whose support they have contributed (*vide* the Elementary Education Act, 1900, 63, 64 Vict., c. 53, Sec. 4).

I am of opinion that all the contributions above referred to can be made in the shape of a lump sum to cover outfit, journey, and subsequent maintenance. In view of the words "ultimate disposal" it would seem preferable to effect this by a lump sum rather than by periodical payments.

In addition it must be remembered that most of these schools are managed by voluntary associations, and that the managers, subject to these rules, can likewise contribute towards the ultimate disposal of any of the inmates.

I am of opinion that where a single body, such as the managers of a reformatory or industrial school, draws its funds from different sources it can only elect which fund it would use for emigration purposes, with the consent of the contributors.

In the event of a Treasury contribution being found possible as suggested in (b) above, or as regards any sum specifically allotted by a local authority towards ultimate disposal as referred to in (b) above there would appear to be no difficulty as to coming to an amicable arrangement.

(d) I am of opinion, for reasons stated in (a) and (b) above, that powers exist under the present law to achieve what is desired, with the exception of the difficulty as to Treasury contributions which I am of opinion can only be solved in the present state of the law if the suggestion I make in (a) and (b) above as to the substitution of licensing for discharge be found feasible.

In the event of this not being possible, I am of opinion that Sec. 24 of the Reformatory Schools Act, 1866, and Sec. 35 of the Industrial Schools Act, 1866, would need amending say to this effect: "Notwithstanding anything contained in Sec. 24 of the Reformatory Schools Act, 1866, or in Sec. 35 of the Industrial Schools Act, 1866, the Treasury may, from time to time, contribute out of money provided by Parliament for the purpose, such sums as the Secretary of State from time to time think fit to recommend towards the custody and maintenance of any youthful offender or child discharged from a certified reformatory or industrial school in order that he may be emigrated."

I am of opinion that it would be better to leave the actual expense of outfit and journey to be provided for by the local authorities under their powers to contribute as to "ultimate disposal" of inmates.

(e) I am of opinion that under Sec. 18 of the Reformatory Schools Act, 1866, and under Sec. 27 of the Industrial Schools Act, 1866, the managers of certified reformatory and industrial schools could licence such children to the Committee without restrictions as to place of residence, viz., "to live with any trustworthy and respectable person named in the licence willing to receive and take charge of them."

I have given my reasons for that opinion in (a) and (b) above and have pointed out the advantages which would, in my opinion, accrue if the course suggested should be held possible.

In the event of it being held impossible I am of opinion that the managers could hand over youthful offenders

APPENDIX No. LXI. (A).—*Continued.*

or children from the certified reformatory or industrial schools to the committee for emigration with the consent of, and after discharge by, the Secretary of State under Sec. 1 of the Reformatory and Industrial Schools Act, 1891 (54-55 Vict., c. 23).

In this case the local authorities could contribute as at present under their powers of contribution towards "ultimate disposal," and I am of opinion that it would probably be held that a lump sum at all events might be paid in this connection which would cover in advance

an agreed cost of maintenance, but it would, in my opinion be impossible to obtain a Treasury contribution under Sec. 35 of the Industrial Schools Act, 1886 (29, 30, Vict., c. 118), and Sec. 24 of the Reformatory Schools Act 1866 (29, 30, Vict., c. 117).

HARTLEY B. N. MOTHERSOLE.

4, Pump Court, Temple, E.C.

December 13th, 1906.

APPENDIX No. LXII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY MR. WILLIAM CROOKS, M.P., L.C.C., LATE CHAIRMAN OF THE POPLAR BOARD OF GUARDIANS.

[*Note.*—By direction of the Commission certain paragraphs of Mr. Crook's Statement have been omitted on the ground that they involved personal questions of conduct or misconduct into which the Commission could not enter.

1. In placing before the Commission my views on pauperism and its causes in Poplar, I would begin by calling attention to the fact that the theoretical administration of the Poor Law is often assumed to be governed by the principles laid down by the Commissioners of 1834, the basis of which is the fundamental principle that with respect to legal relief of the poor the condition of the pauper ought to be on the whole less eligible than that of the independent labourer.

2. Ever since these principles were first laid down they have been violated in practice. Public opinion, as expressed by legislation, past, present and anticipated, is against them. Boards of guardians, Local Government Board, and Parliament are alike guilty—if guilt there be—of evading enactments suggestive of harsh treatment, and it is now generally conceded that the suppression of pauperism offers no solution in eliminating poverty. Occasionally, * * * officialism reverts back to archaism, which proves how necessary it is to recognise that while the doctrinaire has stood still, the application of more genial influences to the problem has in seventy years quite altered the conception of our duties to the pauper.

3. Consider medical relief: In institutions where medical relief is afforded at the cost of the rates, patients receive food, medicine, clothing, nursing, etc., of a nature infinitely superior to what could be obtained in the home of an independent workman. Now let us consider the children: In the bad old days of which Dickens wrote, the sins of the parent were visited on the children. This has all been changed by order of the Local Government Board. Receiving homes, scattered homes and highly organised schools have been established, and children are brought up away from the taint of pauperism. The Poplar Board may justly claim to have had a hand in bringing about this change. From the official point of view, even worse than this change is the policy which will be set up by the passing of the Bill for feeding hungry school children. The late Government made it the duty of boards of guardians to feed hungry children. The education authority may now do the work. The principle is established that children whose parents are too poor to provide them with proper food may be fed by the education authority without being branded as paupers. This step is largely in advance of the policy of the Poplar Board. Again, before free education was established, the guardians in certain districts paid the school fees for children, the parents becoming paupers as a consequence. To-day all may be educated at the cost of the rates.

4. Take the aged poor: Successive presidents have laid it down that the aged poor should receive care and attention and better treatment than other classes of the poor. Finally, we have Mr. Chaplin's circular, the issue of which was brought about partly through our policy, which reads as follows:—

"With regard to the treatment of the aged and deserving poor, it has been felt that persons who have habitually led decent lives should, if they desire relief in their old age, receive different treatment from those whose previous habits and character have been unsatisfactory and who have failed to exercise thrift in the bringing up of their families or otherwise. The board consider that aged deserving persons should not be urged to enter the workhouse at all unless there is some cause which renders such a course necessary, such as infirmity of mind or body, the absence of house accommodation or of a suitable person to care for them, or some similar cause, but that they should be relieved by having adequate outdoor relief granted to them. The board are happy to think that it is commonly the practice of boards of guardians to grant outdoor relief in such cases, but they are afraid that too frequently such relief is not adequate in amount. They are desirous of pressing upon the guardians that such relief should, when granted, be always adequate."

"When, however, it is necessary that such persons should receive indoor relief, the Board consider that they might be granted certain privileges which could not be accorded to every inmate of the workhouse."

5. The present Government, through Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman and Mr. H. H. Asquith, declared their intention of bringing in a measure for conferring old age pensions on all persons who reach a certain age. Those who have made this declaration are honourable men, and when their measure becomes law, what will be left of the principles of 1834? Surely this is the last thing needed to prove that we in Poplar were right when we declared, not once but many times, that the aged poor were entitled to maintenance in old age, without the brand of pauperism being put upon them.

6. The able-bodied problem has been the most complicated, but here again the principles of 1834 have hopelessly broken down. Between 1886 and the present time, each President of the Local Government Board has urged local authorities, apart from the guardians, to find work for the unemployed. Compared with this practice, what we have done at Poplar is, in principle, child's play. The practice sets up the principle that men are entitled to work the same to be provided by the community when it cannot be obtained through the usual channels, and the further principle that such work shall not carry with it the taint of pauperism. In 1905 Parliament concurred in these principles by passing the Unemployed Workmen Bill and by granting £200,000 from the National Exchequer to pay wages to men employed under the Act. I put all this on record to show that the policy of the Poplar Board was always in line with public opinion as expressed in the legislation of the late and present Governments. We wish judgment to be passed on our policy; and we ask that a clear judgment may not be obscured by a consideration of alleged maladministration.

APPENDIX No. LXII.—Continued.

7. Let us now examine Mr. Davy's Report, the figures of which were questioned from the commencement of the inquiry.

8. Owing to the complexity of our system of local government, the multiplicity of authorities, and the want of co-ordination in the various accounts and returns, official statistics relating to matters of local government require to be handled with great care if trustworthy inferences are to be drawn from them. Especial care is needed in dealing with Poor Law administration owing to the number and diversity of the disturbing factors which affect from time to time both the numbers and the cost of "paupers." For instance, as to the numbers, apart from the regular oscillation caused by the differing conditions of summer and winter, there have to be taken into account both general and local crises of distress of varying duration and intensity, changes of classification of paupers, especially with regard to children, the growth of lunacy, distribution as to sex and age, changes in national policy, e.g., as in the State's attitude towards the unemployed and as regards meals for underfed school children, etc., etc. As to cost, besides the natural effect of change in the numbers, there have to be taken into account changes in the relative proportions of the different classes of those in receipt of relief; and more particularly when it is sought to affix responsibility, the system of divided control over expenditure must be kept in mind. Now in attempting to express the statistics of a subject in tabular form, certain cardinal rules must be observed if confusion and misrepresentation are to be avoided.

9. Like must be compared with like, and where this is not altogether possible, attention must be drawn on the face of the table to any want of accurate correspondence in comparison.

10. In contrasting individual years, some distance apart in point of time, great care must be exercised in the selection, to see that they are fairly typical of the periods they represent. Abnormal years must not be contrasted with normal, except to show their abnormalities.

11. Means should not be treated as averages. Averages should be weighted. Percentages should be used with discretion.

12. In making summary tables, care should be taken that aggregates represent cognate things; and the summaries should be in relation with the detailed tables where given. In fact, all tables which profess to deal with the same facts should, though presenting different aspects of those facts, preserve the unities of time and classification.

13. The Memorandum as to pauperism in Poplar has obviously been drawn up without due regard to the above canons of statistical expression. We have no sort of unity or uniformity in comparison, no proper correspondence between the summary and the detailed tables, no traceable relation between figures and tables apparently representing the same thing, no regard for averages, a misuse of means, a disregard of headings, a fallacious use of percentages, and a litter of tables and charts which do not correspond.

14. For instance, we have the following confusing and conflicting set of tables:—

I.—Numbers :

Table A.—Detailed statement of numbers of paupers in Poplar Union 1885–1906.

Table B.—Summary statement of pauperism in Poplar and the whole Metropolis 1890–1906.

Table D.—Pauperism in Poplar and neighbouring unions 1895–1905.

Table E.—Statistics relating to the Poplar Union 1896–1905.

Table G.—Numbers of paupers in Poor Law unions of Metropolis, January 1st, 1895, and January 1st, 1905.

So far as the Poplar figures are concerned, not one of these tables is in absolute agreement with any other. Here is an illustration, showing incidentally the fallacy of "means" as taken in the Memorandum:—

Poplar Paupers in 1905.

—	On January 1st.	"Mean" for year.
Table A - -	11,666	9,656
" B - -	11,767	11,412
" D - -	—	9,364
" E - -	—	9,349
" G - -	11,344	—

Note particularly the striking difference in the "mean" according as you take Table A. or Table B. Of course they have been differently calculated like all the others, but what kind of statistics are these which speak with so many voices at once? Note also the complete want of uniformity in the periods covered by the tables.

II.—Cost :

Table C.—Poplar Union; cost of relief; indoor and outdoor, 1885–1906.

Table E.—Statistics relating to the Poplar Union 1896–1905.

The figures for "in-maintenance" in the years covered by both tables are totally at variance.

The divergence is enormous, growing from one of about 10 per cent in 1896 to one of 30 per cent in 1905. Here are the figures of cost for these two years as given in Tables C. and E. respectively:—

—	1896.	1905.
TABLE C.—In-maintenance, including cost of chargeable paupers in Poplar and Stepney Sick Asylum and other institutions not under the control of the guardians.	£40,930	£68,279
TABLE E.—In-maintenance and Poplar payment in respect of Poplar and Stepney Sick Asylum.	£44,542	£88,691

What makes the matter more curious is that the cost of out-relief in the two tables agrees within a few pounds. Again, what confidence can be placed in conclusions drawn from tables so carelessly selected? Obviously a mass of unrelated figures have been grouped together without sufficient regard to the "headings" of account, and sometimes one and sometimes another taken according as it suited the comparison of the moment.

15. There are numerous charts attached to the Memorandum, but as these merely illustrate the tables, their accuracy or the reverse is, of course, bound up with the accuracy or otherwise of the tables themselves.

16. I pass to a more detailed criticism of the Memorandum.

17. Its object was to show statistically for the Poplar Union what had been the increase of pauperism in recent years, and what had been the increased cost of pauperism for which the board of guardians was responsible. The causes and character of such increase in numbers as might be shown, and the reasons for such increased cost as was under the control of the Poplar Board of Guardians, were the subject of the inquiry. But the Memorandum was intended to be merely a statistical statement of the case requiring investigation. Its figures should have been beyond cavil, conveying no false implications; its methods should have been beyond reproach, not suggesting conclusions but stating facts. It failed at every point. Its figures are provably misleading, and its statistical methods demonstrably wrong. Four main

APPENDIX No. LXII.—*Continued.*

fallacies like woof and wrap run criss-cross through the web of figures:—

A.—“Mean” numbers are put forward as if they were averages fairly representing the state of pauperism for a given year. This is the fallacy of “means.”

B.—An abnormal year, rendered abnormal by an acute and prolonged industrial crisis of peculiar local severity, is put forward as representing a permanent state of things. This is the fallacy of extremes.

C.—Figures of cost are used which include large sums over which the Poplar Board of Guardians had no control, and for which they could not be held responsible. This is the fallacy of indiscriminateness.

D.—Aggregate figures are compared both as to numbers and cost without regard to the qualifying effect upon such comparisons which the varying relative proportions of the component parts of such aggregates might produce. This is the fallacy of aggregates.

A.—*The Fallacy of “Means.”*

18. In Table A. the quantity of Pauperism for a given year is taken to be the mean between the total number of paupers on January 1st of that year, and the total number on *July 1st of the previous year*. The figure thus obtained has no necessary relation to the average number of paupers in the union for the year.

19. For instance, a low average number of paupers for eleven months in the year may be to a great extent falsified by a couple of weeks severe frost and accompanying distress about January 1st.; and on the other hand, a year of exceptional distress which happened to include exceptionally fine open weather in January would not be adequately represented. The extent of the possible error involved may be conveniently illustrated from a comparison of the facts indicated in the chart facing page 20 of Mr. Davy's report with those implied by Table A. in the Memorandum:—

Outdoor Pauperism in Poplar, 1904.

Mean of numbers on July 1st, 1904, and January 1st, 1905. (1905 in Table A.)	- - - - -	6,011
Average weekly numbers throughout 1904. (Estimated from Chart at p. 20. 25 per 1,000 of population of 170,000)	- - - - -	4,250
Difference	- - - - -	1,761

20. Now, obviously, the lower figure represents the amount of outdoor pauperism in Poplar for the year 1904, more correctly than does the higher. In fact, this 6,011 represents nothing of truth. On January 1st, 1905, the actual numbers were far higher, for ten months of the year they were very much lower, and for eight months little more than half this misleading figure.

21. Nor can it be said that though in itself misleading it is yet fairly, comparable with a similar “mean” for, say, 1895. Although the winter of 1894–5 was one of acute distress the number of outdoor paupers on January 1st, 1895, only exceeded by three the number of July 1st, 1894! (See Table A.) Yet in that winter the average number of outdoor paupers for the six weeks ended March 30th, 1895, was 5,700, rising suddenly from about 2,000 in the third week of February, and falling as suddenly to the same figure in April. (See p. 20 of Mr. Davy's report). It should be observed that it is impossible completely to reconcile the figures at p. 20 of the report, and on the Chart with those in Table A. of the Memorandum. Possibly the former do not include children.

22. Both sets of figures profess to deal with the number of outdoor paupers, but this is only typical of the general statistical carelessness with which the Memorandum has been compiled; it does not materially affect my criticism.

23. We note, then, that the method of “mean” number adopted in the Memorandum not only tends to misrepresent a given year, and does so to a quite remarkable extent, in the case of 1904 (“1905”) by some 40 per cent., but renders comparison between different years absolutely misleading owing to the differing conditions of given years.

24. Nor is this all. Against a comparison of numbers arrived at in this fallacious way is set a comparison of cost relating to a different period of time. Take the year 1895. In Paragraph 2 of the Memorandum the mean number of outdoor paupers for “1895” is given as 2,078 (N.B.—This is the mean of the number of outdoor paupers on July 1st, 1894, and January 1st, 1895) and the cost for the same year £14,171 (N.B.—The cost is for the year ended Lady Day 1895). Now this £14,171 includes the cost of some five weeks in February and March, 1895, when the number of outdoor paupers was more than three times the number on January 1st (5,750 against 1,750). Five weeks of 4,000 extra paupers at a low estimate represents £3,000 included in this £14,171, which was not expenditure incurred in connection with the “mean” number of outdoor paupers for “1895” (including children).

25. But it is this swollen figure of £14,171 which, compared with the cost for 1885, gives an increase in the cost of 92 per cent. against an increase in the numbers of only 37 per cent. The contrast is, of course, ridiculously unfair, because the expenditure relates to a much larger number of paupers than that to which it is wrongly attributed.

26. So much for the fallacy of “means.” I may say there was no reason why averages should not have been employed, as there are weekly returns of the number of paupers in every union in England and Wales from which the Local Government Board compile a monthly statement of pauperism. There may be justification for comparing the numbers in January or July in one year with those in January or July respectively in another year, but none for mixing them up as is done in the Memorandum.

B.—*The Fallacy of Extremes.*

27. The tables at Paragraphs 1 and 2 of the Memorandum with their fallacious use of percentages suggest a wholesale pauperisation of Poplar. Of course this suggestion is produced by comparing “1906,” a quite exceptional period of distress, with “means” for 1895 (whose exceptional winter condition is concealed by the method of “means”) and 1885 as if all three years were fairly typical of the point in time they represent. A minor matter is the contrasting of a period of ten years (1885–1895) with one of eleven years (1895–1906.) As a matter of fact such comparisons obscure the facts. If changes in the amount of pauperism are to be expressed by reference to numbers on a particular day, it would seem, for fairly obvious reasons, desirable to take the numbers in midsummer, i.e., on July 1st, as the quantitative measure of pauperism. That time of year is certainly most favourable to poverty, and taking one year with another, is less subject to extreme fluctuations than is midwinter. High numbers in July are much more significant than high numbers in January, and it is with these (while connoting exceptional periods of crisis whether in winter or summer) that a careful statistician would deal, failing the more desirable method of weekly or even monthly averages. Now the most cursory study of the figures in Table A. shows that the three dates, January 1st, 1905, July 1st, 1905, and January 1st, 1906, were for statistical purposes in a class by themselves. Any fair representation over a series of years of the growth of pauperism in Poplar regarded as a continuing condition, was bound to stop at July 1st, 1904, and then give the figures for July, 1905, as indicative of a crisis. The character of the crisis, whether industrial, administrative or the product of a particular policy was matter for comment, but the fault of the Memorandum is that it creates a statistical crisis which overstates and falsifies the true position. Keeping in view these considerations, the

APPENDIX No. LXII.—Continued.

following table shows for *Outdoor Pauperism* the state of affairs in Poplar during the last twenty-two years :—

Outdoor Pauperism in Poplar.

July 1st	—	Remarks.
1884 - - -	1,491	Nine years.
1888 - - -	1,711	
1892 - - -	1,533	Average 1,565.
1893 - - -	2,050	Seven years.
1895 - - -	2,218	
1898 - - -	2,030	Average 2,115.
1899 - - -	2,102	Increase 35 per cent.
1901 - - -	2,644	
1903 - - -	3,299	Rapid increase in five years, 97 per cent.
1904 - - -	4,153	
1905 - - -	7,183	State of crisis.

28. Of course, these figures being aggregates need considerable elucidation, but for the moment I am only dealing with the fallacy of extremes. I submit that the figures, properly handled, reveal a sufficiently serious situation ; whereas the crudity of the methods adopted in the Memorandum imparts an air of unreality, and to that extent misrepresents the state of the case.

C.—*The Fallacy of Indiscriminateness.*

29. Reverting to Paragraph 1 of the Memorandum and the table there given relating to *Indoor Pauperism*, we find it stated that whereas the numbers of indoor paupers increased by 36 per cent. between 1895 and 1906, their cost increased by 86 per cent. This statement is repeated in Paragraph 3. But the figures for cost, apart from the fact that they do not relate to the same period as the numbers, as already pointed out, include expenditure on account of the Poplar and Stepney District Asylum, over which the Poplar Board of Guardians had no control and for whose expenditure they were not responsible. This item, though affecting only some 600 paupers in both years, represents more than 50 per cent. of the cost and accounts for some £19,000 out of the total increase of £32,594. Deducting this portion of the increase for which the Poplar Board of Guardians were not responsible, the increased cost works out at £13,594, or about 36 per cent., *the same relative increase as in the case of the numbers.* I must again point out that the cost of in-maintenance for these years is differently stated in Tables C. and E. of the Memorandum ; but Table C., the figures of which are used in Paragraphs 1 and 3 here under criticism, expressly includes “the amount expended on the maintenance of chargeable paupers in the Poplar and Stepney Sick Asylum, and of persons in other institutions not under the direct control of the guardians.”

D.—*The Fallacy of Aggregates.*

30. Suppose two flocks of sheep, A. and B., A. flock consisting of 900 sheep and 100 lambs, and B. flock of 100 sheep and 900 lambs. Suppose the value of sheep to be 50s. a head and of lambs 20s. a head: then the value of flock A. would be £2,350 and of flock B. £1,150.

Outdoor Paupers.

—	1895.	Per cent. of Total.	1906.	Per cent. of Total.	Increase.
Aggregate - - - - -	2,078	—	7,247	—	5,169
<i>Analysis.</i>					
Able-bodied :—					
Males - - - - -	90	4·5	671	9·25	581
Females - - - - -	365	17·5	1,229	17·	864
Children - - - - -	326	15·5	2,492	34·5	2,166
Not Able-bodied :—					
Males - - - - -	263	13·	810	11·25	547
Females - - - - -	938	45·	1,967	27·0	1,029
Children - - - - -	96	4·5	77	1·	19 less

Suppose a statistical expert from the Local Government Board described these two flocks as each consisting of 1,000 head of sheep, flock A. being priced at an average of £2·35 per head, and flock B. at an average of £1·15 per head ; and then proceeded to show by tables and charts that flock A. was 100 per cent. dearer than flock B. without pointing out the difference in the composition of the two flocks, what would plain men think ? But this is just the kind of fallacy involved in dealing, as does the Memorandum, with the aggregate numbers of paupers, without due and sufficient regard to the changing composition of the gross totals.

31. To show how materially the *composition* of the aggregate figures so loosely employed in the Memorandum must affect the meaning of many of the comparisons there made, I mention the following facts :—

(a) With regard to indoor pauperism, taking the figures in Paragraph 1 and analysing them as shown in Table A., we have this striking result :—

Indoor Paupers.

1885	-	1,656	Able-bodied	-	521	Increase per cent.
			Not able-bodied	-	998	
			Insane.	-	136	
1895	{	2,809	Incr. 70%			
			Able-bodied	-	570	10
			Not able-bodied	-	2,011	100
1906	{	3,833	Incr. 36%			
			Insane	-	228	67
			Able-bodied	-	588	3
1906	{	3,833	Incr. 36%			
			Not able-bodied	-	2,938	46
			Insane	-	307	35

But again, caution is necessary, for by reason of changes in classification of children, able-bodied connotes a varying proportion of adults and children in the three years above given. Distributing the totals for 1885 and 1906 by sex and age, we get another set of results which again should modify our reading of the aggregates in comparison.

Indoor Paupers.

—	1885.	1906.	Increased per cent.
Males - - -	538	1,552	188
Females - - -	492	783	60
Children - - -	490	1,191	143
Insane - - -	136	307	126
Aggregate - -	1,656	3,833	131

(b) But if it is necessary to keep always in view the numbers of the different classes of indoor paupers, it is still more necessary, if grave misconception is to be avoided, to know every time exactly what is meant by the inclusive term outdoor paupers. I have already shown from the point of view how misleading is the statement of the increase in outdoor pauperism as tabulated in Paragraph 2 of the Memorandum. I will now briefly deal with it in relation to what the figures really represent. It will be sufficient if I take the contrast between the numbers as given for 1895 and 1906. Here are the gross totals of the Memorandum analysed into their component parts :—

APPENDIX No. LXII.—*Continued.*

This analysis shows at a glance what the aggregate figure does not suggest, that no less than four-fifths of the enormous increase was composed of women and children, a qualitative fact of at least equal importance with the quantitative one to which alone prominence is given in the Memorandum.

32. I would put on record the fact that the inquiry was held at the request of the Poplar Board, which, from the beginning, courted the utmost publicity. * * * *

33. Mr. Davy's history of the events which led up to the inquiry is, on the whole, accurate. But the paragraph relating to the Laindon Farm Colony (p. 5) ought also to state that the police charges were met and answered at the time they were made, that the reply of the guardians was accepted as satisfactory by the Local Government Board, and that the certificate, whereby a large portion of the cost was placed on the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund, was continued. He should also have stated that the question of the borrowing powers of the guardians had already been investigated by the Local Government Board. By an Order in Council, sanctioned by Parliament, those powers were increased. Thus further inquiry was unnecessary, and, in fact, Mr. Davy made no reference to the matter at the inquiry. At the same time, however, it might have been stated that Poplar was not alone in having its borrowing powers increased. Bethnal Green and Stepney have found it necessary to apply for similar orders. This seems definitely to point to the fact that an undue burden, so far as the support of London's poor is concerned, is borne by the poorer districts of the Metropolis.

34. The report might also have shown that questions arising out of the practice of giving outdoor relief, on the score of sudden or urgent necessity were outstanding, not only between the Local Government Board and the Poplar guardians, but between the Local Government Board and many other boards of guardians. It is well known that able-bodied men have been relieved on account of sudden or urgent necessity for many years past.

* * * * *

39. So far, I have confined myself to preliminary matters only. I now propose to deal with the general question of pauperism in the district. At the beginning let me say that I do not propose to challenge Mr. Davy's figures as to the increase. That rise was inevitable wherever the new policy was introduced. But I challenge the statement that this rise is due to causes which the guardians of the poor could control. It will be well now to show what the policy of the guardians really meant; those responsible for the policy are best fitted to describe it. It may roughly be summarised as a policy of dealing with the poor in a humane spirit. The guardians were obliged to carry out extensive alterations in the administration of the workhouse and schools, the chief being as follows:—The provision of warmer underclothing and clothing generally for the aged and infirm (no flannels were allowed prior to the new policy); decent and proper underclothing for women; overcoats for aged men and the abolition of uniforms for men and women; an adequate staff of nurses for the sick wards; the establishment of workshops on the premises wherein, as far as possible, boots and clothes were made for men and women by paid workpeople, assisted by inmate labour; the placing of paid attendants instead of inmates in charge of the aged; the abolition of task work for so-called able-bodied men.

40. Many Local Government Board inspectors reported very favourably on this policy. They agreed that the condition of the house, so far as the able-bodied were concerned, was much improved. These reports were presented at the inquiry.

41. At the schools, which came under the control of the guardians seven years ago, the first thing to be done was to abolish the practice of conveying guardians from Poplar to Forest Gate in broughams. Secondly, the dinner provided for the managers was abolished. This dinner was quite an up-to-date affair, including in the menu soup, fish, poultry, joints, sweets, etc. It is worth noting that this management committee, which considered such a dinner necessary every time it met, was composed mainly of large ratepayers. Thirdly, the

condition of the children was improved. Uniforms were abolished, a good and sufficient dietary table brought into operation, real technical education was begun, half-time was abolished, and the older children were left free to go in and out without attendance. In these circumstances, the boys and girls rapidly improved in every respect, and they now command improved situations when they leave the schools.

42. The indoor sick of Poplar are dealt with at the Poplar and Stepney Sick Asylum. Here again our policy has had the effect of securing to the patients the very best treatment. An adequate nursing staff has been established, and the institution is considered as the most efficient of its kind in the Metropolis.

43. The Poplar Board has done its best to carry out a policy of outdoor relief which provides for the adequate relief of the aged outside the house whenever possible and desirable. Formerly it was the practice to grant such small amounts as 1s. 6d. per week. The amounts now range from 2s. 6d. to 8s. per week. No fixed amount is laid down, each case being dealt with on its merits. Adequate relief is granted to sick people when dealt with in their own homes. For a certain period out-relief is granted to widows, but at the end of that period the children are taken to the schools.

44. Able-bodied applicants do not, as a general rule, receive out-relief. When the case is one of starvation or severe privation, relief in kind has been given. As will be seen later on, this is the crux of the whole matter so far as the Local Government Board and the Poplar Board are concerned.

45. The foregoing is, roughly, the policy carried out by the Poplar Board. It is now expedient to state the reason for this policy. It was never put into operation with the idea that it would lead to a reduction in the rates or in the number applying for relief. No one imagines that decent treatment of the poor will choke off applicants. We only look for that result when a harsh system is employed. We claim that, under the Act of Elizabeth, the poor, not merely the destitute, are entitled to approach society in times of need. The State provides roads, sewers, light, the police, Army and Navy, education, etc., and we all have the benefit of those services. The State pensions its otherwise well-paid officials and ministers. We claim that the poor, whose Charter is the 43rd of Elizabeth, should not be penalised for needing help, but should be given such help in an ungrudging measure and in a manner as will most effectively preserve their self-respect.

46. To a certain extent our policy is responsible for the increase in the pauperism of the district, but the conditions which make applications for relief necessary are conditions over which boards of guardians have no control. In setting the records of other districts against the record of the Poplar Board Mr. Davy only proves, in my opinion, that in those other districts, the poor do not get what they are morally and legally entitled to.

47. In his report, Mr. Davy says that the board subsidises wages. This does not mean that relief is the cause of sweating and low wages. Sweating exists where no out-relief is given at all. The workers who are sweated must get help somewhere. In the case of Poplar it comes from the rates. There is another question, however, which arises from Mr. Davy's figures. He is at some considerable pains to show that from 1904 to 1906 our figures went up enormously, and points out that some of this increase is due to the altered policy of the borough council with regard to casual labour. I want to make this point clearer, and, to this end, will draw your attention to the fact that the altered policy of the borough council put out, at one stroke, something like 600 heads of families. As the average number in a family is five, it will be seen that 3,000 individuals were affected. Table A, p. 51, shows that from January 1st, 1904, to January 1st, 1905, the increase in the number of those in receipt of out-relief was 3,814, but when these figures are analysed, it is proved that the number represents 871 men, 1,018 women and 1,925 children of all classes. Of the men, thirty-nine were relieved on account of their own sickness, accident or infirmity, 665 were able-bodied relieved from other causes, and

APPENDIX No. LXII.—*Continued.*

167 were not able-bodied. It will be seen that the actual increase of 3,814 included not less than 2,943 women and children and that the number of able-bodied men relieved (665) approximated to the number dispensed with by the borough council. In comparing our relief figures with those of other districts, Mr. Davy leaves out of account the fact that Poplar stood almost alone in its abolition of casual labour by the borough council. While Poplar refused to recognise the borough council as a relief authority, Stepney was dispensing with the use of the horse-broom, and in common with most other boroughs held to the three days a week system. I contend that if the comparison is to be fair, then to the poor relief in other boroughs must be added the relief given by means of the three days system. Further, it is not fair to take the abnormal years 1904, 1905 and 1906 to test to what extent our pauperism had increased. If the figures down to 1903 are taken and compared with the figures of Stepney and St. George's-in-the-East (the Jews being left out of account in each case, they being dealt with by their own authorities) it will be found that Poplar's percentage is under five, and that of Stepney and St. George's four. These figures are very different from those quoted by the inspector.

48. I will now deal with the Laindon Farm Colony. The colony was established because the Poplar Board considered it inexpedient to immure able-bodied men, and to put them to degrading and useless work. It is by these latter methods that habitual inmates are manufactured. Of course a certain proportion is unemployable. The board thought it would be a good plan to secure a piece of land and put able-bodied men to useful, productive work. This would also be a good way of getting rid of the "wastrel," for it is said that if there is one thing this class does not like it is work. After many applications to the Local Government Board, extending over many years, the guardians were offered the use of a farm free of charge for three years. The Local Government Board then gave their consent to the inception of the colony. That there are some unsatisfactory features connected with the place is quite true. It should be remembered, however, that we were dealing with the most hopeless class in the community. For when a man and his wife, especially if they have children, come to the workhouse, it is very safe to say that they are at their last gasp. The Poplar Board can truly say that it has helped some of this class to tide over troublous times, and the people of Poplar should be proud of this. It can also claim to have relieved the rates of the cost of some "won't-works," for which Poplar people should be glad. To run the colony has cost money. Poor Law administration is always expensive. But regarded in the light of the good work it has done, the colony has been cheap. From the beginning of the colony in 1904 to March 31st, 1906 (under two years), there were 821 admissions, representing 563 individuals. Twenty-five of these emigrated to Canada. Nine obtained employment outside. 314 were discharged, twenty-six absconded, ninety-one were chargeable in other institutions and ninety-eight were still at the colony.

Of the 314 discharged, 118 had not since been relieved by the guardians. At Laindon the guardians acted within the knowledge of the Local Government Board, but the success of the experiment was greatly impaired because the board was obliged to keep 150 men on the farm, whereas the place was only intended to accommodate fifty. (For dietary table, see *Appendix No. LXII. (A)*).

* * * * *

52. It is not worth while to go into the various items of expenditure on food in detail. The Poplar Board pleads guilty to the charge of having bought and used the best food wherever possible; it was particularly careful in regard to meat, milk and bread. We do not agree that it is good to use frozen meat; and in specifying the goods needed on a contract form, we thought it impracticable to ask for bad or middling meat; so we asked for the best. In the end we think this course was the cheapest. Such items of food as biscuits, arrowroot, fish, etc., were for the sick, the officers and the children. People were led to suppose the inmates of the Poplar Workhouse were fed with these delicacies. I append dietary tables, in use at the workhouse and at the schools, which are sanctioned by the Local Government Board. It was published broadcast that the inmates were supplied with Mazawattee tea. As a matter of fact only certain officers were supplied with this tea. (It was, however, used at the before-mentioned tea for the committee.) £18 7s. 10d. was spent on it in a year. Nevertheless the item had not been noticed in the grocery contract, or it would have been changed. I might now add that all the books of the Poplar Board were open to the Government auditors year by year. Is it not reasonable to expect that any slip made by the board would be discovered and brought to its notice by the auditor? The board is also entitled to a copy of any report which the auditor may make on the books of the guardians. The board applied for a copy of the letter which accompanied the auditor's analysis of the cost of maintenance—an analysis which was submitted to the Local Government Board and printed in the evidence of the inquiry—but has not yet received it. If the auditor had thought it necessary, he should have called attention to the rise in cost of maintenance long before the inquiry.

53. Finally, I repeat that our pauperism is due to our poverty. The policy of the Poplar Board is based on claims recognised by Statute as the claims of the poor. I do not palliate any lapses on the part of any members or officers of the board. As a board I claim that we have fulfilled our duty as efficiently and economically as possible. Relief was never given indiscriminately either in or out of the workhouse. We tried to do our duty firstly to the poor, secondly to the ratepayers. For the past ten years we have never ceased to urge that the poor should be maintained by the whole country and that the Poor Law should be reformed. Despite the attack made upon us last year, we are glad to know that our work has been successful. As a result of our policy the poor in other parts of the country are better cared for than heretofore.

APPENDIX No. LXII.—(A).

Handed in by Mr. William Crooks, M.P., L.C.C.

POPLAR UNION.

DIETARY TABLE—LAINDON FARM COLONY.

No. 3.

Day.	Breakfast.	Dinner.	Supper.
Sunday - - -	Coffee - - - 1 pint. Bread - - - 8 oz. Butter - - - 1 „	Cold Meat - - 4½ oz. Potatoes - - 12 „ Bread - - 4 „ Rice Pudding - 8 „	Tea - - - 1 pint. Bread - - - 8 oz. Butter - - - 1 „ Cake - - - 4 „
Monday - - -	Coffee - - - 1 pint. Bread - - - 8 oz. Butter - - - 1 „	Roast Beef - - 4½ oz. Potatoes - - 12 „ Bread - - 4 „ Tea - - - 1 pint.	Tea - - - 1 pint. Bread - - - 8 oz. Cheese - - - 1½ „ Butter - - - ½ „
Tuesday - - -	Coffee - - - 1 pint. Bread - - - 8 oz. Butter - - - 1 „	Boiled Mutton - 4½ oz. Potatoes - - 12 „ Rice Pudding - 8 „ Tea - - - 1 pint.	Tea - - - 1 pint. Bread - - - 8 oz. Cheese - - - 1½ „ Butter - - - ½ „
Wednesday - - -	Coffee - - - 1 pint. Bread - - - 8 oz. Butter - - - 1 „	Bacon - - - 4½ oz. Haricot Beans - 12 „ Sago Pudding - 8 „ Tea - - - 1 pint.	Tea - - - 1 pint. Bread - - - 8 oz. Cheese - - - 1½ „ Butter - - - ½ „
Thursday - - -	Coffee - - - 1 pint. Bread - - - 8 oz. Butter - - - 1 „	Beef - - - 4½ oz. Potatoes - - 12 „ Plain Suet Pudding 8 „ Tea - - - 1 pint.	Tea - - - 1 pint. Bread - - - 8 oz. Cheese - - - 1½ „ Butter - - - ½ „
Friday - - -	Coffee - - - 1 pint. Bread - - - 8 oz. Butter - - - 1 „	Roast Mutton - 4½ oz. Potatoes - - 12 „ Currant Pudding - 8 „ Tea - - - 1 pint.	Tea - - - 1 pint. Bread - - - 8 oz. Cheese - - - 1½ „ Butter - - - ½ „
Saturday - - -	Coffee - - - 1 pint. Bread - - - 8 oz. Butter - - - 1 „	Roast Pork - - 4½ oz. Potatoes - - 12 „ Bread - - 4 „ Tea - - - 1 pint.	Tea - - - 1 pint. Bread - - - 8 oz. Cheese - - - 1½ „ Butter - - - ½ „

1oz. of dripping may be substituted for 1 oz. of butter for breakfast or supper at the option of the colonists.
Watercress, lettuce or radishes to be given in addition to the above rations during the summer months.

APPENDIX No. LXIII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE ON BEHALF OF THE APPRENTICESHIP AND SKILLED EMPLOYMENT ASSOCIATION, BY MISS M. M. DALGLISH, SECRETARY OF THE ASSOCIATION.

1. *Objects of the Association :—*

(1) To prevent boys and girls leaving the elementary schools from drifting into unskilled occupations, and later on into unemployment.

(2) To promote the thorough industrial training of boys and girls by apprenticeship and other methods, including arrangements for attendance at technical classes and trade schools.

2. *History of the movement.*—For some years past there has been a growing feeling in London that boys and girls leaving the elementary schools frequently waste time and opportunity by drifting from one employment to another and that the standard of industrial skill is suffering from lack of thorough industrial training. Various isolated bodies attempted to deal with this problem, but until 1902 there was no central organisation.

(a) *Formation of Central Agency, 1902.*—In 1902 a Central Industrial Bureau for the employment of girls was formed. It was found that the work could only be satisfactorily dealt with by the local committees who would undertake registry and investigation for their own districts in co-operation with the various societies already at work in these districts.

(b) *Extension of Local Committees.*—By 1905 nine local committees were affiliated to the Central Bureau.

(c) *Extension of Central Association, 1906.*—An increasing number of committees worked with equal success for both boys and girls. There was therefore a strong feeling on the part of the Committees that the work of the central body should be extended to boys, and as the result of this feeling, in April, 1906, the Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Association was formed with the object of extending the work amongst boys as well as girls.

(d) *Functions of the Central Association.*—The association is an agency, whereby all local agencies dealing with the skilled employment of boys and girls may be brought into co-operation with each other. Its functions are :—(1) To receive, co-ordinate, and supplement, when necessary, the industrial information obtained by the local committees and to give affiliated committees access to all such information. (2) To encourage the formation of new committees by acquainting their promoters with the methods of those already in existence, and by placing the industrial information already collected at their disposal. (3) To arouse public interest in the objects of the Association by organising meetings and conferences, and to issue such literature as may be useful, *e.g.*, pamphlets on trades, suggestions to new committees, etc.

(e) *Funds.*—This work is carried on entirely by voluntary subscriptions. Local committees pay an affiliation fee of £1 ls. per annum.

3. *Method of Work.*—The work of the association is carried on by means of local committees, working closely in touch with the schools and working boys' and girls' clubs within their districts. The committees collect industrial information, find suitable openings for boys and girls who apply to them for help, and make terms between the employer and apprentice or "learner" with a view to securing fair conditions to them and satisfactory workers to the employer.

There are at present seventeen committees affiliated to this association. Several new committees are in process of formation.

4. *Local Committees :—*

(1) Apprenticeship and Registry Committee Women's University Settlement, 44, Nelson Square, Blackfriars Road, S.E.

Began work in 1902 for normal children.
Before that dealt with cripples only.

(2) Union of Jewish Women, 59, Gloucester Place, W.

Began work 1903. Girls only.

(3) Employment Bureau, West Central Jewish Girls' Club, 8, Dean Street, Soho, W.

Began work 1903. Girls only.

(4) Skilled Employment Committee, 52, High Street, Stepney, E.

Began work, 1903.

(5) After-Care Committee, 76, Denison House, Vauxhall Bridge Road, S.W. Started 1905.

(6) Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Committee, Club Room, Oriel Place, Hampstead, N.W., 1904.

(7) Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Committee, St. Hilda's, Old Nichol Street, Bethnal Green, 1906.

(8) Trade Registry and Apprentice Committee, Maurice Hostel, 51 Herbert Street, Hoxton, N., 1903. Girls only.

(9) Holloway Skilled Employment Committee, 457, Holloway Road, N., 1907.

(10) Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Association, 37, Sutherland Avenue, Harrow Road, Paddington. Started 1904.

(11) Skilled Employment Committee, 51, Upper Baker Street, Marylebone, W. Started 1904.

(12) Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Committee, 131, Kennington Road, North Lambeth, S.E. Started 1907.

(13) Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Association, 274, King's Road, Chelsea. Started 1908.

(14) Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Association, 140, Church Street, Kensington, W. Started 1908.

(15) Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Committee, 38, Barclay Road, Walham Green, Fulham. Started 1908.

(16) Skilled Employment Committee, 19, Compton Terrace, Highbury Corner, Islington. Started 1908.

(17) Apprenticeship and Registry Committee, 17, Peckham Road, Camberwell, S.E. Started 1908.

(18) Corresponding Committees in the provinces :—

(1) Liverpool Registry and Apprenticeship Committee, Hon. Secretary, Miss Forman, 294, Netherfield Road North, Liverpool.

(2) Hove Skilled Employment Committee, Hon. Secretary, J. Freeman Dunn, Esq., 52, Lansdowne Place, Hove.

(3) Hastings C.S.U. Employment of Children's Committee, Hon. Secretary, Miss A. E. Newill, 2, Anglesea Terrace, St. Leonards-on-Sea.

(4) Oxford Council for the Industrial Advancement of Young People, Hon. Secretaries, Mrs. Denniston, 6, St. Margaret's Road, Oxford; Mrs. Lewis, 13, Rawlinson Road, Oxford.

(5) Cambridge Boys' Employment Registry, Hon. Secretary, Miss Jebb, 82, Regent Street, Cambridge.

(6) Cambridge Girls' Employment Registry, Hon. Secretary, Miss Darwin, 82, Regent Street Cambridge.

(7) Glasgow Apprenticeship Committee, Queen Margaret Settlement. Hon. Secretary, Miss Bannerman, 2, India Street, Glasgow.

(8) Edinburgh Apprenticeship Committee.

APPENDIX No. LXIII.—*Continued.*

5. *Supervision of the Apprentice or "Learner."*—The committees undertake, in addition to finding suitable work, to keep a careful watch on the progress of each boy or girl placed, a register being kept with reports at stated intervals. They endeavour also to arrange for attendance at technical or other evening or day trade schools.

6. *Need of the Work.*—The Parliamentary Report on the employment of elementary school children (1899, 205. 23, Part II. "Employment of children on leaving school" Upper Standards) shows that in London more than 53 per cent. of the boys took up unskilled work as errand boys, newsboys, and in miscellaneous occupations.

7. *Ignorance of Industrial Opportunities.*—The experience of the Skilled Employment Committees is that this large proportion is to a great extent due to the ignorance of the parents as to industrial conditions and to a want of realisation of the importance of some immediate sacrifice of wages during the time of learning a trade, as against the higher wage received where there is nothing to learn. In all districts, but especially in the poorer districts, there is a great ignorance on the part of the parents as to the openings for their children in skilled trades. In the case of the children of unskilled labourers this is especially marked.

8. *Haphazard Method of Finding Work and its Effects.*—It is a common occurrence for a boy or girl on reaching the age of fourteen to be sent out into the streets to look for notice of a vacancy, and when the place is found, there is generally no knowledge as to what the prospects are or if there is anything to be learnt. In many cases the parent does not even know where the child is working. Every committee has received applications from youths too old to learn a trade, whose careers testify to the need of apprenticeship work. It is quite common to find boys of eighteen and nineteen working as unskilled casual labourers and unable to improve their positions, who were considered promising boys when at school, and left from high standards; many of them have filled numbers of situations, some of which, from their nature, could not have been permanent. Meanwhile, the demand for skilled artisans in some trades seems to be largely met by country trained youths, notably in the building trade.

9. *Attitude of Employers.*—Experience has shown that on the whole employers prefer to take boys and girls on the recommendation of an accredited committee rather than to engage them in the casual method described above.

10. *Results of the Work.*—During 1906 the local committees have placed satisfactorily 354 boys and girls; in 1907 they placed 512 boys and girls besides giving advice and help in many other cases. The following list of trades to which boys have been apprenticed by this association shows that apprenticeship exists very generally, and under proper conditions, which the apprenticeship committees secure, might increase still further.

11. *Trades to which the boys were apprenticed :—*

Art metal work.
Bookbinding.
Brushmaking.
Cabinet-making.
Carpentry.
Coachbuilding.
Compository.
Display printing.
Drawing instrument making
Engineering (electrical).
Engineering (mechanical).
Fitting, turning and lift making
Glass and sign writing.
Gun stocking.
Lithographic draughtsmanship.
Lithographic printing.
Machine coopering.
Machine minding.

Microscope making.
Musical instrument making.
Photo process engraving.
Pianoforte making.
Plumbing.
Reader (printer's).
Seamanship.
Silver engraving.
Silversmithing.
Smithing.
Surgical instrument making.
Tinsmithing.
Upholstery.
Van building.

Physically-handicapped boys have been placed at :—

Basket making
Billiard table making.
Boot making.
Brush making.
Cabinet making.
Cricket ball stitching.
Gold blocking.
Machine minding.
Nursery gardening.
Pianoforte making.
School and church furniture making.
Tailoring.
Ticket writing and designing.
Watch making.

12. *Scope of the Work.*—The work of this association and the committees affiliated to it is too recent to afford data for evidence as to whether the opportunities for skilled employment are increasing, but the evidence of all the committees shows an increase both in the number of applicants and in the numbers placed and in the amount of industrial information collected whereby the work is made more efficient. There is need for a committee of this sort in every district in London in order that every boy or girl leaving school may be given the opportunity of learning a trade or entering a suitable occupation.

13. *Poor Law Boys.*—Only one local committee, the Stepney Skilled Employment Committee, has touched these, and this has dealt with two cases only.

Case 1.—Referred to the committee by a district visitor. A widow wished her boy, away at school through the Local Poor Law Guardians, and then aged fifteen, to return to her and take up good work, but had absolutely no knowledge of how to find an opening. The committee made enquiries but found that no public or private body took any responsibility whatever for the after career of boys who leave the Poor Law schools to return to their homes (except in one Poor Law union, that of Southwark when the "Southwark Boys' Aid Association" (1a, C Block, Rochester Buildings, Westminster, S.W.) places and looks after such boys).

The Stepney Skilled Employment Committee therefore undertook the case and placed this boy as an apprentice to engineers' pattern making, the Local Board of Guardians paying the premium at their request. The boy has worked well for two years, and so far justifies the experiment of apprenticing a Poor Law boy from his own home. Had he not been taken up by the committee he would certainly have drifted into the unskilled work of the neighbourhood.

Case 2.—The boy was placed at the Home for Little Boys, South Darenth, by the Local Board of Guardians till he was sixteen, when he wished to learn engineering, having had a little training at the school. Instead he was placed at unsatisfactory work by the school authorities. The committee are endeavouring to find an opening for him at engineering but at his present age, seventeen, it is now difficult.

APPENDIX No. LXIII. (A.)

Handed in by Miss M. M. Dalglish, Secretary Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Association.

SUGGESTIONS TO APPRENTICESHIP AND SKILLED EMPLOYMENT COMMITTEES NEWLY STARTING.

It is advisable:—

1. To consult the Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Association, 55, Denison House, S.W., and to avail yourself of the industrial information registered there.

2. To limit and strictly define your area, and where possible to co-operate with other Skilled Employment Committees.

3. To work, closely in connection with the schools within your area, so that the teachers may tell the parents and children of your committee, and send those children to you who require help in finding work. Keep in touch with all social workers in the district as far as possible. Work also in connection with evening and technical classes, arranging as far as possible that all children you place shall attend them.

4. Only to undertake to try and place a *boy on the personal application of the child and at least one of the parents.

5. To have a name and fixed address, and office hours, if possible, daily, and the full time of at least one responsible worker.

6. To have fixed weekly hours, out of school hours and out of ordinary working hours, for the parents and boys to make application for your help, and for the boys* who have been placed to report to you from time to time.

7. To adopt a definite method for taking down the application, and for the subsequent procedure:—

See Appendix A.—Directions for taking down of application and procedure.

See Appendix B.—Direction for finding a vacancy and procedure.

See Appendix C.—Directions for placing an apprentice or learner.

See Appendix D.—Useful books for reference.

8. To ascertain before starting work, the proper method of keeping a card-index of trade information, and to keep careful record of all information acquired.

9. To keep a register of all children placed, with stated dates for reports on progress.

10. To secure the services of a solicitor, to consult on legal points which may arise, and a doctor to advise on trades for delicate boys.

N.B.—A sum of about £10 will be needed to stock the office with necessary files, cards, directories, etc.

A certain expenditure on premiums (either by loan or gift) will be necessary, but committees are advised not to refrain from starting till a fund is raised, but to appeal on special cases.

TAKING DOWN OF APPLICATION, AND PROCEDURE.

A case-paper is recommended, but in any case the following questions should be asked:—

Full name.

Address.

Exact age.

Name of school and master.

Standard. Best subjects. Tastes and aptitudes.

Health and sight.

Father's name in full. Work and wages.

Mother's work.

Members of family and their work.

Lowest wages they can afford boy to start with.

Who sent the applicant.

Reference for boy*; (a) Schoolmaster; (b) former employer (if any).

For parents—two references, preferably landlord and employer.

Trade desired.

If any opening available through aid of relatives or friends.

Having taken down the application, take up references as to the character of the boy, and the ability of the parents to carry out their part of the contract of apprenticeship.

Arrange to see the father, do nothing without the full understanding of the parents. Home visit is advised by some committees.

N.B.—If parents' references are too bad, committees are advised not to have the boy* bound by indenture. If boy's* references are too bad, explain that he must earn a good character and come up again.

* These remarks apply throughout to girls also.

APPENDIX No. LXIII. (B.)

Handed in by Miss M. M. Dalglish, Secretary Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Association.

DIRECTIONS AS TO FINDING A VACANCY.

(a) Committees are advised to start by using the information about firms available at the Central Office.

(b) To fall back upon a list of recommended firms from the Trades Union Secretaries. For addresses of T. U. Secretaries, see Directory of Industrial Associations (Wyman & Sons, Fetter Lane, E.C.)

(c) As a last resort to consult the Post Office Directory.

(d) To write for openings in batches of about ten letters, or visit firms personally to enquire.

WHEN A VACANCY IS HEARD OF.

(a) Find out and arrange exact terms of trial, and what the boy will be taught.

(b) Make enquiry from Stubbs, the enquiry agent, as to respectability, financial soundness, and suitability for apprenticeship.

(c) Take up trade references for employer, *e.g.*, from (1) customers; (2) people who give him credit; (3) former apprentices.

APPENDIX No. LXIII. (C.)

Handed in by Miss M. M. Dalglish, Secretary Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Association.

DIRECTIONS FOR PLACING AN APPRENTICE OR LEARNER.

Having found a *prima facie* suitable opening—

(a) Where advisable, arrange for parent to take the boy up to see the employer.

(b) Arrange a trial of at least a month's duration, if possible with wages during that trial. *N.B.* Warn the parents that he must not leave during the trial with or without notice, but is to refer to you and you will give notice for him.

Note date of trial. (The month's trial should be included in the term of apprenticeship.)

(c) At the end of three weeks find out from boy, parents

and master if all are satisfied. If so bring draft of indentures before your committee.

Make out indentures and two copies. Boy and father come up to sign. Go through indentures explaining each clause. Take it up to employer to sign and get 2s. 6d. for stamp. Take it nearest inland revenue office to be stamped within thirty days.

(d) Arrange for technical classes with employer and boy.

(e) Ask boy up to report, and visit employer from time to time.

APPENDIX No. LXIII. (D.)

Handed in by Miss M. M. Dalglish, Secretary Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Association.

USEFUL BOOKS FOR REFERENCE.

"The Irregular Employment of Boys." Rev. Spencer J. Gibb. Christian Social Union (London branch), 1903.

"The Problem of Boy Work." Rev. Spencer J. Gibb, 1906.

"Studies of Boy Life." Ed. E. J. Urwick, M.A., London, 1904.

(Dent & Co.) (Chapter on "The Boy and his Work" by G. G. Cloete.) "The Boy in Industry." *The Toynbee Record*, June, 1905.

"The Apprenticeship Question." London County Council. No. 925, January, 1906.

"Apprenticeship in Relation to the Unemployed." Miss M. K. Bradby. Reprinted in "Methods of Social Advance." Macmillan, 1904.

"Industrial Prospects for Boys and Girls." Miss H. W. Jevons. *Charity Organisation Review*, September, 1906.

"Apprenticeship," by Miss B. Cunningham. *Charity Organisation Review*, July, 1905.

"Parliamentary Report on the Employment of School Children." 1899, 205-23. Part II. "Occupations taken up by Children on leaving School."

"Trades for London Boys." (Longmans, 39, Paternoster Row). Price 9d.

"The Work of an Apprenticeship Committee." Miss M. K. Bradby. *Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Association*. Price 1d.

"Report of an Enquiry into the Occupations of Girls after leaving the Elementary Schools." Liverpool Women's Industrial Council, 8 Sandon Terrace, Liverpool.

"Industrial Training in Public Elementary Schools." Edric Bayley, London County Council. Cornell & Sons, 63, Borough Road, Southwark.

"Industrial Democracy." (Part II. Chap. X. "The Entrance to a Trade." Sidney and Beatrice Webb. (Longmans.)

"Life and Labour of the People." (Occasional Chapters.) Charles Booth. (Macmillan.)

"Report of the Mosely Industrial Commission, 1903."

"Report of the Mosely Educational Commission, 1904."

London County Council Conference of Teachers, 1906. Report of Proceedings. No. 948. Papers on Day Trade Schools for Boys and Girls, by S. Hicks, Mrs. Oakeshott, Miss Smith, etc.

Law Relating to Apprentices, E. Austin (Reeves & Turner) Chancery Lane.

Reports on Trades. *Women's Industrial News*.

Report of London County Council. Enquiry into Apprenticeship in Building Trades, 1899.

Apprenticeship for Invalid Children, Miss M. K. Bradby.

"Work and Thrift." Mrs. Oakeshott, *Charity Organisation Society*. Price 1d.

"Skilled Employment Committees." J. Parsons, *Charity Organisation Society*. Price 1d.

PATTERN FORM OF INDENTURE AS USED BY LOCAL COMMITTEES.

THIS INDENTURE made the 20th day of March, 1907, between John Smith of 1, Cross Street, London, E. (hereinafter called "the Master") of the first part Thomas Jones of 2, Bell Street, London, E., of the second part William, Son of the said Thomas Jones (hereinafter called "the Apprentice") of the third part and Henry Brown, Chairman of the Apprenticeship Committee (who and whose successors for the time being in the said office are hereinafter referred to and included in the expression "the Chairman" of the fourth part WHEREAS the Apprentice has agreed to bind himself and the Master has agreed to accept him as an Apprentice upon the conditions hereinafter mentioned AND WHEREAS the Chairman has at the request of the said Thomas Jones (hereinafter called "the Parent") agreed to advance out of funds belonging to the said Committee the premium required for such apprenticeship the same being charity moneys AND WHEREAS by an Agreement of even date herewith and made between the Parent of the one part and the Chairman of the other part the Parent has agreed to repay to the Chairman the £20 so advanced by weekly instalments as therein mentioned NOW THIS INDENTURE WITNESSETH that in consideration of the sum of £10 by the Chairman to the Master paid on the execution of these presents and of the agreement to pay the further sum of £10 hereinafter contained and of the covenants and agreements entered into by the Parent and Apprentice HE the Master hereby covenants with the Parent and Apprentice and also as a separate covenant with the Chairman in manner following that is to say that he the Master will take and receive the Apprentice as his Apprentice from the day of the date of these presents for the term of five years and also will during the said term to the best of his knowledge power and ability teach and instruct or cause to be taught and instructed the Apprentice in the trade or business of Engineer's Machinist and in all things incident or relating

thereto AND that he the Master shall and will allow the Apprentice such leave of absence as may be reasonable for the purpose of attending technical classes of instruction and that the Apprentice shall not suffer any diminution of wages on that account AND that he the Master will pay to the Apprentice wages at the rates and in manner following that is to say during the first year 6s. per week; during the second year 8s. per week; during the third year 10s. per week; during the fourth year 15s. per week during the fifth year 20s. per week AND that he the Master will not assign the Apprentice to another Master without the previous consent in writing of the Chairman AND IT IS HEREBY AGREED that if the Apprentice shall absent himself from work without just cause the Master will on the request of the Chairman take all such proceedings at law or otherwise to compel the attendance of the Apprentice as the Chairman may require the Chairman in such event repaying any Court Fees the Master may have expended for this purpose AND IT IS HEREBY FURTHER AGREED that if the Master shall during the first two and a half years of the said term well and truly observe and perform the covenants and stipulations on his part herein contained then the Chairman shall upon the expiration of such two and a half years pay to the Master out of the funds of the said Committee the further sum of £10 AND in consideration of the covenants and agreements hereinbefore contained on the part of the Master the Parent doth hereby place and bind the Apprentice and the Apprentice with the consent of the Parent doth hereby place and bind himself with and to the Master during the term aforesaid during all which time the apprentice shall faithfully honestly and diligently serve him the Master and obey and perform all his lawful and reasonable commands and requirements and shall not do any damage or injury to the Master or his goods or knowingly suffer the same to be done without acquainting him therewith He shall not waste the goods of his said

APPENDIX No. LXIII, (D).—*Continued.*

Master nor shall he buy or sell during his said apprenticeship. He shall not absent himself from his Master's service unlawfully but shall in all things conduct himself as an honest and faithful Apprentice ought to do AND for the considerations aforesaid the Parent doth hereby covenant and agree with the Master that the Apprentice shall faithfully honestly and diligently serve the Master as his Apprentice during the term aforesaid AND ALSO that he the Parent will at his own expense provide the Apprentice with sufficient board clothing and lodging and all other necessities during the said term AND ALSO that the Apprentice shall work in his said Master's business from the hour of 6.30 in the morning to the hour of 5.30 in the evening during the summer season and from the hour of 7.30 in the morning to the hour of 5.30 in the evening during the winter season but in case the Apprentice shall be required to work before or after the said hours such work shall be considered overtime and shall be paid for at a rate proportionate to the wages then payable to the Apprentice and in no case shall be bound to work overtime contrary to his express desire PROVIDED ALWAYS and it is further agreed by and between the parties to these presents that if and when the Chairman or some person acting on his behalf shall give notice in writing to the Master that default has been made by the Parent in repaying the premium by the weekly instalments before referred to the Master shall deduct from the wages of the Apprentice thenceforth to become due the following amounts that is to say during the first year of the said apprenticeship the sum of 3s. 6d. per week during the second year of the said apprenticeship 4s. 6d. per week during the third year per week and thereafter during the said term the sum of per week until the whole of the moneys repayable shall have been repaid and the Master shall and will from time

to time on demand pay the moneys so deducted to the Chairman or as he may direct AND IT IS HEREBY FURTHER AGREED that in case the Apprentice or the Master shall die during the continuance of the term in the former case the Master and in the latter case the executors or administrators of the Master shall repay to the Chairman a proportionate part of the premium paid regard being had to the time for which the apprenticeship shall then have to run AND FURTHER that in case of the breach non-performance or non-observance by the Master of any of the covenants or provisions herein contained or if it shall appear to the Chairman that from any cause whatever either the Master or the Apprentice is unable to fulfil the conditions on his part herein contained then the Master shall on demand repay to the Chairman a proportionate part of the premium paid regard being had to the time for which the apprenticeship shall then have to run as liquidated damages exclusive of any legal claim on the part of the Apprentice or the Parent on account of such breach non-performance or non-observance and the Chairman shall then be at liberty if he shall think fit forthwith to cancel this Indenture.

IN WITNESS whereof the said parties to these presents have hereunto set their hands and seals the day and year first before written.

SIGNED SEALED AND DELIVERED by the above-named JOHN SMITH, THOMAS JONES, WILLIAM JONES, and HENRY BROWN, in the presence of ABEL THORNE.

JOHN SMITH,
THOMAS JONES,
WILLIAM JONES,
HENRY BROWN.

APPENDIX No.—LXIV.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY MRS. G. F. HILL, HON. SECRETARY OF THE SCHOOL OF SOCIOLOGY AND SOCIAL ECONOMICS AS TO THE TRAINING OF RELIEVING OFFICERS.

1. The first active steps to provide lectures for relieving officers and others practically interested in the administration of the Poor Law, on subjects bearing upon the duties of their office, were taken in 1903, when a meeting of guardians, clerks to guardians and relieving officers, was convened by Sir William Chance, Sir William Bousfield, Mr. Aveling, Mr. Millward and Mr. Vallance. At this meeting a resolution was passed affirming the desirability of instituting such courses of instruction, and a committee was formed to carry it into effect. The Metropolitan Relieving Officers' Association elected three of its members and its hon. secretary to serve on this committee, which shortly afterwards agreed to become a "Special Committee on Poor Law Education" of the School of Sociology and Social Economics, sending to the Executive Committee of the School three representatives, two of whom were to be relieving officers.

2. In the autumn of 1903 a pioneer course of lectures was given by Mr. A. F. Vulliamy, late clerk to the Ipswich Guardians, and the interest shown in the experiment encouraged the committee, with the experience thus gained, to arrange for a series of courses, of which the subjects would very fairly cover the main duties which relieving officers are called upon to fulfil in their daily work. At first the subject of relieving officers' books and accounts was omitted, as one in which the average relieving officer would not admit his need of instruction, but later on this was included for the benefit of the quite inexperienced, or those who are as yet only aspirants to office.

3. The other subjects treated are General Duties of a relieving officer, the Lunacy Acts, Maintenance and Desertion, and elementary Settlement, and the practice is now established of providing a complete set of the

five courses in preparation for each examination. (In Appendix A is set out a complete list of the lectures given, with details as to attendance.)

4. It may, of course, be urged that the numbers attending were very small as compared with the total number of officers employed in the Metropolis, but there should be taken into account the fact that the idea is a new one and only likely to appeal to the more strenuous among the officers whose work has become more or less a matter of routine, and who feel their own position to be secure. But the very high average of attendances made, especially in the first half-dozen courses, shows the zeal with which the select few took advantage of the opportunity offered. Certificates of attendance are given to all those who make not less than four attendances out of a possible total of six, and the proportion of those granted for the minimum number is very small, a most creditable result when it is remembered that all these men have already done a day's work, and in many cases live at a distance necessitating considerable expenditure of both time and money.

5. In the later courses the attendance has fallen off somewhat, but this is almost inevitable in the case of lectures of which the subject matter appeals to a strictly limited public, which does not undergo any great change from year to year.

6. In February, 1905, a public meeting was held, with Lord Stanley of Alderley in the chair, at which there was a good attendance, not only of Londoners, but also of people from the country interested in Poor Law administration.

APPENDIX No. LXIV.—*Continued.*

7. The following resolution was carried *nem. con.*:—"That with a view to improving Poor Law administration this meeting approves of the efforts of the Special Committee on Poor Law Education (School of Sociology and Social Economics) to introduce a system of certificates to be given after examination to relieving officers, assistant relieving officers, and others intending to enter the Poor Law Service."

8. After this meeting, much serious consideration was given to the examination question, and as information reached the Committee that other associations were also considering the matter, an attempt was made to bring together an informal conference on the subject. The proposal, however, proved impracticable, and finally the decision was taken to hold an examination under the auspices of the School. The tentative nature of the experiment was fully recognised, and also the fact that the worth of the certificate would depend entirely on the respect inspired by the examiners in the minds of the public.

9. Two examinations have now been held, the first in March, 1906, and the second a year later, while the third is arranged for February, 1908. The following is a list of the subjects and examiners:—

General duties of a relieving officer (Mr. H. F. Aveling, Clerk to the Guardians, Paddington (1906); Mr. R. Clay, Clerk to the Guardians, Shoreditch (1907).

Relieving officers' books and accounts (Mr. A. A. Millward, Clerk to the Guardians, St. Pancras).

The Lunacy Acts (Mr. Joshua Scholefield, barrister-at-law).

Elementary Settlement (Mr. Joshua Scholefield).

Maintenance and Desertion (Mr. R. A. Leach, Clerk to the Guardians, Rochdale).

An essay on some subject connected with the work of a Relieving Office (Mr. H. G. Willink, M.A., sometime Chairman, Bradfield Board of Guardians). (*See App. No. LXIV (A) and (B).*)

10. The committee has decided that except under special circumstances no one shall act as examiner more than three years in succession, and in order to give effect to this decision without causing any breach of continuity, two changes have been made for the forthcoming examination, when Mr. H. W. Wallis Grain, Assistant Auditor of the South-Eastern Counties Audit District, will examine in Accounts, and Mr. T. Cutter, Clerk to the Woolwich Union, in the Lunacy Acts and Settlement.

11. A preliminary qualifying examination was also instituted to test the general education of candidates other than relieving officers and assistants, unless they could produce a certificate of some recognised educational body, or other satisfactory testimony as to their efficiency. This has, however, now been discontinued; it was valuable as a protest against the idea that anybody, however illiterate, is a fit person for the post of relieving officer, and its abandonment was due to practical difficulties, and not to any modification of the view as to the need for setting up a standard of efficiency in this respect, for which the main examination was found to provide an adequate test.

12. The first examination was held in London only, and the number of candidates who sat for it was 38; 32 of these were relieving officers of different grades, including assistants, the remaining six were, or had been in the Poor Law service in other capacities. It was agreed that no candidate should be granted a certificate who did not pass in the papers on General Duties and Accounts, and at least one other subject (not being the essay), a high standard to be required in the case of this minimum. Twenty-eight candidates gained certificates, 19 in all six subjects, seven in five subjects, and two in four.

13. The second examination was held in Liverpool, as well as in London, this course being made possible by the co-operation of Professor Gonner and Mr. D'Aeth, of the School of Social Science (Liverpool University), who kindly undertook the whole of the responsibility and work of the local centre. Thirty-three candidates entered for the examination, but only 30 actually did the papers, seven of whom sat at Liverpool; 19 gained certificates, 11 in all six subjects, five in five, one in four, and two in three subjects. The occupations of the candidates were more

varied than before: 13 were relieving officers of different grades, 11 more were in the Poor Law service in other capacities, including that of hall porter and baker, three were outside the service, though one had had some experience of a relieving officer's work, and was among the successful candidates, together with the baker. Four relieving officers failed, and of these only one seems to have had experience of normal service. Appendix B gives the regulations, time-table, and examination papers.

The holding of the examination at Liverpool marked a great step in advance, as it roused country officers to consider the possibility of entering for the examination, and the consequent demand for facilities has made the Committee arrange for ten more such centres. It has also brought in many demands for tuition by correspondence to compensate for the lack of lectures, though in London by no means all the successful candidates have availed themselves of the classes provided. Perhaps one of the most satisfactory features is the way in which successful candidates come to the lectures after their examination.

14. In Liverpool the School of Social Science has since taken up the provision of lectures; the opinion was unanimously expressed that any duplicating of examinations is much to be deprecated, but it would be impossible for the School of Sociology to make itself responsible for teaching outside London, so that it welcomes any arrangements that can be made for the latter locally. In Liverpool an Advisory Committee was formed for the work, consisting of the chairmen and clerks of the four local Boards of Guardians, and three neighbouring ones, together with Professor Gonner and Mr. D'Aeth, as representatives of the School of Social Science. Appendix D* gives the list of lectures arranged, for which 37 have entered their names, the average attendance being 31. Such a result implies a considerable amount of work on the part of Mr. D'Aeth, who acts as secretary, but nothing is more satisfactory than the way in which the idea is taken up by the men themselves, when once it is suggested to them. In London last year candidates came up every evening from places as far off as Watford, Frimley and Purley, but two of those who sat at Liverpool took the three necessary journeys from the middle of Staffordshire some miles from a station, getting home again at 3 a.m. One of these two wrote an account of the examination in the "Poor Law Officers' Journal," which gives such a good idea of the spirit in which the men take it that I have ventured to add it as Appendix E.* I am glad to say that his fears of failure were not realised. Another candidate, also not from a London Union, wrote: "There is no doubt but that the scheme is an advantage to the service, because I know from observation that the last examination has done more good in this Union than you might possibly imagine. Amongst officers who were not candidates, as well as the candidates, there was much talk and edifying discussion created, and in this respect alone I consider the scheme a success." I have noted that this was not a London officer, as the expression of opinion might not be thought to be quite so spontaneous from that source, as I know one or two of the most strenuous supporters of the movement have done a great deal to forward it among their fellow members of the Metropolitan Relieving Officers' Association. Another point which bears on the attitude of the men themselves towards the matter is the way in which senior officers have come forward to be examined, largely as an encouragement to others to follow their example; three Superintendent Relieving Officers have gained certificates, and of the others it is by no means only the younger ones who have offered themselves as candidates. In one of the North of England towns, where we were arranging for a "local centre," a Superintendent Relieving Officer, when consulted, said at once it was a very good idea, and he should certainly take the examination himself to encourage others to go in.

15. Another very satisfactory piece of evidence of the value set by the men themselves on the teaching is the request that was made to us quite spontaneously a month or two ago by the Assistant Master of a London workhouse; he said many junior officials had

* Not printed.

APPENDIX No. LXIV.—*Continued.*

expressed a desire for lectures on Workhouse Masters' Books and Accounts, and asked whether we could not provide such a course. Twelve lectures have accordingly been arranged, which are to be given by Mr. John Green, Master of the St. Pancras Workhouse, and we have already received demands for an examination to follow the course, and we hope to be able to comply with them. (See Appendix F.*) [Fifty-eight persons attended the first lectures, of whom twenty-six had taken course tickets.]

16. These requests are not brought to us from any wish to spare themselves, for as in the case of the relieving officers mentioned above, this Assistant Master has spent time and trouble most ungrudgingly in efforts to make the course known and to persuade men to take it; I see, too, from a letter of his in the paper that it is only a preliminary to demands for other courses.

17. I was asked the other day whether there was not a difficulty in getting the men to pay fees, and I can honestly state in reply that in this the Poor Law section of our students set an excellent and much-needed example to their wealthier fellows; they are

punctilious in enclosing stamped and addressed envelopes for reply, and pay the fees prescribed without a murmur (5s. for the examination and 2s. 6d. for each course of six lectures). As regards both the fees and matters affecting the standard of work to be demanded to gain a certificate, the relieving officer members of committee are the sternest opponents of the smallest proposal to lower the requirements.

18. In conclusion, I wish to emphasise the fact that any success to which we can lay claim is due to the close co-operation of persons actually engaged in Poor Law administration. Without the help, most ungrudgingly given, of those who have acted as lecturers and examiners, the work could not, of course, have been done at all. But more than this, the scheme in all its details has been formulated by the Special Committee on Poor Law Education. Without their expert advice there would have been much more of that learning by the bitter experience of failure, which makes progress so slow; and without an advisory committee of such a nature I am convinced there would have been an entire failure to inspire the officers themselves with that confidence which alone can induce them voluntarily to avail themselves of the education offered.

* Not printed.

APPENDIX No. LXIV. (A).

Handed in by Mrs. G. F. Hill.

LIST OF COURSES GIVEN WITH NAME OF LECTURER AND DETAILS AS TO ATTENDANCE.

Title of Course and Name of Lecturer.	Number of Persons in Attendance.	Average Attendance.	Percentage who gained Attendance Certificates.
A Relieving Officer's Duty (A. F. Vulliamy) . . .	38	19	42
Lunacy Acts (S. Davey)	24	17	79
Law of Settlement (A. F. Vulliamy)	36	28	81
Maintenance and Desertion (S. Davey)	31	23	84
„ „ (2nd course, S. Davey)	33	22	73
General Duties of a R.O. (H. W. Wallis Grain)	48	33	65
Law of Settlement (S. Davey)	37	28	78
Maintenance and Desertion (S. Davey)	39	27	69
R.O.'s Books and Accounts (H. A. Craig)	25	15	48
Lunacy Acts (H. W. Wickham)	22	16	77
Maintenance and Desertion (H. W. Wickham)	21	13	52
Lunacy Acts (H. W. Wickham)	22	9	23
Law of Settlement (J. Squire Hodges)	39	23	51
General Duties of a R.O. (H. List)	31	25	74
R.O.'s Books and Accounts (H. A. Craig)	29	18	55

N.B.—Each course consisted of six lectures, and attendance certificates are given when not less than four attendances have been made.

APPENDIX No. LXIV.—(B.)

Handed in by Mrs. G. F. Hill.

SCHOOL OF SOCIOLOGY AND SOCIAL ECONOMICS,
63, 64, Denison House, 296, Vauxhall Bridge Road, S.W.

EXAMINATION IN POOR LAW SUBJECTS.

The School of Sociology and Social Economics has arranged to hold an examination in Poor Law subjects in February next, for relieving officers and others who desire to present themselves as candidates. The papers will be set by experts in the different subjects, and certificates, signed by the examiners, will be issued in accordance with the results of the examination. The ground covered by the papers will be strictly confined to that part of the subject with which relieving officers should be conversant in their daily work.

Those candidates who gained certificates in a previous examination, but were not successful in all subjects, will be allowed to take the papers in the subjects in which they failed, without re-entering for the whole examination.

The fee for the examination, or any part of it, is 5s., payable in advance to the hon. secretary.

The examination will be held in some central position in London, Liverpool, and certain other towns, of which a separate list will be furnished; in each case candidates will be informed of the precise address, as the arrangement will vary according to the number of entries.

Intending candidates should send in their names on the special forms, which may be had on application to the hon. secretary; these must be returned, duly filled up, not later than February 3rd.

The list of subjects, with the names of the examiners, is appended, and also a time table.

LIST OF SUBJECTS.

General Duties of a Relieving Officer. Examiner: Mr. Robert Clay, Clerk to the Guardians, Shoreditch.

Relieving Officers' Accounts. Examiner: Mr. H. W. Wallis Grain, of the Middle Temple and South-Eastern Circuit, Barrister-at-law, Assistant Auditor of the South-Eastern Counties Audit District.

The Lunacy Acts and Settlement (elementary). Examiner: Mr. T. Cutter, Barrister-at-law, Clerk to the Woolwich Union.

The Law of Maintenance and Desertion. Examiner: Mr. R. A. Leach, Barrister-at-law, Clerk to the Guardians, Rochdale, author of "Education of Pauper Children," "Criticism and Analysis of Valuation Bill, 1904," "The Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905," etc.

An essay or paper on some subject connected with the work of relieving officers. Examiner: Mr. H. G. Willink, M.A., sometime Chairman of the Bradford Board of Guardians.

TIME TABLE.

Thursday, February 20th, 7—10 p.m. General duties of a relieving officer.

Tuesday, February 25th, 7—8.15 p.m. Relieving officers' accounts. 8.15—10 p.m. Lunacy Acts and Settlement.

Thursday, February 27th, 7—8.30 p.m. Maintenance and Desertion. 8.30—10 p.m. Essay.

W. CHANCE, Chairman of Special Committee on Poor Law Education.

M. HILL, Hon. Secretary to Executive Committee.

H. A. CRAIG, Hon. Secretary to Special Committee on Poor Law Education.

All communications respecting the examination should be addressed to the hon. secretary, Mrs. G. F. Hill, at 10, Kensington Mansions, Earl's Court, S.W.

SPECIMEN EXAMINATION PAPERS.

I.

GENERAL DUTIES OF A RELIEVING OFFICER.

TIME ALLOWED: 3 HOURS.

1. Mention two of the principal statutes on which the English Poor Law system is based, and describe briefly the conditions which led to their being passed.

2. In what various ways may relief be legally given—(a) By the Board of Guardians. (b) By a relieving officer between the meetings of the Guardians?

3. What particulars concerning applicants for relief must the relieving officer enter in the application and report book? Illustrate your answer by giving particulars as to an imaginary applicant for relief. (Note.—The order in which the headings and particulars are given is of no consequence.)

4. What is the object of the question, "How long resident in the union without relief or interruption"?

5. What is the meaning of the term "liable relatives" and who are "liable relatives"?

6. What is the difference between a settlement and a status of removability? Give a brief description of what is meant by each expression.

7. What is the difference between the Outdoor Relief Prohibitory Order and the Outdoor Relief Regulation Order?

8. When is it legal to relieve able-bodied men out of the workhouse, and what are the conditions attaching to such relief?

9. Define the legal meaning of the term "destitution."

10. On whom does the responsibility rest in the first instance of giving relief to a person on his becoming destitute?

11. What course should a relieving officer adopt when a person to whom the Guardians have offered admission to the workhouse declines to come in?

12. Who is responsible for the burial of destitute persons dying outside the workhouse?

13. What main principle should relieving officers bear in mind in dealing with applicants for relief?

HENRY F. AVELING, Examiner.

II.

RELIEVING OFFICERS' ACCOUNTS.

TIME ALLOWED: $\frac{3}{4}$ -HOUR.

1. What are the titles of the principal books of account required for the duties of a relieving officer?

2. Enter under the prescribed headings on the accompanying form marked A, particulars of a typical case of application for relief—the applicant being an able-bodied man, sick or temporarily disabled, with wife, and four children under 16.

3. Assume that an allowance of outdoor relief, in money and kind, has been granted, for a specified period, by the Guardians; and enter the particulars in the form marked B.

4. Complete the entry for four weeks, cross-cast the sums paid, and enter the total in the proper column.

APPENDIX No. LXIV. (B)—*Continued.*

5. Enter two other typical cases in Form B, of relief granted and paid, viz.:—(a) To an adult male with wife and three children on account of sickness of his wife and one of his children; (b) to a widow with two dependent children under 16.

6. Cross-cast the sums and enter the total, then complete the entries of the totals at the foot of the page.

7. Assume that you have paid relief to a number of persons residing in your own district, but each having an ascertained settlement in some other parish or union—the relief so paid to be recouped by the Guardians of the parish to which the recipients respectively belong, how is this class of poor designated?

8. In which part of your out-relief list would you make the entry of your payments to this class?

9. Mention (in your own words) a regulation to be strictly observed by the relieving officer before making any entry to his credit in his out-relief list or other account book.

10. Enter on the accompanying form, marked C, the account of the first week's receipts and expenditure. In doing so, assume (a) that for that week's expenditure you have received from the Guardians a sum of £10; (b) that a sum of £4 was received by you in that week from some other source on behalf of the Guardians; and that you forthwith paid the latter sum to the treasurer to the Guardians; (c) that you have been required to expend a sum of £1 10s. in connection with the conveyance of a lunatic to an asylum.

11. When do the half-years for closing the accounts terminate?

12. What duty devolves on the relieving officer at the end of each half-year in respect of names entered in the indoor-relief list, of persons whose names have also been entered in the out-relief list in the course of the half-year?

13. What has the relieving officer to do, at the end of each half-year, in respect of persons—whose names appear in the district medical relief book—who have not received any other than medical relief during the half-year last closed?

A. A. MILLWARD, Examiner.

III.

LUNACY ACTS AND SETTLEMENT.

TIME ALLOWED: 2½ HOURS.

1. What is meant by the following expression used in the Lunacy Act, 1890:—"A justice being a judicial authority under this Act"?

2. A person living within the district of a relieving officer is not a pauper and is not wandering at large, but is deemed to be a lunatic and is neglected by a relative in whose charge he is. Is any duty cast upon the relieving officer, and, if so, what are the proper steps to be taken?

3. A person within the district of a relieving officer is not a pauper and is not wandering at large, but is deemed to be a lunatic and is not under proper care and control, and the relieving officer is satisfied that it is necessary for the welfare of the alleged lunatic that, before any formal proceedings under the Act can be taken, the alleged lunatic should be placed under care and control. What, if anything, ought the relieving officer to do?

4. If it comes to the knowledge of a relieving officer that a pauper resident within his district is deemed to be a lunatic but the medical officer has given to the relieving officer no notice in respect of such pauper, is it incumbent on the relieving officer to take any, and, if any, what steps with respect to such pauper?

5. A pauper lunatic has recently been sent to institution for lunatics from the X Union. The lunatic has no settlement in that union and his settlement cannot be ascertained. Does his maintenance become a charge on the X Union? If not, what steps should the X Union take, and by what officer should proceedings be taken?

6. Define settlement by renting.

7. A B went to reside in the Z Union in July, 1902, and has continued to have his residence and his house in that union until the present time. On May 1st, 1905, he was admitted into a hospital for consumptive people outside the Z Union, and remained there till the end of June in the same year, when he went to a convalescent home also outside the Z Union. He remained there until July 29th, 1905, when he returned the present time. He has now become chargeable. Has A B acquired a settlement by residence in the Z Union under Sec. 34 of the Divided Parishes Act, 1876? Give the reasons for your answer.

8. J S lived in A, a parish in X Union, for nine months. He afterwards lived in B, a parish in Y Union, for four months, but six months ago returned to A and has now become chargeable. Say whether in your opinion he has acquired a status of irremovability in the X Union, and give reasons.

9. A lived in one parish in Y Union for six months and then for a period of eleven months lived in a different parish in the same union. Say whether in your opinion he has acquired a status of irremovability and give reasons.

10. J. S is settled in the X Union. Last August he and his wife came to live in the Y Union, and he died there six weeks ago. The widow has become chargeable. Say whether the Guardians of the Y Union may forthwith obtain an order for her removal to her place of settlement, and give reasons.

JOSHUA SCHOLEFIELD, Examiner.

IV.

MAINTENANCE AND DESERTION.

TIME ALLOWED: 1½ HOURS.

1. Upon whom and under what statutes may Justices make orders for maintenance of pauper relations?

2. In an application for an order for maintenance state what must be proved on behalf of the Guardians: (1) In respect of the pauper; (2) in respect of the relative against whom the order is applied for.

3. (a) Under what circumstances is a husband released from his liability to maintain his wife? (b) Do such circumstances release him also from liability in respect of the maintenance of the children remaining in the wife's custody?

4. To what extent is a man liable for the maintenance of children his wife had at the time of his marriage?

5. A is possessed of property in respect of which he has made a will. In the will no provision is made for his wife or children. At his death they are destitute and become chargeable. Can they or the Guardians maintain an action for maintenance against the executors or administrators of A's estate?

6. Where a pauper is possessed of property—or dies possessed of property—what proceedings may the Guardians take for the recovery of the relief to the pauper?

7. A, whose whereabouts are known, deserts and neglects his family. His behaviour brings them, or some of them, chargeable to the Guardians. Have the Guardians a choice as to the proceedings that may be taken against them? If so, state what.

8. Where proceedings are taken under the Vagrancy Act, within what period must they be taken:—(1) Against persons who desert their families; (2) against persons who neglect their families.

9. May proceedings under the Vagrancy Act be legally taken against a deserter or neglecter of family by the relieving officer without the consent of the Guardians? If so, under what circumstances would you say that the relieving officer is justified in taking proceedings without the previous consent of the Guardians, and under what circumstances is he not so justified?

10. State reasons which may be given for and against the making of maintenance orders on persons of small earnings. Say which reasons you endorse, and why.

R. A. LEACH, Examiner.

APPENDIX No. LXIV. (B)—*Continued*.

EXAMINATION PAPERS.

V.

ESSAY.

TIME ALLOWED: 1½ HOURS.

Write an essay on *one* of the following subjects. (N.B.—No credit will be given for more than one subject.)

(A) "A relieving officer should not only carry out his bare legal duties, but should endeavour to prevent

persons from becoming, or continuing to be, paupers." Examine this statement, giving reasons for your opinion, with illustrations.

(B) Medical relief has been called the "open door to pauperism." What is the meaning of this, and what can be done to counteract the tendency?

(C) "The fuller a relieving officer fills his report book, the shorter will be his list." Explain and comment on this.

H. G. WILLINK, Examiner.

APPENDIX No. LXV.

**CORRESPONDENCE AS TO AREAS AND THE AUTHORITY FOR POOR LAW PURPOSES
BETWEEN THE COMMISSION AND MESSRS. STAFFORD HOWARD AND F. A. HYETT.**

Scotland House,
Victoria Embankment,
Westminster, S.W.
4th February, 1908.

SIR,—

I am desired by Lord George Hamilton, the Chairman of the above-named Commission, to inform you that in the course of their inquiry, the Commission have had to consider proposals which would involve a change both in the area and the authority for Poor Law purposes. The area generally suggested in place of the Union is the County and County Borough. Those advocating this change would associate a Central County Administration over institutions (to be exercised through a Statutory Committee), with local Relief Committees, who would, in their respective locality, hear and adjudicate upon the applications made to them, such Committees to be under the control of the County Authority.

It is also suggested that each County Authority should frame, subject to Local Government Board approval, a scheme for the sub-division of the county into the necessary local areas. Those who would advocate this plan contend that it would be possible under it to readjust the Poor Law Relief Centres to existing conditions which have in certain counties greatly changed since 1835, and at the same time to so fit in Poor Law administration with rural and urban divisions of councils as to give county government a symmetry and a convenience it now lacks.

As you are known to have given great attention to subjects of this character, the Chairman would be much obliged if you would be so kind as to give him your views upon this scheme or any other which you might wish to substitute for it.

I am, Sir,

Your obedient Servant,

(Sgd.) R. G. DUFF, Secretary.

Office of Woods,

1, Whitehall Place,

London, S.W.,

10/2/1908.

SIR,—

In reply to your letter of the 4th inst., asking me on behalf of Lord George Hamilton to give him my views on certain proposals which have been put before the Poor Law Commission, I beg to say that it is now so long since I have been able to take any active share in Poor Law administration that I am afraid that my opinion is really worth but little, and I should not wish to be considered as having any special or expert knowledge on the subject.

But so far as I am able to form an opinion, I should approve the proposal to associate a central authority for each county, elected for the purpose, with local relief committees to administer the Poor Law; but I think that each district should, if the cost of the indoor poor is paid for by the whole county, be made liable for the greater part of the out-relief, so as to check any disposition to excess in this direction.

It would certainly be an advantage if, where local government areas at present overlap, they could be adjusted, and so fit in the Poor Law administration with rural and urban districts.

I should like to see local relief committees acting in concert with the organisation of local charity, so that deserving cases might receive assistance from the latter outside the Poor Law altogether, and in a more efficient and satisfactory way.

I am, Sir,

Yours faithfully,

E. STAFFORD HOWARD.

R. G. Duff, Esq.

Painswick House,

Stroud.

SIR,—

I must apologise for not having replied to your letter of the 4th inst. before this, but I have been rather seriously unwell.

I am afraid that I cannot throw much light on the important subject on which you have done me the honour to ask my opinion. I have had no recent experience in the administration of the Poor Law. My present personal knowledge of local affairs is derived mainly from County Council and Education Committee work (with that of their innumerable sub-committees), and from Quarter Sessions.

I sat as an ex-officio or as a co-opted guardian from 1877 to 1898, and attended the Board meetings with regularity. The evils of the present Poor Law system were then apparent enough, and I have reason to believe that they have since become more aggravated. The scheme for removing them, outlined in your letter of the 4th inst., appears to me to have much to commend it.

The substitution of the county or county borough for the union as the administrative area possesses a double advantage:—

- (1) It utilises existing public bodies (*i.e.*, County Councils, Borough Councils, Education Committees, Visitors of Lunatic Asylums, etc., etc.) experienced in the duties which they will be called upon to perform.
- (2) It facilitates classification of the destitute in accordance, more or less, with the causes of the destitution, and so enables them to be relieved by entirely different methods.

APPENDIX No. LXV.—*Continued.*

The suggestion made in the second paragraph of your letter—namely, that each County Authority should sub-divide its county into local areas, is almost a necessary corollary to the scheme. It is impossible to offer an opinion as to the approximate size of such areas without knowing something more of the constitution of the Local Relief Committees which would serve them. This constitution would be one of the difficulties of the scheme. I think they should be nominated (or at least largely nominated) by the Central Authority, otherwise the friction between the Local and Central Authorities would be great. It would not disappear by nomination (I am speaking from experience gained from the management of Council Schools), but it would not be serious. What would have to be guarded against in the creation of these Local Committees would be the continuance of Boards of Guardians under a new name, who would carry on the traditions of the present Poor Law system. Indeed, however constituted, they would require much central control, or there would be a relapse into something akin to present conditions. I have heard it suggested by those who are dissatisfied with the Poor Law system that the nature and extent of the relief to

be given in any particular case should be determined, not by an unaided committee, but either

- (1) By such committee, acting under the direction of a highly-paid official of good standing, or
- (2) By such official alone.

If Parliament could be induced to accept and the ratepayers to tolerate such an appointment, I believe it would make for the diminution of pauperism perhaps more rapidly than any other scheme that could be devised, especially if alternative (2) were adopted. Obviously under alternative (1) the relations of such an official to the Relief Committee would have to be very clearly defined.

Possibly, at first, the machinery (especially as regards the Inquiry Department) would have to be more elaborate and costly than would be permanently necessary.

I have the honour to be, Sir,

Your obedient Servant,

F. A. HYETT.

The Secretary, Poor Law Commission,
Scotland House.

APPENDIX No. LXVI.

CORRESPONDENCE AND MEMORANDUM AS TO THE SYSTEM IN VOGUE IN REFORMATORY AND INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS UNDER THE JURISDICTION OF THE HOME OFFICE, FOR KEEPING SOME SUPERVISION OVER THE AFTER CAREERS OF CHILDREN WHO HAVE BEEN IN SUCH SCHOOLS.

Scotland House,
Victoria Embankment,
Westminster, S.W.,
5th December, 1907.

[COPY LETTER.]

SIR,—I am desired by the above Commission to inquire whether you would be good enough to cause to be prepared for the information of the Commission a brief memorandum setting out the system (if any) in vogue in reformatory and industrial schools under the jurisdiction of the Home Office, for keeping some supervision over the after careers of children who have been in such schools.

An analogous question has been much brought before the Commission in the evidence relating to Poor Law Schools, and the Commission are anxious to learn what the position of this matter is in the reformatory and industrial schools.

At the same time, I am desired by Lord George Hamilton, the Chairman of the Commission, to say that the Commission would be much obliged if you could see your way to kindly causing them also to be furnished with a brief memorandum setting out the methods and results of the Borstal System for dealing with juvenile offenders.

I am desired by the Commission to say that they will much appreciate an extension of the Secretary of State's courtesy in this matter, and I have the honour to remain,

Your obedient servant,

(Signed) R. G. DUFF,

The Secretary of State,
Home Department.

Secretary.

Whitehall,
15th January, 1908.

SIR,—

With reference to your letter of the 5th ultimo, requesting information as to the after supervision of children committed to reformatory and industrial schools and as to the "Borstal System" for juvenile-adult prisoners, I am directed by the Secretary of State to transmit to you herewith, for the information of the Royal Commission on the Poor Laws, the enclosed papers, namely:—

- (1) A Memorandum by His Majesty's Inspector of Reformatory and Industrial Schools on the subject of after-supervision (with inclosures).*
- (2) Copy of a pamphlet issued by the Borstal Association relative to the Borstal System.†
- (3) Copy of the last annual report of the Borstal Association.†
- (4) Copy of the report to the Secretary of State by Sir E. Ruggles-Brise, K.C.B., on the proceedings of the International Penitentiary Congress at Buda-Pesth, which contains in Section IV. (p. 33) a Memorandum by Sir E. Ruggles-Brise on the Borstal System.‡

I am, Sir,

Your obedient Servant,

W. P. BYRNE.

The Secretary to the
Royal Commission on the Poor Laws
and Relief of Distress,
Scotland House, Victoria Embankment, S.W.

[* Cd. 3759.]

[† Published by Messrs. Witherby & Co., High Holborn, W.C.]

[‡ Cd. 2849.]

APPENDIX No. LXVI.—*Continued.*MEMORANDUM ON THE AFTER SUPERVISION OF REFORMATORY
AND INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL CHILDREN.

Great Scotland Yard,
London, S.W.

The managers of reformatory and industrial schools are not bound by statute to supervise the after-careers of children who have passed through the schools, and accordingly no regular system applicable to all has been imposed upon them. From the first, however, the schools have been required to furnish H.M. Inspector with returns of the children who have left the schools during the three preceding years, setting forth their present circumstances and character so far as known, and every year, from 1859 inclusive, tables of results compiled from these returns have been published in the Inspector's annual report. The managers have recognised that the confidence of the public must necessarily depend on the quality of these results, and have gradually evolved a system for themselves which, though differing in certain details according to the particular circumstances of the school, or the genius and energy of the particular superintendent, is in its main ideas practically uniform throughout. The chief means adopted for keeping in touch with ex-inmates are:—

- (1) Correspondence.
- (2) Visiting.
- (3) Reports by special or general agencies.
- (4) Annual gatherings.
- (5) Encouraging the revisiting of the schools at any odd time.

(1) Very little encouragement is needed to induce the children to correspond with one or other of the officers of the school, the bulk of the numerous letters received, however, coming to the superintendent, but to give greater effect to the general invitation to correspond with their old school a certain portion of the award money earned during their school life is sometimes retained and paid out in instalments on application. Some schools circulate a school magazine or annual account of the school's doings, and their eagerness to secure a copy of this brings many letters from old scholars. The effect of such devices is to keep the school authorities informed, not only of the addresses of applicants themselves, but also of useful particulars concerning such old school-fellows as they may have met or heard of. Such information prepares the way for

(2) As a rule the superintendent prefers to visit the ex-inmates at their homes or places of employment himself; at the same time he is often able to rely upon the assistance of one of the teachers or other experienced and tactful officer. A good plan adopted by certain superintendents when a number of boys has been disposed of to certain large centres like London, Liverpool, etc., and at a distance from the school, is to fix a certain hour and day in the year for meeting at a particular coffee tavern. Such gatherings will be attended by not only the fortunate, but also the unfortunate who are in need of help or advice. Information is at the same time obtained of others who have not put in an appearance, and a few days are spent in hunting up these and attending to the needs and verifying the reports of the others. As a rule, however, it is practically impossible for a superintendent or other officer of the school to visit all cases, and the services of certain agencies are enlisted.

(3) A few large schools have paid agents of their own who deal with cases in certain large districts like South Wales or the Metropolis. In addition, there are numerous general agencies, such as that of the Reformatory and Refuge Union, which practically covers the whole of the country, and mention may also be made of police court missionaries and other officials, private philanthropists, clergymen, etc., who are willing to do useful work for the schools, and at the least keep them informed as to how the children are getting on. Employers also are often willing to furnish the schools with monthly or quarterly reports, and, indeed, are expected to do so when the child is licensed to them. Where independent reports are received,

whether from agents or employers, much trouble is saved to the school, as it then only becomes necessary for one of its own officers to visit the more difficult cases with a view to preventing further disaster. It cannot be said that the field of willing and capable more than probable that there are many who would be voluntary agents is by any means exhausted, and it is willing to assist the schools if they knew that their services would be welcomed. It is probable, too, that more could be done in the way of gaining the consent and co-operation of the parents, whose opposition—sometimes due to sheer perverseness—too often stands in the way of the advancement of the child. Managers are beginning to realise that more exact information as to the character and habits of the parents and the nature of the home surroundings must be obtained than can be expected from official reports received from the police or Local Education Authority. That, in fact, it would be advisable to have the home kept under observation during the whole of the time the child is in the school, if anything like a correct estimate is to be obtained.

Undesirable parents are apt not only to visit the schools in borrowed finery, but also to write or cause to be written, plausible letters to the children, with the result, whether intended or not, of deceiving the managers. On the other hand, decent parents sometimes, through a misunderstanding of the situation, refrain from visiting or even corresponding with their children, or in some other way create a false impression. Several reformatories have lately taken advantage of an additional grant given by the Treasury, and have contracted with an agency started by a couple of experienced officials, the object of which is not only to assist in the disposal and after-supervision of the children, but also to keep the schools informed as to the various private and other agencies available, and to furnish reports on the homes of all children still under detention.

(4) Practically every school has its annual gathering about Christmas time or early in the New Year. A certain day is fixed upon (e.g., the first Thursday in the New Year), so that the children may be sure of the date without receiving a special invitation. At these annual gatherings, which are numerously attended, prizes are distributed to old boys and girls who have kept their situations for a certain length of time, or have otherwise distinguished themselves by good conduct.

(5) Children, while still in the school, very soon learn that all old pupils are welcome, and if there is nothing against their character, are allowed to spend a part of their holidays in their old school. This privilege is often taken advantage of by young soldiers and sailors when on furlough.

Every school is expected to keep a "Disposal on Discharge" book, in which all information, direct or indirect, is recorded, and, although the schools are only required to report to the Inspector for the first three years after a child has left the school, reference to these records often shows that provided there has been no great change in the management it is possible to keep in touch with old scholars for a considerable number of years. In the cases of children emigrated to the Colonies, a report is required to be furnished to the Home Office within six months, and all reports received during each year are required to be sent up with the annual return. This regulation necessitates the schools taking advantage of all existing agencies in the Colonies, and where these are not available, employing an agent of their own.

The Tables showing the last published results will be found in Appendices III. (D) and IV. (D) of the 50th Report of the Inspector, and in the earlier portion of that report (e.g., pages 36 to 44) the matter of the disposal, etc., is dealt with at some length.

Enclosed with this Memorandum is a specimen form of the annual return which the managers are required to fill up. (See Appendix LXVI. (A).)

(Signed) T. D. ROBERTSON.

10/1/08.

Date of Certificate

RETURN showing the Number of Boys (or Girls) committed under the Reformatory School Acts, who were Discharged or Licensed (and not since re-admitted) during the years 1904, 1905, and 1906, with their present Character, Address, and Nature of Employment, as far as known.

N ^o . of Heading.	DISCHARGED OR LICENSED, viz. :—	Left in 1904.	Left in 1905.	Left in 1906.	Total for three years ending Dec. 31, 1906.	Since Dead.	PRESENT CIRCUMSTANCES.			REMARKS.
							In Regular Employment.	In Casual Employment.	Convicted of Crime.	
1	To Employment, or Service found by School :— (a) Away from Friends - - - (b) To live with Friends - - -									
2	Returned to Friends :— (a) Friends of decent character - - - (b) Friends of questionable character, or otherwise undesirable - - -									
3	Emigrated - - -									
4	Sent to sea - - -									
5	Enlisted - - -									
6	Discharged on account of Disease - - -									
7 & 8	Discharged as incorrigible or sentenced to Penal Servitude - - -									
11	Discharged as Absconded - - -									
	Total - - -									
8	Transferred to other Schools - - -									
9	Died in the School - - -									

NOTE.—It is particularly requested that the *date* of the last Report, occupation (*underlined in Red Ink*), address, *in full*, and name or description of employer be given in each case.

The date of the Report should be :—

(1) In cases of Home Employment, between 1st July, 1907, and 31st December, 1907. In cases of Employment Abroad or on Seagoing Vessels, between 1st January, 1907, and 31st December, 1907.

And in no case should the date of report be prior to 1st January, 1907, or subsequent to 31st December, 1907.

APPENDIX No. LXVI. (A).—*Continued.*NAMES, Characters, and Date of Report of Boys (or Girls) discharged
as in Summary on other side.

No. of Heading.	Name.	Date of Discharge or Licence.	Date of Report.	State clearly :— (1) Occupation. (2) Address. (3) Name of Employer.	Number under which shown in Summary of Occupations.	Character :— State whether this is, on information received, satisfac- tory, fairly satisfac- tory, or unsatisfac- tory.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5) (1) (2) (3)	(6)	(7)

APPENDIX No. LXVII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO POOR LAW REFORM, BY MR. JOHN HUTTON, J.P., D.L.,
SOLBERGE, NORTHALLERTON.

1. Boards of Guardians who were formed in 1834, under the great Poor Law Act, were an enormous improvement upon the former state of affairs: they have, on the whole, discharged their duties with creditable efficiency, but it is very doubtful whether they are any longer the most fitting or suitable authority either as district councils for the maintenance of the highways, and for sanitary purposes, or for the administration of the Poor Law; the members of the rural boards of guardians and district councils are generally the best and busiest men in each parish; their council meets on the market day, and they spare an hour or two in the afternoon to attend it; they are, in Yorkshire, at all events, generally very kind to the applicants for Poor Law relief, but unless the guardian for the particular parish is present, they are naturally dependent upon the report of the Relieving Officer. Generally the detailed administration of the council passes into the hands of a few members with leisure, and no one who reads in the local papers the reports of the meetings of boards of guardians and district councils can fail to see how impossible it is for them to grapple with any difficulties which may arise, and however much the majority of the members may have an earnest desire to do what is right, the very fact of their meeting being full of business with the short time for discussion, too often places them at the mercy of the greatest talkers and of the officials of the council.

2. Recent revelations of some of the Metropolitan boards of guardians have shown how evil-minded persons can work an authority of this kind to their own advantage, and not for the benefit of the ratepayers they are supposed to represent, nor of the poor, whom they are appointed to protect.

3. Surely the time has arrived when it will be best to abolish the district councils and boards of guardians, and to retain two authorities only—namely, the county

council and the parish or borough council, but strengthening the parish councils so as to make them efficient for the discharge of their increased duties, which might be done by causing every parish which at the last census had less than, say, 400 inhabitants, or has an assessable value of less than, say, £4,000, to be, by order of the county council, after due inquiry, amalgamated with an adjoining parish or parishes so as to include an area containing not less than, say, 400 inhabitants and, say, £4,000 assessable value, and granting them all the powers now possessed by an urban or rural council.

4. It is worth the very serious consideration of Parliament whether the time has not now arrived when the whole question of the administration of the Poor Law should be revised. There has been of late years a strong feeling growing and extending that our treatment of the aged poor is not worthy of a great nation like ourselves. Parliamentary Commissions and Royal Commissions have, session after session, been considering and reporting upon this subject, and one scheme after another has been laid before Parliament, and a new Royal Commission is now considering the general working of the Poor Law.

5. England appears to be the only Great Power which treats its aged poor with so little consideration. It is true that in England every poor person in a condition of destitution has the legal right to claim relief, but in no other country are the aged poor, who have come to poverty through no fault of their own, placed under the same roof and treated under practically the same conditions as worthless vagabonds, vicious women, and vagrant tramps. Even where adequate out-relief is given they are treated as paupers with all the disgrace and disabilities of citizenship which that word represents.

APPENDIX No. LXVII.—*Continued.*

6. The care of the aged poor has from earliest times been the charge of the parish to which they belong. It would be much the kindest and most reasonable plan to again make their neighbours and friends of the parish responsible for their care, and it should be done by placing them in cottage homes, where they could continue to reside in their native places. It would, of course, be necessary to prevent undeserving or otherwise unsatisfactory persons availing themselves of such assistance.

7. It is not suggested that a parish should be required to build an expensive house for the purpose, but that in rural parishes they should rent or purchase an ordinary cottage, such as the people have lived in all their lives, and provide the inmates with the necessities of life—food, light, and fire—and to pay some woman of the parish to cook and do the work of the house, and look after the old people. Probably two cottages would be required, one for the aged men and one for the aged women, where they would live among those whom they had known possibly all their lives, and not feel themselves outcasts of society. They would, in fact, be parochial almshouses. As Miss Edith Sellers has shown in her admirable book, "The Danish Poor Relief System," the system is already universal in Denmark, and in a modified form in France, Germany, Austria, and even Russia. A parish council would be very careful not to confer the privilege of the cottage home on worthless, undesirable persons, for, as working men are sure to be among the members of the council, and they or their near relations might eventually wish to enter the home, they would endeavour to keep it respectable and of good repute. There must be a jury in all cases of discriminating between the deserving and undeserving, and the parish council, the members of which know every individual in the parish, would be far more likely to give a true verdict than a board of guardians.

8. There must, however, be always cases when an aged man or an aged woman can remain with a son or daughter, or other relation, who cannot afford to maintain them without assistance. In such cases the parish council should be authorised to grant an "old age pension" of five shillings a week on exactly the same conditions as those which would entitle an aged person to enter a cottage home. These conditions might be that the applicant:—

- (a) Is a British subject;
- (b) Is of the age of sixty-five or upwards;
- (c) Has not within the last twenty years been convicted of an offence and sentenced to penal servitude, or imprisonment without the option of a fine;
- (d) Has not received Poor Law relief, other than medical relief, unless under circumstances of a wholly exceptional character, during twenty years prior to his application;
- (e) Is resident within the parish;
- (f) Has endeavoured, to the best of his ability, by his industry or by the exercise of reasonable providence, to make provision for himself and those immediately dependent upon him.

9. The principle of cottage homes for the aged poor was adopted by the House of Commons in 1899, when the Cottage Homes Bill was read a second time without a division, and referred to a Select Committee. That Committee, under the chairmanship of the then Secretary of the Local Government Board, Mr. T. W. Russell, after hearing much evidence, reported in favour of cottage homes. The recommendations of the Committee were specifically adopted, and included in the report of the Old Age Pensions Committee of the same year, presided over by the then President of the Local Government Board, Mr. Chaplin; and they were again endorsed by the Select Committee on the Aged Pensioners Bill, 1905, the Chairman of which was the Secretary of the Local Government Board, Sir John Grant Lawson, so that the principle has had the approval of the House of Commons and three Select Committees of the House, probably a unique position for a Private Member's Bill. The Cottage Homes Bill has also been "backed" by no less than three Secretaries of the Local Government Board—namely, Sir Walter Foster, Mr. T. W. Russell, and Sir John Grant Lawson.

10. In the large towns and boroughs, where the number of aged poor must be considerable, they would be dealt with on the same principles, but would be provided for in large buildings, such as flats, on the lines of the Rowton Homes. The difficulty of discriminating between the deserving and undeserving poor is much greater in the towns than in the rural districts, but it has already been done to a limited extent at Sheffield and elsewhere, and the classification of paupers instituted during Mr. Chaplin's Presidency of the Local Government Board has greatly improved the condition of the aged persons in the workhouses, and accustomed the authorities to the desirability and possibility of differential treatment; and it would be well worth considering whether it would not be better to leave the classification of the poor in the large towns to a highly trained, well paid expert inspector.

11. Probably about 1 per cent. of the population would have to be provided for; suitable cottages in rural villages could be rented at about £4 a year; a caretaker would look after both cottages at about 7s. a week; the total cost of each inmate should not exceed £20 a year, and that would probably be also the cost of the larger establishments in the towns. To take an extreme case of a parish with 400 population and £4,000 assessable value: four old people would have to be provided for, equal to £80, half of which would be repaid by the County Council, leaving £40 to be provided by the Parish, which would mean a rate of 2½d. As the proportion of assessable value to population increases, so the rate would decrease, and in the large towns the increased cost of rent and living would be reduced by the larger number of inmates in the homes.

12. The charge of the deserving aged poor should not be entirely left to the cost of the local parish. The county council should contribute a fixed sum, calculated as one-half—namely, £10 a year, for each inmate of a cottage home, and £6 for an aged pensioner. It would be necessary for county councils to appoint Poor Law committees, who would through their officers be responsible for the condition of the homes, and that the inmates had been properly selected. Every cottage home should be inspected at least once a year by an officer of the county council, and the county councils should have power to withhold their contributions to a parish failing to comply with their requirements. Any aged person feeling aggrieved at the action of the parish council in refusing him admission to the home should have the right of appeal to the County Council Poor Law Committee, who, if they considered an injustice had been done, might order the parish to admit such person to the cottage home.

13. Parliament should be asked to contribute to the cost of maintaining these homes by granting to the county councils £5 for every inmate, and also £3 for every aged pensioner.

14. The inmates of aged poor cottage homes and the pensioners on the aged pensioners' list should not thereby be debarred from voting for the election of a member of Parliament or of the county council, but should not vote for the election of a member of a parish council.

15. The county councils would have to provide aged homes or workhouses, where those would be maintained who could not fulfil the conditions required for a cottage home or aged pensioners' list, and it would be the duty of the parish council to at once inform the Poor Law officer of the county council of such persons, so that they might forthwith be removed to the homes provided by the county council.

16. The county councils would take over from the boards of guardians all the workhouses and other property belonging to them, together with their debts and charges for loans, etc., and from the district councils, the fever hospitals, etc. The county councils would use the workhouses for the reception of women, children, imbeciles, and sick and infirm paupers, and as places of detention for such of the destitute whom it might be thought desirable to remove from their parishes for more complete control or care. In rural districts, the county councils would be able to set apart separate workhouses for different purposes.

APPENDIX No. LXVII.—*Continued.*

Able-bodied. 17. Able-bodied destitute persons would apply to the parish council for relief: the parish council would require them to do such public work as they might think fit, but not allow them to be employed on behalf of a private individual, and they should supply them with such food, lodging, and clothes as they considered necessary.

18. If a parish council should be unable to find suitable employment for an able-bodied applicant for relief, or if an applicant should refuse to work, the Poor Law officer of the county council would, on the application of the parish council, remove such person to a workhouse or other place appointed by the county council, who would charge the maintenance of such person to the parish council. The county council should be permitted to detain such persons in the workhouse for a period not exceeding three months.

Money Relief. 19. No money relief should be given to the able-bodied destitute, except to deserted wives, and widows and their children.

20. All able-bodied persons so relieved should be deemed paupers, and for the next two years disqualified for voting for the election of a member of Parliament, or of a county or parish council.

Medical Treatment. 21. Medical officers of health and all sick relief should be paid for by the county council, and be under their supervision and authority. Sick relief is not considered "pauperism," and there can be no reason why arrangements should not be made for the reception of patients into the local hospitals; but it might in many districts be desirable for the county councils to utilise some of the existing workhouses as hospitals, where the sick and infirm would be treated, and women received for their confinements.

22. Any destitute person being sick or infirm and thereby unable to work, would apply to the parish council for relief: such application would be immediately reported to the district medical officer, who, if he considered the applicant was suffering from illness or infirmity sufficient to incapacitate him from work, would supply such medicines or nourishment as he might think necessary at the charge of the county rate; or he might order the applicants into a hospital or infirmary provided or approved by the county council.

23. Such persons should not be deemed paupers or be deprived of their votes or other duties of citizenship.

Women. 24. Widows and deserted wives and any destitute women must be allowed exceptional treatment, though it would have to be executed with care and caution; on the recommendation of a parish council, the Poor Law officer of the county council should be permitted at his discretion to provide them with relief in kind, or a weekly sum of money sufficient for their maintenance; or they might be required to enter a home or workhouse provided by the county council.

Children. 25. Children left destitute should be under the control of the county councils, and should as soon as possible be boarded out or sent into a children's home; if any child should be suddenly left destitute, the parish council should provide for its immediate wants, and report the case to the officer of the county council.

26. The parish to which the child belonged should pay to the county council one-half the cost of its maintenance.

Report of Vagrants. 27. As recommended by the recent Departmental Committee, presided over by Mr. John Lloyd Wharton, vagrants should be transferred entirely to the care of the police, who should, under rules approved by the Secretary of State, have power to pass on a genuine wayfarer seeking for work to his destination, providing him with necessary food and lodging; while on the other hand the professional vagrant should be detained, and compelled to do a certain amount of work in labour colonies or penal workhouses. The existing casual wards could in most instances be transferred to the police without interfering with the privacy or usefulness of the workhouse.

Imbeciles. 28. It has become an urgent necessity that imbeciles and persons of weak intellect should be cared for in suitable institutions other than the asylums. This could be done by utilising a disused workhouse. There

would be no occasion for the elaborate precautions and costly staff of an asylum, and the expenses would not be nearly so great. Any person wishing for an order for the admission of an imbecile to such an institution would have to apply to the parish council, and if the medical officer of health, according to such strict rules and regulations as the Local Government Board might direct, certified such person as an imbecile or weak minded, but not insane, the parish council would apply to the county council for his admission to an imbecile asylum. The parish council should pay to the county council half the cost of such imbecile.

29. The Government should be urged to take over the lunatic asylums, and place them under the control of the State, with visiting committees appointed by the county councils, similar to those appointed by the Prisons Act, 1876. At the present time the asylums are a grave anxiety to the county councils, and an enormous expense, caused not only by the steady increase of lunacy, but also by the constant requirements of the inspectors for improvements and structural alterations.

30. Probably two main objections will be taken to this scheme, namely, that the county councils have already more than they can do, and that the parish councils would be less efficient for carrying out the details of the Poor Law than the boards of guardians.

31. With regard to the county councils, experience rather points to the fact that the more important and varied the duties, the more anxious are the best men to come into the council. The work of a county council attracts men who have a desire to be useful to their county. The Education Act has doubled the work of the county councils, but it has been dealt with and organised in almost all counties with an energy and efficiency which cannot be too highly praised; and if the responsibility of watching over and protecting the administration of the Poor Laws was added to their duties there can be little doubt that they would be most efficiently carried out, and some of the best men in the county taking special interest in the wants of the poor would be inclined to give their services.

32. With regard to the parish councils, they are now a failure, because they have no real work to do; but if they were made responsible for the charge of the poor in their parishes, and enabled to carry out their own sanitary improvements, and to rate themselves as they thought fit, there can be little doubt that the very best men in each parish would gladly join their council, and as the meetings would generally be in the evening they would be able to attend, and fully discuss the subjects before them.

33. It will probably be said that parish councils could not be trusted to deal with our aged poor or destitute, as local interests and local prejudices would so affect their decision, and that great diversity of treatment would ensue; but if these proposals are examined carefully, it will be seen there is little scope for favouring or the reverse. The selection for the cottage home or aged pensioners' list would be limited by the fact that each parish council will be compelled to maintain a home, which they will naturally endeavour to keep full rather than grant a pension. Take the case of the aged poor: an old person reaches the age of 65, and applies for relief; the parish council have to decide whether that person has fulfilled all the conditions mentioned above. If the person is so far eligible, then the only optional duty will be to decide whether the applicant shall be admitted to the parish home or be placed on the aged pensioners' list. They may stretch a point in favour of a doubtful case, but it seems most probable, as has been already said, that some of the members of the parish council will be working men, and will be looking forward to the time when they, or their near relatives, may themselves become applicants, and they will take the greatest care that they only select those for the privilege whom they know deserve it. Then, in any case, the officer of the county council will supervise, and ascertain whether the inmates or pensioners fulfil the requirements, and will inspect the homes. The county council would refuse to pay its contribution, about one-half the cost, if any jobbery or irregularity was found out, or if the homes were not properly maintained.

34. It does seem to be the natural and historical right and privilege of each parish community to care for its old people, and surely they can be well trusted to do so with judgment, kindness, and discretion.

APPENDIX No. LXVII.—*Continued.*

35. With regard to the able-bodied applicants, there can be no opening for jobbery or fraud so long as the county council and Local Government Board insist upon the proposed conditions, that no work shall be done for private individuals, and no money or other relief shall be given except in return for work, or that they shall be handed over to the county council officer to employ on behalf of the county council, or to be otherwise dealt with if the person refuses to work.

36. Every parish council will appoint either one of its own members, unpaid, or a paid officer to interview applicants, etc., and to report to the county council officer.

37. Surely it would be of the greatest value to our rural districts to foster and increase local duties and responsibilities, and the good done would be infinitely greater than any small abuse of power which might occur, notwithstanding the constant and effective supervision and guidance of the county council.

38. The cost of the scheme to the ratepayers would probably be less than the present system; the medical and sanitary officers would have their areas arranged independently of union boundaries; the Poor Law administration would benefit by the fact that each parish would be responsible for and have to pay for its own idlers and loafers, who would soon learn that they must either work or leave the parish, probably for a long period, to a county council workhouse.

39. In the year 1905 each indoor pauper cost the ratepayers £13 7s. 9d. per head (in London £27 17s. 10d.), so that even in cottage homes the increased expense for a limited number of most deserving persons, if it should be as estimated, £20 a head, would only increase the cost of their maintenance by £6 12s. 3d., and if Parliament would grant £5 per head towards that cost, the addition to the rates would be infinitesimal.

40. It may be said that the principle of cottage homes and aged pensions is pure Socialism, because it does not require a life contribution by the person benefiting; it may be so, but there are two kinds of Socialism, one which considers the poor a trust of Society, the other which professes to believe all men are equal, and ignoring mental or physical superiority, demands that all should fare alike by absorption into the State of everything in the nature of property, or, in other words, what a man may now call his own, from a castle to a spade; but it must be true that Society—that is, the whole nation—is the guardian of its weak and poor.

41. Anyone who knows the feelings of the working classes in the rural districts must be deeply impressed by the fear of the workhouse which is always hovering around them, and how that fear is increased by the knowledge that in the workhouse they will have to end their lives among the low, blackguard, drunken wastrels of Society, and how they dread the curtailment of their liberty and the final horrors of a pauper funeral. The political cry of both parties for old age pensions is in itself a testimony of the strength of the feeling.

42. The system advocated in this paper would be a solution of the true demand for old age pensions, as the State is asked to contribute £5 a year to each aged person selected by their neighbours on certain conditions. Taking the population of Great Britain as 40 millions, 400,000 persons would represent the one

per cent. to be provided for, which would require £2,000,000 to be annually raised by Parliament—a reasonable sum compared with the £20,000,000 supposed to be necessary for the purpose.

43. It is impossible for many industrious working men and women to provide for old age. They may have under most adverse circumstances avoided applying for relief, and brought up respectable families, and worked hard all their lives without being able to save anything; but at the last old age and infirmities incapacitate them; and it is a brutal thing that their country should only provide for some of its best citizens, whose one fault is they have lived too long, the horror of ending their days in the workhouse, among men and women whom they would hardly have spoken to in the former years of health and strength, but whom they find, at the decline of life, treated as their equals. Outdoor relief may be, and is, granted by many boards of guardians, but is too often inadequate, carries with it the disabilities and disgrace of pauperism, and is of no use to many old people who have no home or family ties.

44. A small country workhouse, with 50 or 60 inmates, is a shame to our Christian civilisation. There may be found collected in it perhaps ten old men and ten old women, drunken, idle blackguards, the outcasts of Society, and, compelled to live among them, perhaps five or six respectable old people who, through absolutely no fault of their own, having worked hard all their inoffensive lives, have come to poverty. There will probably be three or four imbeciles of each sex, sometimes harmless and amusing, very often vicious and annoying to the inmates; two or three single women waiting for their confinements—in many cases an annual visit; three or four loafing “ins” and “outs,” able-bodied men; three or four feeble persons; and eight or ten illegitimate children, all practically living together, and too often under a master who is tyrannical in his treatment and careless of his duties. It is a life absolutely repugnant to the respectable poor. Surely the time has come when, for the sake of not only the aged poor, but of the sick, the imbeciles, and the children, a drastic reform should be made, which would, at all events, bring us to a level with Denmark and other European countries.

45. A well-known and very influential labour member of a county council lately said to the committee (2 Thess. III.) which was considering the question of finding work for the unemployed, under Mr. Walter Long's Socialistic Act, “Mr. Chairman, the law of England says no man shall be allowed to starve. The Scripture says, ‘If any man would not work, neither should he eat.’ In my opinion the law of Scripture is better than the law of England.”

46. Let us, at all events, do what we can to help those who have fallen wounded and helpless, after faithfully fighting the battle of life, and not treat them in the same way as those who have made no effort, and have only been the selfish wastrels of Society.

47. All those who have for years had at heart the condition of the rural poor earnestly hope that the Royal Commission which is now sitting will strongly grapple with the facts of Poor Law administration, and may make such recommendations as will effectively deal with all the problems of the Poor Law, and improve the administration of local government.

APPENDIX No. LXVIII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE GIVEN ON BEHALF OF THE ST. JOHN THE DIVINE (KENNINGTON) RELIEF COMMITTEE, BY MISS HELEN G. KLAASSEN, HONORARY SECRETARY.

1. My Committee request me to submit to you, respectfully, the following statement of the difficulties they have observed in the administration of the Poor Law in the Ecclesiastical Parish of St. John the Divine, Kennington, which is situated in three Poor Law Unions.

2. The guardians do not act upon sufficiently fixed principles, the poor never know the limit of what they may hope to obtain. If the guardians carried out a

more consistent policy, we think there would be less suffering, as the poor would attempt to adjust their lives accordingly.

3. There is suffering in the family of a man who, though regarded by the guardians as able-bodied, is yet, for one reason or another, unable to earn sufficient to maintain his family up to a healthy standard. If a child of such a family has marked signs of wasting disease, it

APPENDIX No. LXVIII.—*Continued.*

is true that the guardians will take him into the infirmary, but there is no remedy before this stage is reached. The difficulty is aggravated by the fact that the parents who cannot support their family are often also dirty and negligent. When the man is really bad, or callous, or stupid beyond a certain point, there is the additional difficulty that he may not be willing to apply to the guardians for proper treatment for his wife or children when they are ill. If the wife applies in his place, she is liable to be sent back and told her husband must apply himself. We have known cases of serious destitution, where the wife has been discouraged by the relieving officer from making application, even when she has been driven to apply for admission to the house with her children.

4. Although it may be true that men who have once been to the workhouse return there too readily, and also that families become destitute unnecessarily through want of thrift, none of us have ever known a case where a family living in an ordinary home has gone to the workhouse in the first instance at a too early stage of destitution. We think the tendency is for the respectable man out of work to hold out too long and thus to endanger the health of his family. We believe that he does so more from fear of injury to his future career, than from the prospect of losing the poor remains of his furniture or from any dread of the discipline a temporary sojourn in the workhouse would involve.

5. Relief in illness administered in the patient's home is less satisfactory than infirmary treatment. The district medical officer may be unable to give the close attention which individual cases need owing to the large number of parish cases for which he is responsible in addition to his private practice. Inadequate medical attendance leads to inadequate diet in sickness. Out-patients are often badly fed during the convalescent stage and are rarely sent to convalescent homes.

6. It is always difficult for a woman with children to leave home for infirmary or convalescent treatment. It is almost impossible for the wife to go to the infirmary if the husband is of dissolute character. She can neither leave her children unprotected, nor find a woman willing to take charge of them; she has no security against loss of her home or even desertion.

7. (a) The out-patient treatment of confinement cases is not satisfactory, because the guardians supply a doctor only and the destitute person cannot pay for a skilled nurse. Adequate treatment requires either a midwife, or else a doctor and skilled nurse. (b) The in-patient treatment is unsatisfactory for married women who find themselves in the same ward with the unmarried. (c) Many women go through their confinement with insufficient nourishment, without making application to the guardians for help.

8. Out-relief is given to persons of bad character when there are no peculiar circumstances to justify it.

9. Patients are treated by the guardians at home in a badly verminous condition.

10. We have heard applicants use the expression "my friend on the Board."

11. The guardians officers, either through pressure of work or from lack of encouragement by their Boards, are not sufficiently alive to openings for preventive work on behalf of members of families with whom they are dealing.

12. Suffering is caused by the want of co-operation between hospitals and the Poor Law guardians.

13. The following are a few of the Poor Law cases which have been brought to the notice of my committee. (*See Appendix No. LXVIII. (A)*). They are selected, not as typical of the guardians' work in general, but as illustrating by the detail which has been recorded, some of the difficulties with which the guardians and their officials are confronted in their attempt to give adequate help by means of out-relief.

(1) and (2). Illustrate the difficulty of giving efficient help by means of out-relief to persons of a low type of character, whose word cannot be trusted.

(3) Illustrates the fact that serious consequences may result if the head of the family is too callous about his children's welfare to be willing to make application to the guardians.

(4) Illustrates the need for elasticity in official procedure, when it is not easy for the applicant to make his application in the usual way.

(5) Illustrates paragraphs 11 and 12 above.

APPENDIX No. LXVIII. (A.).

Paper handed in by Miss Helen G. Klaassen.

CASES ILLUSTRATING THE DIFFICULTIES UNDER WHICH BOARDS OF GUARDIANS AND THEIR OFFICIALS LABOUR IN THEIR ATTEMPTS TO GIVE ADEQUATE HELP BY MEANS OF OUT-RELIEF.

I.

July 17th, 1906.—District visitor found woman without food at time of her confinement. The woman was attended by a free midwife from a maternity charity. District visitor gave milk at once, and got man to apply to relieving officer, who gave nourishment for woman at once. The baby died.

September 30th, 1906.—Letter from clergyman saying that the same woman is ill and destitute, and attended by parish doctor. I called on relieving officer who told me she is having relief on medical order. Reported this statement to clergyman.

December 5th, 1906.—Report from clergyman saying relieving officer is giving food, which does not include milk, and the doctor has ceased to visit since last Monday. The man is now ill in bed and cannot go to fetch the doctor. Called at the home. Man and woman both in bed. Room has appearance of being very destitute and dirty. Woman looked very weak, and said she had been suffering from rheumatism. The man had a sore throat. They told me they had had no milk, but had been given a bottle of ginger beer by a friend. Doctor's order had run out,

and the man had not been well enough to go out to renew it. I gave milk and wrote to the relieving officer. Relieving officer gave milk (a quart a day) at once. Man was only ill a few days.

January 4th, 1907.—Letter from district visitor saying that the woman is still ill and weak, and wants both food and firing. Housekeeper at clergy house told me she had called with an order for milk and found the man drunk, and nothing in the house to fetch the milk in except a beer can.

January 4th, 1907.—I called at the home. The woman looked both weak and emaciated, but her rheumatism had left her, and the doctor had stopped calling, considering her to be better. The milk had also stopped. Dirtiness of room was deplorable. Two women with the appearance of drunkards were present. These women said the patient had a bad cough and brought up much thick phlegm. I advised woman to apply to be taken into the infirmary or infirm ward, and promised to do my best to try and make some arrangement about the children. She would not hear of this. She abused the

APPENDIX No. LXVIII (A).—*Continued.*

doctor for having ceased to call, and the relieving officer for stopping relief. I offered to see relieving officer and doctor about it.

January 4th, 1907.—Saw relieving officer who told me man had just got some odd work, and also that he always found it difficult to make out if the man was really earning or not.

January 4th, 1907.—Saw parish doctor who told me he thought the woman was malingering, and ought to make an effort to rouse herself and get up. I told the doctor of the extreme thinness of her body, and the cough and phlegm which the friend had told me of. Whether the cause is malingering or not, she keeps weak so long that one would feel happier if she were, at any rate, offered to come into the infirm ward.

January, 1907.—Some days later I called on the woman and heard that the parish doctor had called the morning I saw him. The woman said that he had not examined her, but offered to take her into the infirm ward. She was up and looking brighter. The floor had been scrubbed. She said her eldest boy had just started work behind a van. She has three girls, the eldest is feeble in mind, the youngest is six years old. She told me the relieving officer had spoken roughly to her because her husband had not gone up to the relief station. She said she was better, and if I called again, I should find her quite well. She would on no account go into the infirmary.

January, 1907.—Saw relieving officer who said the woman abused him when he called, and said she wanted neither him nor the doctor, and she supposed it was "that lady who sent him." He said to her: "No wonder she did when your room is so disgusting, I wonder she did not notify to the sanitary authority."

A few months later, I heard that the woman was seriously ill with consumption in the infirmary.

II.

November 23rd, 1904.—Report from district visitor saying that Mrs M—, a widow who lives alone, was found ill in bed in a very destitute home without food or firing. She is a parish case, attended by the parish doctor.

November 23rd, 1904.—Called on woman. She said she could ask the parish doctor for nourishment when he called, and preferred that I should not ask for her. There was no fire, insufficient bed clothes, and she said she could not get nourishment.

November 23rd, 1904.—Visited the relieving officer, and informed him of district visitor's report.

November 25th, 1904.—Letter from district visitor to say that woman was found in the same state (November 24th 1904) no food, no fire, no proper bed clothes. As no one from the parish had called that day, she gave coals and swiss milk, and asked that the case should be attended to by *someone* to-morrow as the woman is *really* ill.

November 25th, 1904.—Called on the Roman Catholic priest as the woman is a Roman Catholic. He told me he knew that the woman was in this state, but was doing nothing as he knows the whole family well, and they are all bad drunkards.

November 24th, 1904.—Called on the relieving officer, and asked him to deal with the case either by giving necessities or offering the House.

November 26th, 1904.—District visitor told me the relieving officer did call yesterday as requested; did not mention the workhouse, but gave milk and beef-tea, but no coals. The day was a very foggy and cold one, so I called at once, and finding no fire gave coals to the value of 6d., and reported to the relieving officer. (The relieving officer explained to me later that he did not give coals as he found a fire when he called. This fire was made with the coals given by the district visitor.)

November 29th, 1908.—Called on Mrs. M—, and asked her for full particulars of her application for relief, so that I could make a statement to the guardians about it. Her manner changed, and she said she would not like this to be done. She said she received 3s. from the parish, which is very good relief, more than most widows get, and the parish doctor and relieving officer have been most attentive

to her. She was taken ill with bronchitis the Thursday before last, asked for the parish doctor, and he came at once. She never asked him for anything; her relations have been helping her. The relieving officer and the superintendent relieving officer had both called on Thursday, and asked her if she would not like to come into the House—she would find a good fire there.

November 30th, 1908.—Letter from superintendent relieving officer thanking us, and saying that necessary inquiry has been made by the relieving officer, and the case will come to-day before the guardians.

December 2nd, 1904.—The relieving officer gave me the following account of the case. Mrs. M.— has 3s. a week from the guardians. She is not old nor has she children to keep, but the relief is given on account of her being delicate. When he has interviewed her in the past, she would never own to earning anything, and he therefore assumed that her relief of 3s. would be supplemented when ill, in whatever way it was supplemented when she was well. The landlady at the previous address gave her a character for being deceptive, and for drinking. Her family have been on the parish for thirty years. He brought the case before the guardians, and they did not offer the House, but gave extra relief on doctor's order.

III.

January 16th, 1904.—Case of sick child requiring nourishment was notified to me. I called at the home, and the mother told me that her husband had been out of work six months, then in work one month, and then out again two months, and that he was out of work at the present time. During this period she had been confined and had lost the baby. I found one child of two years very ill with measles and bronchitis, and a child of five years who seemed to be sickening for an illness. The woman said the parish doctor had called once and told her the child was very ill, but had not called again. I advised the father to ask the doctor to call. He would not do this, nor would he apply to the relieving officer, although the home was very destitute, and both parents told me that they had neither money nor food, and the child looked as if it might not survive. I told the woman that, if her husband would not apply, it was her duty to do so, if the child's life was in danger for lack of nourishment or medical advice. The husband then threatened his wife, in case she should make application. At last the woman declared that she would see that application was made, and I gave milk to last from Saturday to Monday.

January 19th, 1904.—Called on Monday. The woman said she could not go out, as the elder child is now down with measles. The husband still refused to go for the doctor who had not called yet. The woman was in great despair, as she did not know what to do for the child of two years, who was seriously ill with bronchitis. She said someone had given her brandy, which she had given the child with its milk. I left a letter for the parish doctor at his house the same morning, stating the circumstances, and leaving the responsibility with him.

January 20th, 1904.—Called at the home. The doctor had not called yet. The woman looked wretched. I gave more milk. Called again at 4 p.m. The doctor had not visited. I wrote to the relieving officer stating the case fully, and asking him to let me know at once if it is not legal for him to act on my application on behalf of these people, as I must see that the case is attended to by someone.

January 21st, 1904.—Called at the relief station. The parish doctor resented our interference, and said that the case was down in his book to be visited to-day, but that if he did it at our request, it would be at our expense.

January 28th, 1904.—Called at the home and heard that the doctor has been calling regularly since my last visit, and that the relieving officer has given the necessary nourishment.

IV.

June 9th, 1903.—The case of Mr. B—, an old man of 76 years, suffering from chronic bronchitis and asthma, with a wife of 65 years, a chronic invalid who could not get in and out of bed by herself, was notified to us as

APPENDIX No. LXVIII. (A).—*Continued.*

needing relief. I called and found that they had two daughters, the one earned 9s., the other was delicate, and earned 8s. The man had been unable to earn for one year, the family had been helped by his brother, who could do so no longer, and by his son, since dead. An attempt was made to improve the daughters' earnings, which failed, and the case was sent to the Charity Organisation Society, in the hope they might be able to raise a pension for the old couple. The Charity Organisation Society reported that they found the character to be good, but not up to pension standard. The home was clean and tidy, and the references considered the family to be very poor. We gave *interim* help while the case was under consideration, and after the Charity Organisation Society sent its report, we advised the B.'s to apply to the guardians for help.

October 27th, 1903.—Letter from clergyman saying the B.'s are ill and in need. Called the same day and learned that the B.'s obtained an order for the parish doctor six weeks ago. The doctor called for some weeks, and then stopped calling. The man said he felt ill and weak, and could not get proper nourishment. They explained their difficulty in going up to the relief station, as neither man nor wife could go on account of their ill health, and the two girls were out at work all day, and feared they would lose the job if they took a day off. I advised Mr. B. to write to the relieving officer, if he could get no responsible person to call on his behalf.

October 29th, 1903. I wrote to the relieving officer sending him a report on the circumstances of the case, as I understood the B.'s were applying to him.

November 2nd, 1903.—I called at the home and heard that someone had called on the relieving officer on their behalf, and that the relieving officer had promised to call, but had not done so yet. I gave 2s. 6d., as the man seemed ill and weak.

November 5th, 1903.—Called again, and heard that the relieving officer had not called yet.

November 5th, 1903.—Called on the parish doctor, and he kindly offered to mention the matter to the relieving officer, and call himself on the B.'s to-morrow.

November 19th, 1903.—As the B.'s had not yet seen the relieving officer, I asked a visitor to call on relieving officer. The relieving officer said no application for relief had been made to him. The B.'s had sent for

medicine, but had given no message. Relieving officer promised he would call some time when he is round there, but said the case could not come before the guardians till December 2nd.

November 20th, 1903.—Sent a visitor to make a definite application on behalf of the B.'s, so that there could be no doubt in future as to whether application had or had not been made.

December 4th, 1903.—The guardians granted 5s. a week.

In this case the man suffered from insufficient nourishment for eleven weeks after his case was in the hands of the parish doctor, five weeks after a full written statement had been sent to the relieving officer, one month after the doctor had had his attention drawn to the necessities of the case.

V.

January 26th, 1904.—Mrs. P. brought a boy of two years to the office, and reported that the doctor at the hospital said the child was losing the use of his limbs through want of proper nourishment. He must wear splints, be kept off his feet for a long while, eat fat bacon in the morning, potatoes, greens, and minced meat at midday, no sweets, plenty of milk, and a few biscuits. I took down the following particulars from her:—

Man.—In the infirmary since Christmas. Ill seven weeks before.

Woman.—Has been earning 5s. a week, but not since last September, since then nothing, and they have nothing left to pawn.

Children.—Boys of 8, 5, and 2 years.

Rent.—5s.

Relief from the Guardians.—4 lbs. meat, 4 loaves, 2 oz. tea, 2 lbs. rice, 1 lb. sugar, no money, no coal.

January 26th, 1904.—Letter to the hospital asking them to either take the child into the hospital where they would make sure that he is fed, or else refer the case to the parish and leave the responsibility with the guardians.

February 5th, 1904.—The relieving officer told me the parish doctor would be seeing the child to-day.

In this case the hospital had not ascertained whether the treatment they ordered could be carried out, nor had the relieving officer considered it his duty to draw the attention of the parish doctor to the child's state.

APPENDIX No. LXIX.

MEMORANDUM BY THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT BOARD AS TO THE INTERNAL ARRANGEMENTS FOR THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE POOR LAW.

1. The business of the Local Government Board, as performed within the office, is distributed amongst five divisions, each of which is under a separate assistant secretary.

2. The work of each division is again distributed amongst one or more separate departments, each of which is in charge of a principal clerk, who has a staff of clerks under him.

3. Cases which involve matters of principle, or are for some reason of special importance, are referred by the assistant secretary to the permanent or Parliamentary secretary, and are, where necessary, brought before the President.

4. The administration of the Poor Law is for the main part conducted in the Poor Law Division of the office, which consists of two departments—viz., the Poor Law Administration Department and the Poor Law Officers' Department. These two departments are under the superintendence of the assistant secretary, who also acts as chief general inspector.

5. Some other departments of the office also deal incidentally with matters relating to Poor Law as a branch of local government. The questions coming before these

departments are for the most part not of an administrative character, and it is usual, if administrative considerations arise, to refer them to one of the departments mentioned above for advice on their administrative aspect. The functions and duties assigned to the various departments will be seen from the following paragraphs.

POOR LAW DIVISION.

POOR LAW ADMINISTRATION DEPARTMENT.

6. The matters relating to the Poor Law functions of the Local Government Board dealt with in this Department are, shortly, the following:—

7. Correspondence, preparation of tabular and other statements and memoranda, and the examination of reports and returns on matters relating to the general administration of indoor and outdoor relief; the arrangements and management of workhouses, district and separate schools, and grouped or scattered homes for pauper children, Poor Law infirmaries, district sick asylums and the establishments under the Metropolitan

APPENDIX No. LXIX.—*Continued.*

Asylums Board; the periodical and special reports of inspectors on Poor Law institutions and certified schools; the reports of Lunacy Commissioners on workhouses; the erection, alteration, and enlargement of workhouses and other Poor Law buildings; the purchase or hiring of land and premises by guardians; contracts and tenders; workhouse and school dietaries; the religious creed of paupers; complaints by paupers; emigration; the education and employment of pauper children; boarding out of pauper children; the certifying of homes and other institutions; contributions of guardians or managers towards maintenance of children in industrial schools, subscriptions to hospitals, institutions, and associations or societies rendering aid in the administration of the relief of the poor; the relief and treatment of vagrants, and the weekly reports of the visiting officers of Metropolitan casual wards; tasks of work to be performed by vagrants and able-bodied paupers; the resignation of office by guardians and rural district councillors; local inquiries and other matters relating to the general administration of the Poor Law; the alteration of unions, representations, and orders made by county councils under the Local Government Acts, 1888 and 1894, as to union and parish boundaries and local inquiries relating thereto; and the number and retirement of guardians and rural district councillors.

8. The Department is in constant consultation with the general inspectors, the Poor Law medical inspectors, the inspectors of boarded-out children, and the Board's architects, and frequent conferences are held at the office with officers and deputations from boards of guardians and others interested in Poor Law matters.

* POOR LAW OFFICERS' DEPARTMENT.

9. The following are the matters dealt with in this Department:—

Correspondence relating to the appointment, qualifications, remuneration, duties, and resignation or dismissal, of all the more important officers of boards of guardians and other Poor Law authorities; the staff to be employed in institutions, and for other purposes; preparation of the necessary statements as to staffs and salaries, and keeping of permanent records as to officers. Special control and regulation of the staffs in the Metropolitan, and the salaries repayable from the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund; investigation of complaints in regard to officers addressed to the Board, and of all serious matters affecting the conduct and tenure of office of Poor Law and parochial officers, involving in many cases official or informal inquiries by the general inspectors; consideration of various administrative questions which arise in connection with officers' duties, particularly as regards the medical care and nursing of sick and mental patients in workhouses and infirmaries, the practice as to surgical operations and midwifery under the Poor Law, and the arrangements for medical and general relief to the outdoor poor; applications from the Registrar-General as to alteration of registration areas, and from borough or urban councils for power to appoint assistant overseers; examination of draft regulations and confirming orders which affect the duties of officers and their tenure of office; questions arising under the Poor Law Officers Superannuation Acts as to contributions and superannuation of officers, addition to years of service in computing allowances, and decision on appeals as to the right to or amount of an allowance; compensation to officers for loss of office or emoluments under various Acts of Parliament, and decision of appeals as to compensation under certain Local Acts and Confirming Orders.

10. This Department also is in constant communication with the General and Poor Law Medical Inspectors.

11. It is the practice to consult the General Inspector on any administrative Poor Law question which arises in his district, and to refer the correspondence on the matter to him.

OTHER DEPARTMENTS DEALING INCIDENTALLY WITH MATTERS TOUCHING THE POOR LAW.

LEGAL DEPARTMENT.

12. This Department in connection with its general work touching various branches of local government is concerned with the following matters affecting Poor Law:—

13. Questions of law submitted to the Board relating to the Poor Laws; the repeal or alteration by provisional order of local acts relating to Poor Law administration; questions with respect to the election of guardians; the decision of disputes between boards of guardians as to the settlement, removal and chargeability of paupers; correspondence concerning valuation lists, or otherwise arising under the Union Assessment Acts; applications for consent to provision of parochial offices; and correspondence under the Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905.

ORDER DEPARTMENT.

14. This Department is mainly occupied with the drafting and issue of Orders and Provisional Orders to give effect to the decisions reached in the administrative departments of the Board. A considerable proportion of the Orders so issued is concerned with Poor Law administration.

15. As Poor Law loans are authorised by Order, the correspondence with regard to the raising and repayment of these loans—so far as finance is concerned—is conducted in this Department, which also deals with questions relating to the sale of Union property and the extension of time for the payment of debts by guardians.

AUDIT DEPARTMENT.

16. This Department deals with the accounts of local authorities; with the reports of the district auditors on these accounts and the general supervision of the auditors' work. It is thus concerned with the accounts of Poor Law authorities, and the audit of them.

AUDIT APPEALS AND SANCTIONS DEPARTMENT.

DUTIES RELATING TO POOR LAW AUTHORITIES.

17. This Department deals with appeals made to the Board against allowances, disallowances, and surcharges by district auditors. Its work has reference to all local authorities submitting accounts to the district auditors, including Poor Law Authorities.

STATISTICAL AND LOCAL TAXATION DEPARTMENT.

18. This Department of the Local Government Board deals with the preparation and issue of statistical returns which are required, whether periodically or occasionally, by Parliament, by Royal Commissions, by Statute, or for the Board's own purposes. It may be said, very roughly, that about one-fourth of the work of the Department is in relation to Poor Law matters.

APPENDIX No. LXX.

**MEMORANDUM PREPARED BY THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT BOARD (ENGLAND) ON THE
SUBJECT OF DEATHS ATTRIBUTABLE TO, OR ACCELERATED BY, PRIVATION OR
STARVATION.**

A considerable proportion of the cases of deaths attributable to starvation or privation occur either in a workhouse or Poor Law infirmary, to which the patient has been removed in a dying condition.

By a Regulation of the Local Government Board, the medical officer of every workhouse and infirmary throughout the country is required to report to them the case of every sudden and every accidental death which may occur in the institution and the cause of the death so far as he is able to explain it. He has to make this report within 24 hours after he has received information of the death.

The term "sudden" or "accidental" death is regarded as comprising all deaths which occur in the workhouse or infirmary by accident or without previous illness, and cases where the death has been attended by any untoward circumstances which may be deemed to have occasioned or accelerated the death.

If an inquest has been held at the time the medical officer writes, he usually reports the verdict and any rider or recommendation which the jury may attach to their verdict; but if he writes before the inquest the Board obtain this information from the guardians subsequently.

The information thus supplied is generally sufficient to enable the Board to form an opinion on the case, but where an inquest has been held, the Board, if they deem it necessary, obtain from the coroner a copy of the depositions of the witnesses examined at the inquest. If the facts indicate neglect of duty, or the suspicion of neglect of duty, on the part of an officer of the guardians, or any defect in administration, the Board, after consulting one of their Poor Law medical inspectors and the general inspector of the district, make further inquiry, and when the facts have been fully cleared up, they communicate their decision to the guardians. In some cases where the facts are in dispute the Board instruct one of their inspectors to hold a local inquiry at which the evidence is taken on oath, and they then decide what action to take.

The Board believe that the Regulation above referred to ensures their receiving information of all deaths from privation or starvation where the death has occurred in a workhouse or infirmary, but there is no regular method outside the Metropolis by which they are informed of such cases where the death has taken place outside a Poor Law institution. Such cases do, however, come to the knowledge of the Board, either through the coroner reporting them or from letters from private persons or from newspapers sent to the Board or from their inspectors hearing of them. Indeed, it may fairly be presumed that a case in which there has been any notable failure of Poor Law administration generally comes under the Board's notice.

All such cases, however brought to the Board's knowledge, are considered in the manner above described.

As regards the Metropolis, Mr. J. G. Talbot, M.P., has for many years past moved annually for a Parliamentary Return in the following terms:—"Return of the number of all deaths in the Administrative County of London in the year—upon which a Coroner's Jury has returned a verdict of Death from Starvation, or Death accelerated by Privation; together with any Observations furnished to the Local Government Board by Boards of Guardians with reference to Cases included in the Return." This Return is furnished by the Home Office, but the Board receive from them information of the cases to be included in the Return and they ask the guardians of any union in which a case has occurred for their observations with regard to it. A summary of

APPENDIX No. LXX.—*Continued.*

these observations is printed in the Return. They are carefully scrutinised by the Board, and if the administration of the guardians or the procedure of their officers appears to have been at fault the Board communicate with the guardians on the subject.

It is the practice of the Board to comment on the Returns in their Annual Reports.

The following extract from their Report for 1905–6, the last published, may be regarded as typical of these comments —

“A Return (Parliamentary Paper No. 285, Session 1905) was made to an address of the House of Commons of the number of deaths in the administrative county of London in the year 1904, upon which a coroner’s jury had returned a verdict of death from starvation, or death accelerated by privation, together with any observations furnished to us by boards of guardians with reference to cases included in the Return. The number of such deaths returned by the coroners was 42. We requested the guardians of the union or parish in which the death occurred to furnish us with such facts in regard to the deceased as were known or could be ascertained by the guardians or their officers. The purport of the information received in reply is included in the Return. In only one case was death ascribed solely to want of sufficient food. For the most part the deaths appear to have been due to disease consequent upon or accelerated by want or exposure, or both, and to self-neglect. In most of the cases either no application had been made for poor relief, or application was only made when the deceased was in a dying condition. The cause of death does not appear to have been attributable in any case to neglect on the part of the guardians or their officers.”

It may be added that some of the cases included in these Returns have been reported to the Board by the medical officers of the unions when the death occurred, many months before the Return is asked for.

Any such case would have been investigated by the Board on receipt of the Report.

Local Government Board,

September, 1907.

APPENDIX No. LXXI.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY THE LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL AS TO ARRANGEMENTS WITH REGARD TO CONTRACTS FOR THE SUPPLY OF STORES FOR INSTITUTIONS UNDER THE CONTROL OF THE COUNCIL:

The institutions under the control of the Council may be classified under two heads:—(a) The county asylums, accommodating some 18,400 patients and 3,500 officers; (b) Avery Hill Training College and hostel, residential special schools, *i.e.*, schools for mentally and physically defective children, residential and day industrial schools, with accommodation for some 2,055 children and 160 officers; and (c) the Farmfield Inebriate Reformatory with about 113 women and 25 officers.

(a) *County Asylums.*—The county asylums are controlled by an Asylums committee appointed by the Council under Sec. 169 of the Lunacy Act, 1890, and, as a statutory committee, the committee make their own arrangements for the supply of provisions, stores, etc., required for the maintenance of the patients and resident staff and the up-keep of the institutions.

In accordance with a provision of the Lunacy Act, 1890, there is a separate sub-committee of the asylums committee for the visitation and management of each asylum. These visiting sub-committees arrange for the purchase of minor supplies and farm stock which are not included in the Asylums committee’s contracts for “periodical supplies.”

Each visiting sub-committee prepare and submit to the Asylums committee for approval, in such form, for such periods and at such times as the committee determine, an estimate of all “periodical supplies” required. Such supplies comprise the food, provisions, stores and other articles which are required for the asylum during continuing periods, excepting farm stock, which is purchased by the visiting sub-committee. Seeds for the farm and garden required for the asylum are, however, “periodical supplies.”

These estimates when approved by the asylums committee are referred to a contract sub-committee, who then invite tenders for supplies on the basis of the estimates, and in due course open and consider the tenders received. The contract sub-committee consist of representatives of each of the visiting sub-committees. At present there are twenty members. The contract sub-committee are not authorised to accept tenders, but they report to the Asylums committee upon those received, recommending for acceptance those which they think fit. The Asylums committee, when they consider the Contract sub-committee’s recommendations, do so with full information as to the whole of the tenders which have been received.

APPENDIX No. LXXI.—*Continued.*

No visiting sub-committees have power to enter into any contract for "periodical supplies" unless specially authorised to do so.

Most of the contracts for "periodical supplies" last for twelve months, the exceptions being:—

Groceries and Provisions, which are contracted for twice yearly, in periods of seven and five months (April 1st to October 31st, and November 1st to March 31st.)

Earthenware, Glasware, Printed Forms, Books, Stationery, which are contracted for every three years.

Tea, which is purchased every three months.

Except in a few instances, the tendering is thrown open to public competition, tenders being invited by advertisement in the principal newspapers. The exceptions are: Painters' materials, varnishes, indiarubber goods, drugs, druggists' sundries, photographic goods, cricket materials, seeds, bulbs, and tea. Selected firms only are invited to tender for these supplies.

Except in a few instances (mentioned below) forms of tender are issued which contain schedules of the requirements of each class of goods and state the quantities which are estimated to be required at each asylum during the period for which the contract will run. Where necessary and practicable, standard samples are shown and tenders are required to be for the supply of goods equal and answerable to the standard samples. Where no sample is shown the goods are required to be of the best quality or in accordance with a specification contained in the contract schedule. No samples are received from tenderers (except in the case of cocoa, tea and indiarubber goods). In drawing up the schedules, makers' names are excluded, unless for special reasons it is essential that a particular make shall be supplied.

Each tenderer for cocoa is required to submit a sample of what he proposes to supply, this to be in accordance with the specification in the schedule, and the accepted sample becomes the standard sample. The same arrangement applies in the case of indiarubber goods. The submitted samples of both these commodities are analysed by the Council's chemist and reported on by him before a tender is accepted.

The samples of tea are obtained as mentioned in a later paragraph.

In the case of drugs, druggists' sundries, photographic goods and cricket materials, where the actual requirements for twelve months are difficult to estimate, schedules are not issued, but a select list of reputable purveyors is kept, and the firms whose names are on this list are invited to submit their catalogues and to quote a discount off the catalogue prices. Any article priced in the catalogue of the selected tenderer can then be ordered under contract. In judging which of the quotations submitted is the most favourable, the Contract sub-committee's practice is to take a number of articles known to be in considerable demand, and to test, one against the other, the prices quoted therefor in the catalogues of the various tenderers, deducting the discount which is allowed.

All tenders are required to be delivered sealed up, and when a form of tender is issued an envelope for its return is issued with it. Tenders have to be placed in a box which is secured by two different locks, one key being held by the chairman of the Contract sub-committee, and the other by the clerk of the committee. When the tenders are opened by the Contract sub-committee each tender is initialled by the member who opens it, and a record of the number received is made. The tenders are then referred to the clerk of the committee for examination, and he prepares classified lists in readiness for the Contract sub-committee's further consideration, which follows as soon as practicable after the scheduling has been completed.

As a rule the Contract sub-committee recommend for acceptance the lowest tender received, provided the tenderer's references are satisfactory, or provided he has carried out a previous contract satisfactorily. Each tender is not necessarily dealt with as a whole, but the right is reserved where it is thought desirable to treat each item as separately tendered for, and to accept for certain items only. On acceptance of a tender the contractor is required to set his seal on the standard samples, where these are provided.

Special arrangements have been made for the supply of coal and tea.

As regards coal, tenders are invited for the supply of certain coals named in the schedule, or of coals of similar quality. No tenders are considered except those from colliery proprietors (or their sole agents) for coals raised at their collieries.

The Contract sub-committee in considering tenders for coal, have the expert advice of the asylums engineer, and they consider the prices quoted in relation to the calorific value of the coals tendered for. The prices tendered are for the delivery of the coal to the nearest railway siding. Separate contracts are made for haulage from the siding to the asylum.

Supplies of tea are obtained (as stated) every three months. An independent expert employed by the Committee advises as to the price which should be paid, having regard to the condition of the market, for such a tea as is needed at the asylums. Firms whose names are included in a select list, now about twenty in number, are each invited to submit a sample of the tea they can supply for the prize fixed. Such samples bear only a private mark, which also appears in the firm's tender. When the tenders and samples have been received, and before the tenders have been opened, a portion of each sample is sent to the expert, who tastes each in water from each of the asylums. The portions sent to him are numbered only, a list being kept identifying each number with its private mark.

When the expert's report has been received, the tenders are opened by the Contract sub-committee, and by reference to the numbered list of samples each sample is then identified for the first time with the tender to which it relates. The tenders are for the supply to each asylum, in one delivery, of the whole quantity of tea required for the period of the contract. When supplies have been received several samples from each asylum are forwarded to the expert, who tastes them with the sample submitted at the time of tendering and advises acceptance or rejection as the case may be.

Occasionally supplies are purchased on the open market without a running contract. This has been done in the case of fruit during the summer time, when the requirements of the asylums fluctuate a good deal.

All supplies under contract, whether of food or stores, are delivered at the various asylums and are received and (except in the case of tea) examined, and accepted or rejected (as the case may be), by the steward (or storekeeper) who has for his guidance a duplicate set of the standard samples (where provided) on which the contracts are based. In carrying out this duty the steward or storekeeper is guided by reports on samples which he sends from time to time to the Council's chemist for examination.

The committee have appointed an inspector of stores whose duty it is frequently to visit the asylums and *inter alia*, examine all stores, etc., received, to ascertain that they are according to contract.

(b) and (c). *Residential Training College and Hostel, Special and Industrial Schools and Inebriate Reformatory.*—As far as possible all stores for these institutions are purchased under contracts entered into for definite periods (usually one year). Such contracts relate not exclusively to the institutions in question but to the various services of the Council (excluding asylums). These contracts are entered into on the recommendation of a Stores committee of from eight to ten members, the reference to which is as follows:—

(1) The committee shall consist of not less than eight and not more than ten members.

(2) The committee shall consider and report as to the provision of all store depots, including those in connection with the education work of the Council.

(3) The committee shall control all store depots and the staff exclusively employed in connection therewith, and shall carry out the regulations of the Council as to store accounts, tenders for stores, and the ordering, issuing, and condemnation of stores.

APPENDIX No. LXXI.—Continued.

(4) The committee shall undertake the preparation of the schedules and the consideration of the tenders for all goods (except coal, lime- and protosulphate of iron) supplied to the Council.

(5) The ordering and receipt of clothing, boots brushes, and woollen goods, shall be undertaken by the committee, aided by competent examiners to be employed for the purpose.

(6) The committee are authorised to deal during a recess with matters of ordinary current administration requiring immediate action on behalf of the council, provided that: (a) such matters are within the reference to the committee and do not involve new principles or expenditure not authorised by the council; and (b) the committee act only upon such decisions as may be unanimously arrived at by the members present, and report to the council anything done under this authority.

The general contracts, which apply to goods required for all services of the Council except asylums, are entered into annually, tenders being invited by public advertisement, and may be sub-divided under the three heads of:—

- (i.) General stores contracts.
- (ii.) Clothing and boot contracts.
- (iii.) Special contracts for institutions under heads (b) and (c).

A copy of each of the schedules now in use is appended, and attention is directed to the clauses in the conditions of contract dealing with quality of goods. The following is a specimen clause:—

The goods to be supplied under this contract are to be of the quality or sort mentioned in the annexed schedule, and where a sample is referred to must be in every respect equal and answerable to the standard sample shown at , and be such as the Council, or its officer duly authorised, shall approve; and where the quality of the article required to be supplied is not specified in the schedule, or no sample is referred to, such article shall be of the best quality.

(i.) *General Stores Contracts.*—There are for the purposes of these contracts twenty-two schedules, comprising in all about 2,500 items, the schedules being as follows:—

Brass, gunmetal and copper, gas and plumbers' fittings, etc.

Brushes, baskets, mats, sponges and chamois leathers.

Cast iron.

Chemicals, medicines, first-aid appliances, etc.

Chemical apparatus, etc.

Electric fittings, lamps, cables, etc.

Engineers' goods, wrought iron tubing, etc.

Firewood.

Fodder.

Glass.

Horticultural goods, flower pots, wooden edging, stakes, and oak pales and posts.

Indiarubber and canvas hose, sheeting, valves, packings, and asbestos.

Ironmongery, etc.

Iron and steel.

Leather, leather beltings, valves, etc.

Linen and woollen goods, canvas, etc.

Oils, lighting and lubricating, etc.

Oilman's sundries, cotton waste, disinfectants etc.

Paints, colours, varnishes, etc.

Ropes, lines, etc.

Tools and implements, etc.

Tramway car fittings.

Fresh schedules are prepared each year, the several chief officers of the Council furnishing estimates of the quantities of each item which will be required in their respective departments during the contract period.

Tenders, when received, are opened by the Council or by the committee under special authority from the Council, and after being summarised by the clerk of the Council, the committee consider as to the tenders to be recommended to the Council for acceptance. In dealing with the tenders submitted, each item is considered as tendered for separately, and the Council reserves to itself the right of accepting a tender either in whole or as regards only such item or items as it thinks fit. In the absence of special circumstances the lowest tender is accepted, but it may be mentioned that it is the general practice not to enter into contracts of less value than £5 a year, and articles of a similar nature are as far as possible grouped in one contract.

The tenders are accepted by the Council on the recommendation of the Stores Committee, and are completed by the clerk of the Council and the solicitor. Two inspectors are employed to examine all brooms and brushes blankets, and woollen goods delivered under contract, and the Council's chemist examines samples of oils, paints, disinfectants and similar stores delivered under contract.

(ii.) *Clothing and Boot Contracts.*—These contracts are dealt with in a manner similar to that detailed in (i) page 2 and include clothing and boots supplied for all the Council's services (except the asylums.) Two qualified examiners are employed to examine all supplies of boots and clothing.

The undermentioned table shows the number of articles of clothing and boots examined during the last two years:—

Year ended.	Description of articles examined.	Number examined.	Number rejected.	Percentage of rejections.
31st March, 1907 ...	Clothing, hats, caps, etc.	40,290	932	About 2¼ per cent.
„ 1906 ...	„ „ „ „ „ „	31,007	1,540	„ 5 „
„ 1907 ...	Pairs of boots „ „ „ „ „	2,965	286	„ 9½ „
„ 1906 ...	„ „ „ „ „ „	4,621	319	„ 7 „

(iii.) *Special Contracts.*—Contracts are made annually in the manner set forth in (i.) for the supply to industrial and Special Schools, Avery Hill Training College and Farmfield Reformatory, of the following articles: (i.) Grocery, cheesemongery, etc.; (ii.) flour, bran, corn-chandlery, etc.; (iii.) bread, milk, fish, butchers' meat, vegetables, etc.; (iv.) leather, grindery, yarn for mat-making, etc.; and (v.) drapery, tailors' trimmings, etc.

Supply of Coal.—Tenders for the supply of coal for use for all services of the Council (except the asylums) are invited annually by public advertisement and are considered by the Main Drainage Committee of the

Council, who submit recommendations to the Council as to the acceptance of tenders for the several items in the schedule, a copy of which is appended.

Examination of Stores for Quantity and Quality.—A clause is inserted in the several contracts dealing with the rejection of goods not up to sample and empowering the Council to purchase in default. The examination of clothing, boots, oils, brushes, woollen goods, etc., is performed by experts as described above. Other articles are examined by the store-keeper at the depot or institute at which the goods are delivered, and he certifies as to quantity, quality and price.

APPENDIX No. LXXI.—*Continued*.

Supply of Stores.—No goods are ordered for any institution except upon the authority of the controlling committee. The following rule may be accepted as the general practice:—"Goods, with the exception of provisions which are the subject of a contract, are not to be ordered or work done except upon the authority of the committee. It shall be the duty of the superintendent to detail all goods required to be purchased (save provisions under contract) or work required to be done in the want book. The executive officer shall obtain the authority of the committee to purchase the stores required, and advise the superintendent to issue the necessary orders on the contractors." With regard to the ordering of provisions a standing authority is given to superintendents to order up to a certain amount per head per week.

Stocktaking.—The stock in hand at the several institutions is taken periodically by the comptroller of the Council, and compared with the balances of the stores-ldgers. Lists of differences are presented by the comptroller to the committees concerned, and after considering reports thereon from heads of departments concerned the committees authorise the comptroller to pass the

differences. The comptroller keeps all accounts (other than the records of quantities of goods received and issued), checks all contractors' invoices before payment, and audits the whole operations of the stores.

Examination of Invoices and Accounts.—The accompanying print of regulations as to contracts and accounts prescribes the procedure to be followed with regard to the examination of invoices and accounts.

Standing Orders, Regulations, etc.—Copies of Standing Orders and Regulations as to accounts are appended:—

- (1) Farmfield. (*Appendix No. LXXI. A.*)
- (2) Special and Industrial schools. (*Appendix No. LXXI. B.*)
- (3) Avery Hill. (*Appendix No. LXXI. C.*)
- (4) Regulations as to contracts and accounts. (*Appendix No. LXXI. D.*)

G. L. GOMME,

Clerk of the Council.

21st January, 1903.

APPENDIX No. LXXI (A).

Handed in by the London County Council.

REGULATIONS GOVERNING THE ACCOUNTS OF FARMFIELD INEBRIATES REFORMATORY.

I.—ORDERING OF STORES AND EXAMINATION OF INVOICES.

Want book.

1. No goods are to be ordered or work done except upon the authority of the committee, such authority to be previously entered in the Want Book.

Orders to be on authorised forms.

2. All orders are to be made out upon the authorised form and signed by the superintendent of the reformatory.

Instructions to contractors and tradesmen.

3. Instructions in the following terms are to be printed on every order:—

Instructions to the Firm Supplying the Goods.

(1) *Orders.*—All orders will be made on this form only, and will bear the signature of the superintendent. The Council will not be liable for goods ordered in any other manner, and the officers have been directed to see that these instructions are strictly adhered to. Deliveries must not exceed the quantity ordered.

(2) *Invoices.*—Each delivery of goods must be accompanied or preceded by a priced invoice, in duplicate, to be sent to the superintendent, and each invoice must be headed "Public Control Committee." The number of the order and exact name of article must be quoted. If under contract, the item number must also be given. The invoices are to be written on one side of the paper only.

(3) *Accounts.*—At the expiration of every quarter, or other period as may be agreed on, a statement of account showing the date and amount of each invoice rendered during the quarter (or period) must be forwarded on the first day of the month following to the superintendent.

4. When a contractor or tradesman delivers stores short in quantity the invoice is to be corrected to the net quantity received.

5. Invoices are not to be certified for a quantity greater than that stated in the official order.

6. Each delivery of goods must be accompanied or preceded by a priced invoice *in duplicate* to be sent to the superintendent. Invoices for work done must also be rendered by the tradesmen, in duplicate.

7. Upon the receipt of all invoices, it shall be the duty of the superintendent or of her deputy, to examine and sign each of such invoices both as to quantity and quality or as to work done as the case may be. The deputy shall

also examine each invoice as to the prices charged and as to its arithmetical accuracy. The invoice is then to be numbered with an "invoice number." Before an invoice is sent to the comptroller, the carbon copy of the order quoted on the invoice is to be marked with the "invoice number."

8. Upon the face of each invoice, the name of the sub-head of account to which it should be charged is to be stated. If an invoice is to be charged to sundry sub-heads, the amount to be appropriated to each sub-head is to be shewn.

9. The statement of account must be examined to see that invoices for all the items have been received. In the case of an invoice being missing, steps are at once to be taken by the superintendent to obtain it.

10. An account is to be prepared by the superintendent on the form provided in favour of each contractor, shewing the sub-heads of the annual estimate to which the amount for payment is to be charged and the total amount due to the contractor. The account, to which the contractors' statement of account and invoices are to be attached, is to be certified by the superintendent and forwarded to the comptroller.

11. A quarterly summary of accounts shall be prepared on the form provided and shall accompany the accounts sent to the comptroller for payment. The total of each wages sheet, the quarterly salaries (paid by warrant) the value of the farm and garden produce supplied during the quarter, and the total of the petty cash disbursed each month shall also be shewn thereon appropriate to its sub-head of service.

12. The duplicate of every invoice is to be pasted in the invoice guard book.

II.—CASH AND ACCOUNT BOOKS.

13. The particulars from which the claim against the Government for contributions towards the maintenance of inmates is prepared are to be recorded in the maintenance account book. A statement showing details of the amount due each quarter is to be forwarded by the superintendent to the comptroller within seven days of the end of such quarter.

14. Sums of money will be advanced by the Finance Committee to the superintendent as required to meet petty disbursements. All moneys received and disbursed

Stores delivered short in quantity. Orders not to be exceeded. Invoices to be in duplicate. Invoices to be examined by the superintendent.

Invoice guard book.

Maintenance account book.

Petty book.

APPENDIX No. LXXI. (A).—Continued.

by the superintendent are to be recorded in the petty cash book. Each entry on the credit side is to be shown under the sub-head of account to which it relates in the column provided. At the end of each month the cash book is to be ruled off and balanced.

15. A voucher must be obtained for each payment made. The voucher is to show the sub-head of the annual estimate to which the amount is chargeable. At the end of each month a statement supported by the vouchers, showing the payments made during the month, classified under the sub-heads of the annual estimate is to be forwarded to the comptroller. The monthly account should contain full particulars of every charge and the vouchers accompanying it must be numbered to correspond with the items of the account. Any fraction of a penny in the total should be entered as a penny. Travelling and incidental expenses only, as a rule, are to be paid out of these advances.

16. All moneys received by the superintendent on account of sales, etc., are to be recorded in the receipts cash book. Each entry is also to appear under the heading to which it relates in the column provided. At the end of each week the total amount of such receipts is to be paid to the cashier at the County Hall. In the memorandum of advice to the cashier, accompanying each remittance the sub-head to which the amount is to be credited must be stated.

17. No article is to be sold except under an order of the committee.

Payment for articles sold is to be made to the superintendent, who alone is allowed to receive money (see Regulation No. 16) before the removal of the articles.

On the removal of an article, a ticket, showing the name of the purchaser, the quantity and description of the article sold, is to be handed to the receiver.

18. An entry from the carbon copy of the ticket is to be made in the sales book against the name of the purchaser showing the description and value of the article sold. The date of payment and the number of the receipt must be entered against each item.

19. Each supply from the farm is to be entered in the farm supplies book under the heads of the article supplied. The entry is to appear under the sub-head concerned in the column provided. At the end of the quarter the book is to be totalled and the total of each column calculated at the rate fixed by the committee for each description of article. The totals are to be summarised and the total of the summary is to be entered on the "Summary of Accounts" to be sent to the Comptroller (see Paragraph 11.).

20. On each occasion of luncheon being provided for members of the Council and for visitors on official business, the name of each person partaking of the meal is to be entered.

The amount column is to be used for entering: (1) the sum of ls. against the name of each member of the Council; and (2) the word "official" against the name of each official visitor.

The practice of each member and official of the Council entering his name in the book should be encouraged.

Refreshments supplied to Visitors of Inmates to be paid for.

21. A book is to be kept in which the amount paid by each inmate's visitor for refreshment supplied is to be recorded. The charge is to be based on the cost price of the article.

22. A postage-book is to be kept in which will be shown the value of stamps received, and the details of the stamps used.

The postage-book is to be ruled off monthly and the balance of stamps in hand shewn.

23. A record is to be kept showing the purchase of and production of live stock and of its disposal.

24. The farm bailiff will, under the directions of the superintendent, prepare a list on December 31st in each year, showing the quantity, description, and value of all live and dead farm stock, growing crops, cultivations,

etc., in his charge on that date. In the case of plant and tools, the value placed upon each item in the list for the previous year is also to be shown. The list is to be examined by the comptroller who is authorised to call in such assistance as the Asylums committee may afford through one of the stewards of the asylums (or such as he may, with the approval of the committee consider desirable to employ) to test the estimated quantities and the values which the farm bailiff places upon the various items. The list will be presented to the committee together with a statement of account, by the comptroller.

25. In cases where goods are used for a sub-head of service other than that to which the invoice for such goods is charged, the superintendent will prepare a statement on December 31st in each year showing details as to the quantity, description and cost of such stores and the service in which the goods were used. The statement is to be forwarded by the superintendent to the comptroller as soon as possible after the close of each year, so that transfers may be made in the accounts. Provided that the amount of the proposed transfer is, in the opinion of the comptroller, one which should be made.

26. The superintendent will prepare and forward to the comptroller pay sheets for the salary or wages due to each of the staff. The pay-sheet containing the weekly items must be forwarded so as to reach the comptroller on Thursday at 9.30 a.m. each week. The pay-sheet for the monthly items must be forwarded so as to reach the comptroller at 9.30 a.m. on the last day of each month.

The sub-heads of service to which the gross amount of each pay-sheet is chargeable must be shown. Before a pay-sheet is sent to the comptroller, particulars as to amount and appropriation must be entered on the "Summary of Accounts" (see Paragraph 11.).

III.—STORE AND ACCOUNT BOOKS AND STOREKEEPING.

27. The superintendent of the reformatory is to be responsible to the Public Control Committee for the receipt, custody, issue and use of stores and will keep a record of the receipt and issue of all stores.

28. A separate section is to be provided in the stock ledger for each class of stock. The headings in each section are to be arranged alphabetically. The debit side of the stock ledger will be posted from the duplicate invoice pasted in the invoice guard book (see Regulation No. 12). The credit entries will be made from the "receipts for stores issued." The various sections of stock ledger will be balanced and ruled off monthly or quarterly as the comptroller may arrange.

29. Each article is to be entered in the books under one denomination of quantity only, viz., that most generally used. When other denominations occur they are to be reduced to the common one. For example, if an article is used generally in lbs., the receipt of 1 cwt. is to be entered as 112 lbs., and the issue of 8ozs. is to be entered as $\frac{1}{2}$ lb., the same rule applying to measures of length and capacity.

30. Stores are to be issued to such officers as the superintendent of the reformatory may in writing appoint, and a list of the names is to be kept by the storekeeper.

31. Issues of stores shall, as far as possible, be made at a certain time on fixed days, and not at all hours of the day.

Receipts for stores issued for general purposes are to be made out upon the form printed on white paper, and are to be marked with the name of the service for which the stores are required. Receipts for stores issued to the workshops for manufacture are to be made out upon the form printed on red paper. All receipts are to be written in ink.

32. Stores are not to be issued except upon a "receipt for stores issued" given by the officer receiving the stores. The storekeeper is not to make out any receipt for stores, and every alteration in a receipt is to be initialled by the officer receiving the stores. When tangible articles are

APPENDIX No. LXXI. (A).—*Continued.*

issued, the necessity for the issue is to be endorsed on the "receipt for stores issued" in one of the following terms:—

- (a) First Supply.
- (b) Additional to those in use.
- (c) Old one returned.
- (d) To replace one lost.

Approval of issue by the superintendent. 33. The superintendent, or, in her absence, her deputy, is to indicate her approval of all issues by initialling the "receipts for stores issued" previous to the stores being drawn.

Articles to be branded. 34. Stores of the nature of plant are to be branded previous to being issued.

Preservation of receipts. 35. All receipts are to be carefully preserved by the storekeeper. At the end of the month they are to be arranged: (1) In "service" order; and (2) in order of date. They are then to be numbered consecutively and tied up in bundles.

Workshop book. 36. A memorandum book is to be kept in each workroom. An entry is to be made on the left hand page for all materials drawn from the stores on a red receipt form (see Paragraph 31). On the completion of a job an entry is to be made on the right hand page showing the number and description of the article made and the quantity and description of the materials used in its manufacture. The entry on the right hand page will enable the storekeeper to make the necessary entry in the workshop ledger (see No. 37). The articles are to be handed to the storekeeper who will issue them in the same manner as other stores.

Articles manufactured in the shops to be handed to storekeeper. 37. An entry is to be made in the workshop ledger for all stores issued to the workrooms for the manufacture of articles. On the completion of a job the number of the articles made and the quantity of materials used in their manufacture are to be shown in the columns provided. The left hand side of the workshop ledger is to be written up from the red receipts and the right hand side from the memorandum book kept in the workroom (see Regulation No. 36). The book is to be totalled monthly. The totals on the left hand side are to be credited to their respective accounts in the store ledger. The number of articles produced, as shown on the right hand side are to be summarised monthly and posted to the debit of the accounts concerned in the store ledger.

Workshop ledger. 38. When stores and serviceable articles are returned into store after issue, a memorandum of the fact should be pasted in the store invoice book (see No. 12) without moneying out.

Returned stores. 39. No unserviceable stores or article is to be removed from the reformatory or otherwise disposed of except under an order of the committee.

Condemned stores approved by committee. Method of procedure. 40. A condemned stores room is to be established in which as far as possible unserviceable stores and worn out articles are to be placed. An entry is to be made in the "Stores awaiting Condemnation" book, when an article is placed in the condemned stores room. Periodically the entries in the "Stores awaiting Condemnation" book are to be summarised and entered in the "condemned stores" book. The superintendent is to enter against each item a recommendation as to its disposal and obtain the approval of the committee thereto. The Superintendent is then to carry out the instruction of the committee.

Stocktaking. 41. The stock of stores and the stock of farm produce are to be checked by the comptroller once in each year. Any excess or deficiency resulting from a comparison of the stock as shown in the stock-books and the stock as found is to be entered in the stock-books. The comptroller is to submit a list of the discrepancies to the committee, calling their attention to any items which appear to him to need special consideration. The superintendent is to report upon the discrepancies to the committee and the committee will, after receiving the explanation furnished by the superintendent, consider as to authorising the comptroller to pass the discrepancies.

Safety of stores. 42. All stores are to be kept under lock and key. The storekeeper is not to allow the keys of the storeroom to go out of her possession and at night she is to deliver them to the superintendent.

43. Valuable stores are to be kept under a second lock and key in the store room.

44. Stores of the same category are to be kept near to each other, and the different kinds placed in separate and properly fitted receptacles.

45. Labels are to be placed outside pigeon holes, drawers and other receptacles.

46. No one is to be allowed to handle the stores or to be in the storeroom unless under the direct supervision of the storekeeper.

47. The storerooms are to be used solely for the purpose of stocking articles which are shown in the stock ledger as being stock in hand.

48. Upon the receipt of stores, the storekeeper is to place them as quickly as possible into their proper receptacles, but not until quantity and quality have been examined and verified.

49. The superintendent is to keep standard samples of stores and will arrange that all stores supplied shall be compared with the stores contracted for.

50. A stockbook is to be kept by the bailiff, in which to record the quantity of farm produce stored. When produce is disposed of, the quantity and the date of its disposal are to be noted. When work is done which affects the stock—such as threshing—an entry to correspond must be made.

A stock book is to be kept by the dairy attendant in which to record the number of eggs gathered and the quantity of milk, cream and butter produced. Entries as to the quantities disposed of and the date of its disposal are also to be made.

The stock in hand on December 31st each year is to be entered in the stock books. Any surplus or deficiency entry which may be necessary to balance an account must be made and the stock books are to be ruled off (See Paragraph 41.)

IV.—MISCELLANEOUS.

51. An inventory of articles in use in the reformatory is to be prepared on March 31st in each year, showing: (i) the description and number of articles in use on the corresponding date of the previous year; (ii) the number of articles added to the complement during the year; (iii) the number of articles condemned during the year as shown in the condemned stores book or returned to store; (iv) the number of articles in existence when the inventory is prepared; and (v) an explanation of the discrepancies. The inventory is to be checked by the comptroller and is to be presented and reported upon by the superintendent to the committee.

52. The superintendent will keep a book in which to show the number of inmates and staff in the reformatory at the end of each day. The names of the inmates book, admitted, re-admitted, licensed, transferred and discharged each day are also to be recorded.

53. The books and forms used are to be approved by the comptroller.

54. The comptroller is to make test audits from time to time of the account and stock books and to report thereon to the committee.

Inmates Savings.

55. All moneys received by the superintendent on behalf of the inmates are to be entered in the savings bank cash book. On the date of the receipt of each amount an entry is to be made on the debit side. When cash is withdrawn, an entry is to be made on the credit side and the inmate withdrawing it is to sign, in the column provided, for the amount received.

In the event of a withdrawal by an inmate who is not at the time in the institution, a receipt is to be obtained previously to the payment being made. A reference to the receipt—which is to be numbered and filed—is to be made in the space provided in the cash book for the signature. The cash book is to be ruled off monthly and the balance agreed with the cash in hand.

APPENDIX No. LXXI. (A).—*Continued.*

53. An account is to be opened for each depositor and for "Cash," "General Post Office" and "Interest." The entries in the ledger are to be posted from the cash book.

At the end of each month, after a trial balance has been made, the ledger is to be ruled off and the balances brought down.

57. The cash in hand—which must be kept in a cash box and not be kept with other moneys belonging to the Council—held by the superintendent as trustee, must not exceed £5. To comply with this rule a transfer of sums (in even) is to be made periodically to an account to be opened by the superintendent in the General Post Office Savings Bank.

Mark Money System (Rewards to Inmates).

58. Each attendant in charge of inmates is to fill up and submit a "marks sheet" once a week to the superintendent in accordance with the rules governing the Marks system. When a marks sheet is under examination the superintendent will state the number of marks to be deducted in each case where a deduction is to be made.

59. An account is to be opened for each inmate. The ledger is to be written up from the weekly marks sheets approved by the superintendent. At the end of each

quarter the marks so entered are to be totalled and valued, and the amount placed to her credit in the column provided.

60. In a case where a woman is to be licensed in the Advances on near future, an advance of money may be made by the account. superintendent for the purpose of buying materials to be made into outfit clothing. Each advance is to be reported by the superintendent to the committee at their next meeting. Provided always that the said clothing is the property of the council until such time as the balance of mark money, standing to the credit of a woman, be paid to her.

61. When the period of a woman's detention expires Payment of or when a woman is licensed, the amount standing to mark money. her credit will be applied to her benefit or be paid to her by the superintendent, as the committee may direct. No payment, however, is to be made until the amount proposed to be paid has been verified and a reference to the account in the marks ledger endorsed on the receipt.

62. When a woman's marks are forfeited a report as Forfeiture of marks and outfit clothing. to the circumstances is to be made by the superintendent at the next meeting of the committee. Total forfeiture of marks carries with it the forfeiture of any outfit clothing purchased with mark money advanced.

(Signed) H. E. HAWARD.

January, 11th, 1906.

APPENDIX No. LXXI. (B.)

Handed in by the London County Council.

REGULATIONS GOVERNING THE ACCOUNTS OF THE INDUSTRIAL AND SPECIAL SCHOOLS
(APPROVED BY SPECIAL SCHOOLS SUB-COMMITTEE ON 30TH JUNE, 1905).

I.—ORDERING OF STORES AND EXAMINATION OF INVOICES.

1. Goods with the exception of provisions which are the subject of a contract, are not to be ordered or work done except upon the authority of the committee. It shall be the duty of the superintendent to detail all goods required to be purchased (save provisions under contract), or work required to be done in the Want Book. The executive officer shall obtain the authority of the committee to purchase the stores required and advise the superintendent to issue the necessary orders on the contractors.

2. All orders are to be made out upon the authorised form and signed by the superintendent of the school.

3. Each delivery of goods must be accompanied or preceded by a priced invoice in duplicate to be sent to the superintendent.

4. The superintendent shall examine and sign all invoices, both originals and duplicates, as to quantity and quality of the goods received, prices charged and as to arithmetical accuracy. The invoice (original and duplicate) will then be numbered with an invoice number, which must at once be inserted on the carbon copy of the order referred to on the invoice.

5. Invoices are not to be signed for a quantity greater than that stated in the official order.

6. When a contractor or tradesman delivers stores short in quantity the invoice is to be corrected to the net quantity received.

7. Upon the face of each invoice the sub-head of expenditure to which it should be charged is to be stated. If an invoice is to be charged to more than one sub-head the amount to be apportioned to each sub-head is to be shown.

8. Instructions in the following terms are to be printed on every order:—

Orders.—All orders will be made on this form only, and will bear the signature of the superintendent.

The Council will not be liable for goods ordered in any other manner, and the officers have been directed so see that these instructions are strictly adhered to. Deliveries must not exceed the quantity ordered.

Invoices.—Each delivery of goods must be accompanied or preceded by a priced invoice in duplicate to be sent to the superintendent and each invoice must be headed "Special Schools Sub-Committee . . ." The number of the order and exact name of article must be quoted. If under contract, the item number must also be given. The invoices are to be written on one side of the paper only.

Accounts.—At the expiration of every month, a statement of account showing the date and amount of each invoice rendered during the month must be forwarded on the first day of the month following to the superintendent.

Time of Delivery.—Goods must be delivered before 4 p.m. and on Saturdays before twelve noon.

9. The monthly statement of account must be examined Monthly to see that invoices for all the items have been received. statements In the case of an invoice being missing, steps are at once of account. to be taken by the superintendent to obtain it.

10. An account is to be prepared by the superintendent Preparation on the form provided in favour of each contractor showing of accounts the sub-heads to which the invoices should be charged, for payment. as already detailed thereon, and the total amount due to the contractor. The account (to which the contractors statement and invoices are to be attached) is, after being signed and numbered by the superintendent, to be forwarded to the comptroller.

11. A monthly summary of accounts shall be prepared Monthly on the form provided and shall accompany the accounts summary of sent to the comptroller for payment. The value of farm accounts. or garden produce supplied in the month shall be shown thereon together with the totals of the petty cash payments for the month.

APPENDIX No. LXXI. (B.)—*Continued.*

II.—CASH AND ACCOUNT BOOKS.

Cash book.

12. Sums of money will be advanced by the Finance Committee to the superintendent as required to meet petty disbursements. All moneys received and disbursed by the superintendent are to be recorded in the cash book. Each entry on the credit side is to be shown under the heading of account to which it relates in the column provided.

All other moneys received by the superintendent on account of sales, etc., are to be recorded on the debit side of this book. At the end of each week the total amount of such receipts is to be paid to the cashier at the Education Offices and a contra entry made on the credit side in the column provided.

Petty cash payments.

13. A voucher must be obtained for each payment made. The voucher is to show the sub-head to which the amount is chargeable. At the end of each month a statement, supported by the vouchers, showing the payments made during the month is to be forwarded to the comptroller. The monthly account should contain full particulars of every charge, and the vouchers accompanying it must be numbered to correspond with the items of the account. Any fraction of a penny in the total should be entered as a penny. Travelling and incidental expenses only, as a rule, are to be paid out of these advances.

Dinner and tea contributions.

14. A book is to be kept, in the case of the Special Schools, in which will be shown the payments made by each scholar (and teachers, etc., if necessary), for dinners and teas partaken of at the schools. The book is to be totalled weekly and the money, which is to be remitted to the cashier at the Education Offices, will be passed through the cash book in the ordinary way.

Monthly accounts book.

15. An entry is to be made in this book showing the particulars of each account sent in accordance with Paragraph 10 to the comptroller. At the end of each month, the book will be ruled down and the total shown therein will be the total of the accounts sent forward to the comptroller for payment.

Salaries and wages.

16. On or before the 14th of the month the superintendent will prepare and forward to the executive officer a pay sheet for the salaries and wages due to each of his staff for the month and show thereon the sub-heads to which the amounts are chargeable.

Garden and poultry produce.

17. *Eggs and Fowls.*—An entry for the number of eggs laid, and for the number of fowls killed is to be made on each occasion on the debit side of the "provisions" stock book. The credit entry will be made from the "issues" book.

Vegetables and Fruit.—An entry is to be made in the "garden produce" book (consumption), on each occasion of vegetables and fruit being taken from the garden and the value thereof is to be apportioned as between "officers" and "children." Entries from the garden produce book to correspond with the *total value* of these items will be made on each occasion on the credit side of the "provisions stock" book. The entry on the debit side of the "provisions stock" book will be the monthly total of these credit items, and will correspond with the total shown of the value of produce supplied for the month in the "garden produce" book.

Garden produce and poultry account book.

18. For the purposes of the Home Office Return a "garden produce and poultry" account will be opened. The entries on the debit side will be the expenditure (cash payments) for seeds, plants, fowls, fowls' food, etc. The entries on the credit side in respect of vegetables and fruit used will be the monthly totals shown in the "garden produce" book. The credits on account of eggs and fowls will be the monthly totals shown in the "provisions stock" book on the credit side.

A record is also to be kept in this book showing :—

- (a) The number of fowls added to stock.
- (b) The number of fowls disposed of.
- (c) The number of fowls remaining in stock.

Invoice guard book.

19. The duplicate of every invoice is to be pasted in the invoice guard book.

20. On each occasion of the committee partaking of Committee luncheon at a school the names of the members must be recorded in the committee luncheon book, other details as to date of payment, etc., will be recorded.

21. A postage book is to be kept in which will be shown the value of stamps received and the details of the stamps used. The postage book is to be ruled off monthly and the balance of stamps in hand shown.

Postage book.

III.—STORE ACCOUNT BOOKS AND STORE-KEEPING.

22. The superintendent of the school is to be responsible to the executive officer for the receipt, custody, issue, and use of stores, and will keep a record of the receipt and issue of all stores.

Responsibility of the superintendent.

23. The books in which the accounts relating to stores are to be kept are to be as follow :—

Store ledgers—

Provisions received and consumed book (officers).

Provisions received and consumed book (children).

Necessaries and miscellaneous receipts and issues book.

Clothing stock book.

Clothing materials receipt and conversion account book.

Day book of workshop sales.

Workshop book.

Workshop account book.

Register and disposal of articles made (woodwork, etc.).

Provisions and Necessaries Books.—The debit entries in these books will be made from the duplicate invoices and the credit entries from the "issues" books.

Clothing Stock Book.—The debit entries in this book will be made either from the duplicate invoices or from entries in the workshop book. The credit entries will be made from the "issues" book.

Clothing Materials Receipt and Conversion Account Book.—The debit entries will be made from the duplicate invoices; the credit entries from the workshop books.

Day Book of Workshop Sales.—In the case of work being undertaken for other schools or for private individuals the orders received therefore will be detailed in this book.

Workshop Book.—A memorandum book is to be kept by the tradesmaster in each shop. An entry is to be made on the left hand page for all materials drawn from stock and the tradesmaster will sign for this material below the last entry on this page. On the right hand page will be shown the number and description of the articles made or repaired, and the quantity and description of the materials used respectively therefor, together with the estimated cost of the work done. The entries on this side will enable the necessary entries to be made in the "clothing stock" book and in the "clothing conversion" books. The articles are to be handed to the superintendent who will sign for them and issue them in the same manner as other stores.

Workshop Account Book.—This will be kept for the purposes of the Home Office Return, and will show the expenditure on wages and materials, etc., in each workshop, the particulars of the work done, and the estimated cost, and will be written up on the debit side from the invoices. Particulars of other expenditure incurred in each shop (such as wages, petty cash, work done by one shop for another shop) will be written up from the documents on which such items appear. The entries on the credit side will be made from the particulars shown in the workshop book.

In the case of the Day Industrial Schools, where clothing stock books are not required, additional columns will be provided in the workshop account book to show the additions to, and the issues from, stock and the stock of manufactured articles on hand.

APPENDIX No. LXXI. (B.)—*Continued.**Register and Disposal of Articles Made (Woodwork, etc.)—*

In the case of articles (such as woodwork, saddlery and millinery) made in the schools, a book shall be kept showing in respect of each article; (i) the date of production; (ii) its description; (iii) estimated cost; (iv) the amount realised and when disposed of; and (v) date of payment.

24. Each article is to be entered in the books under one denomination of quantity only, viz., that most generally used. When other denominations occur, they are to be reduced to the common one. For example, if an article is generally used in lbs., the receipt of 1 cwt. is to be entered as 112 lbs., and the issue of 8 ounces is to be entered as $\frac{1}{2}$ lb., the same rule applying to measures of length and capacity.

25. All stores are to be kept under lock and key.

26. Stores of the same category are to be kept near to each other, and the different kinds placed in separate and properly fitted receptacles. Labels are to be placed outside pigeon holes, drawers, etc.

27. No one is to be allowed to handle the stores or to be in the store room unless under the direct supervision of the superintendent.

28. The store rooms are to be used solely for the purpose of stocking articles which are shown in the stock ledger as being stock in hand.

29. Upon the receipt of stores, the superintendent is to place them as quickly as possible into their proper receptacles, but not until quantity and quality have been examined and verified.

30. Stores are to be issued to such officers as the superintendent of the school may in writing appoint, and a list of the names is to be kept.

31. The superintendent, or, in his absence his deputy, is to indicate his approval of all issues by initialling the "issues" books, previous to the stores being drawn.

32. Stores of the nature of plant are to be branded before being issued.

33. When an issue is made of stores, particulars of the stores drawn shall be duly recorded in an "issues" book in which the person receiving the same shall sign his name. In the case of raw material drawn by the tradesmasters and flour taken from the baker's stock, the officers concerned shall sign for the quantities they receive in their workshop books and work books respectively.

When tangible articles are issued, the necessity for the issue is to be shown in the "issues" book in one of the following terms:—

- (a) First supply.
- (b) Additional to those in use.
- (c) Old one returned.
- (d) To replace one lost.

34. At those schools where bread is made the following procedure shall be adopted. The baker shall keep a "work" book, in which he will record on each occasion the quantity of flour he draws from stock to make bread, etc., initialling for the same therein. He will show the actual quantity of flour used for breadmaking apportioning the same as between "officers" and "boys." He will also show the number of loaves made and the actual and reputed weight of the bread made, divided in the latter case as between "officers" and "boys." From this work book the credit entries will be made for the flour used and the debit entries in the "provision" ledgers for the bread made.

35. The stock of stores is to be checked by the comptroller once in each year. Any excess or deficiency resulting from a comparison of the stock as shown in

the store books and the stock as found is to be entered therein. The comptroller is to submit a list of the discrepancies to the committee calling their attention to any items which appear to him to need special consideration. The executive officer is to report upon the discrepancies to the committee and the committee, will, after receiving the explanation furnished by the executive officer, consider as to authorising the comptroller to pass the discrepancies.

36. When stores are returned to the superintendent after issue, a credit entry (in red ink) is to be made in the "issues" book. Stores returned to superintendent or storekeeper.

37. On the occasion of any articles being condemned as unserviceable or worn out, an entry is to be made in the "stores awaiting condemnation" book. The articles will, so far as it is practicable to do so, be placed together so that they may be inspected. Periodically the entries in the "stores awaiting condemnation" book are to be summarised and entered in the "condemned stores" book. The superintendent is to enter against each item a recommendation as to its disposal and the executive officer will obtain the approval of the committee thereto. The superintendent is then to carry out the instructions of the committee. Condemned stores.

No unserviceable stores or articles are to be removed from the school, or otherwise disposed of, except under an order of the committee.

38. The superintendent is to keep standard samples of stores, and he is to compare all stores supplied with the stores contracted for. Samples.

39. An inventory of articles is to be prepared each year showing: (i.) the description and number of articles in use on the corresponding date of the previous year; (ii.) the number of articles added to the complement during the year; (iii.) the number of articles condemned, as shown in the "condemned stores" book or returned to store; (iv.) the number of articles in existence when the inventory is prepared; and (v.) an explanation of the discrepancies. Inventory.

The inventory is to be checked by the comptroller and is to be presented and reported upon by the executive officer to the committee.

IV.—MISCELLANEOUS.

40. A book shall be kept showing the names of the children admitted, re-admitted, licensed or discharged, and will also show the number in the school at the close of each day. Daily record of admissions and discharges.

41. The superintendent shall prepare and forward to the executive officer the quarterly claims, and in the case of day industrial schools, the yearly claims against the Treasury, etc. After certification by the executive officer, the account will be forwarded to the comptroller who will make the claims upon the authority concerned. Contributions and grants from Treasury, etc.

42. No articles are to be sold or work done without the authority of the committee. Sales and work done.

43. The books and forms used are to be those approved by the comptroller. Comptroller to approve books and forms.

44. The comptroller is to make test audits from time to time of the account books, and he is to report thereon to the committee. Audit by comptroller. Uniformity in accounts.

45. For the purposes of uniformity, a list is to be prepared by the superintendent showing the nature of the expenditure he proposes to charge under each head of account. The list is to be approved by the comptroller.

46. Any question as to the meaning or intention of these regulations is to be referred to the comptroller, or to the committee for decision. Questions to be referred to comptroller or committee.

APPENDIX No. LXXI. (C.)

*Handed in by the London County Council.*REGULATIONS GOVERNING THE ACCOUNTS OF THE AVERY HILL TRAINING COLLEGE
(APPROVED BY THE HIGHER EDUCATION SUB-COMMITTEE, APRIL 19th, 1907.)

I.—ORDERING OF STORES.

Want book.

1. Goods, with the exception of Provisions which are the subject of a contract, shall not be ordered or work done, save in cases of emergency, except upon the authority of the committee. It shall be the duty of the principal to detail all goods required to be purchased (save provisions under contract) or work required to be done in the want book. The executive officer shall obtain the authority of the committee for the same and advise the principal to issue the necessary orders to the contractors.

1 Goods ordered or work required to be done on emergency shall, at the time, be detailed in the "want" book in red ink, and authority therefore obtained at the next meeting of the committee.

Orders to be on authorised forms.

2. All orders shall be upon the authorised forms and be signed by the principal who shall see that the instructions thereon are strictly adhered to.

II.—INVOICES, ETC.

Invoices to be in duplicate.

3. Each delivery of goods shall be accompanied or preceded by a priced invoice in duplicate.

Invoices to be examined by the principal.

4. The principal or her approved deputy shall examine and sign all invoices (originals and duplicates) as to quantity, quality, prices and arithmetical accuracy.

Credit notes.

5. Credit notes (with the exception of those for "returned empties" the council not being responsible for the return of, or payment for, empties) received from contractors shall be dealt with in the same manner as invoices for stores delivered.

Preparation of accounts for payment

6. An account shall be prepared by the principal on the form provided, one for each contractor, showing the sub-heads to which the invoices are chargeable as previously detailed thereon, and the total amount due to the contractor. Such account (with the contractor's statement, invoices and credit notes attached) shall after being signed and numbered by the principal, be forwarded to the comptroller (Education Offices.)

Monthly summary of accounts.

7. A "Monthly Summary of Accounts" shall be prepared on the form provided and shall accompany the accounts sent to the comptroller for payment. The totals of the petty cash payments for the month shall also be shown thereon (Registered 20.)

III.—ISSUE OF STORES.

Issues to authorised officials.

8. Stores shall be issued to such officers as the principal may, in writing, appoint, and a list of the names shall be kept.

Receipts for stores issued

9. Stores shall only be issued upon a "receipt for stores issued" form signed by the person receiving them. The store official shall not make out a receipt for stores and any alteration on a receipt, increasing the original quantity approved, shall be initialled by the principal or her authorised deputy.

Approval of issue by principal.

10. The principal or her approved deputy shall indicate her approval of all issues by initialling the "receipts for stores issued" previous to the stores being drawn.

Articles to be branded.

11. Articles of the nature of plant shall be branded before issue.

IV.—CUSTODY AND RECORD OF STORES.

Responsibility of the principal.

12. The principal shall be responsible to the executive officer for the receipt, custody, issue and use of stores and shall keep a record of the receipt and issue of the same.

13. The books relating to the accounting for stores shall be as follow :—

Store ledgers : Provisions ; Household necessities.
Invoice guard book.
Condemned stores book.

14. The store room shall be used solely for the purpose of stocking articles which are shown in the stock ledger as being stock in hand and all stores shall be kept under lock and key.

15. On the occasion of any stores or articles being condemned as unserviceable or worn out, an entry shall be made in the "condemned stores" book. The articles shall, so far as practicable, be placed together so that they may be inspected. The principal shall enter against each item a recommendation as to its disposal and the executive officer shall obtain the approval of the committee thereto. The principal shall then carry out the instructions of the committee.

No unserviceable stores or articles shall be removed from the college, or otherwise disposed of, except under an order of the committee.

16. The stock of stores shall be checked by the comptroller once in each year. Any excess or deficiency resulting from a comparison of the stock as shown in the store books with the stock as found shall be entered therein. The comptroller shall submit a list of the differences to the committee calling attention to any items which appear to need special consideration. The executive officer shall report upon the differences to the committee who will consider as to authorising the comptroller to pass the same.

17. An Inventory of articles shall be prepared each year showing : (i.) the description and number of articles in use on the corresponding date of the previous year ; (ii.) the number of articles added to the complement during the year ; (iii.) the number of articles condemned (as shewn in the "condemned stores book") or returned to store ; (iv.) the number of articles in existence when the inventory is prepared ; and (v.) an explanation of the differences.

The inventory shall be checked by the comptroller and shall be presented and reported upon by the executive officer to the committee.

V.—CASH RECEIPTS AND PAYMENTS

18. The books relating to cash receipts and payments shall be as follows :—

Cash book.
Postage book.
Sundry fees register.
Visitors' meals, etc., register.
Stationery sales register.
Committee luncheon book.

19. Sums of money will be advanced by the Finance Committee to the principal as required to meet petty disbursements.

20. A voucher shall be obtained for each payment made. The voucher shall show the sub-head to which the amount is chargeable. At the end of each month a statement, supported by the vouchers, showing the payments made during the month shall be forwarded to the comptroller (Education Offices). The statement shall contain full particulars of every charge and the vouchers accompanying it shall be numbered to correspond with the items of the account. *Travelling and incidental expenses only shall as a rule be paid out of these advances.*

21. On or before the 14th of each month the principal shall prepare and forward to the executive officer a "staff return" from which will be prepared the pay

APPENDIX No. LXXI. (C).—*Continued.*

sheet for the salaries and wages due for the ensuing calendar month.

VI.—GENERAL.

22. All cash account and store books shall be balanced and ruled off at the end of the financial year, viz., March 31st.

23. Those officials of the college (or their deputies) who receive or pay money on behalf of the Council shall be guaranteed in such sums as may be approved by the Finance Committee.

24. The comptroller shall make test audits from time to time of the account books and he shall report thereon to the committee.

Audit by
comptroller.

25. The books and forms used shall be those approved by the comptroller, who shall issue, for the guidance of the officials concerned, explanatory notes with regard to the keeping of the store and other accounts, and any question as to the meaning of these regulations shall be referred to him.

Comptroller
to approve
books, forms,
etc.

(Signed) H. E. HAWARD,
Comptroller.

AVERY HILL TRAINING COLLEGE.

REGULATIONS AS TO ACCOUNTS.

NOTES BY THE COMPTROLLER FOR THE GUIDANCE OF THE PRINCIPAL. (APPROVED BY THE HIGHER EDUCATION SUB-COMMITTEE, APRIL 19TH, 1907).

Invoices.

1. The invoices (originals and duplicates) should be marked with an "invoice number" which should at once be inserted on the carbon copy of the order to which they refer. This will prevent a second invoice being dealt with. The page of the want book should also be stated on each invoice. When an invoice refers to two or more pages, the page to which it relates should be stated against each item on the invoice.

An invoice number should also be given to each credit note and upon it should be stated the number of the invoice to which it relates.

2. Invoices which require correction will be dealt with as follows:—

(a) The original invoice should in all cases be dealt with and forwarded to the comptroller for payment.

(b) Where an item is struck out through non-delivery, rejection or other cause, the reason for deleting the item should be briefly stated on the invoice.

(c) If the quantity received is less than the quantity invoiced, the invoice should be altered accordingly and the correction initialled.

(d) Invoices will not be signed for a quantity greater than that stated in the order.

(e) When, in order to rectify an obvious error, an increase is made in an invoice in respect of quantity price or extension, the original invoice duly corrected and initialled should be sent forward for payment accompanied by an invoice marked "corrected invoice" supplied by the contractor, to support the alteration made. The principal should obtain this "corrected invoice" which she should regard as a memorandum and neither sign nor number. The principal should however exercise her discretion before increasing any invoice in the manner indicated, as such increase can only be justified in exceptional cases.

3. The monthly statement should be examined to see that invoices for all the items have been received. In the case of an invoice being missing, steps should at once be taken by the principal to obtain it.

4. Every invoice should show the sub-head of expenditure to which it is chargeable and in the case of an invoice being chargeable to more than one sub-head the apportionment should be shown.

5. Duplicate invoices and credit notes (where necessary) should be filed in the "invoice guard" book.

Duplicate
invoices.

Stores.

6. When articles of the nature of plant are issued, the necessity for the issue should be shown on the "receipts for stores issued" in one of the following terms:—

As to need
for issue
of certain
stores.

(a) First supply.

(b) Additional to those in use.

(c) Old one returned.

(d) To replace one lost.

7. Should stores be returned to stock after issue details of the same should be shown, without moneying out on a memorandum which should be filed in the "invoice guard" book. The entries in the ledgers should then be made from these memoranda as in the case of duplicate invoices. If stores are returned within a month of their issue the quantity should be recorded on the credit side of the ledger in red ink.

Stores
returned.

8. *Store Ledgers.*—The debit entries in these books will be made from the duplicate invoices and the credit entries from the "receipts for stores issued."

Store books.

9. Each article will be entered in the books under one denomination of quantity only, viz., that generally used. When other denominations occur, they will be reduced to the common one. For example, if an article is generally used in lbs., the receipt of 1 cwt. should be entered as 112 lbs., and an issue of 8 ozs. should be entered as $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. The same rule will apply to measures of length and capacity.

Denomina-
tion of
quantities.

10. Stores on delivery, should after examination, be put as quickly as possible into their proper receptacles, of those of the same category being kept near each other. Labels should be placed outside pigeon holes, drawers, etc.

Arrange
ment, etc., of
stores.

11. No one should handle the stores or be in the store-rooms unless under the direct authority of the principal or her approved deputy.

Authorised
officials and
store room.

Cash—Receipts and Payments.

12. All moneys received and paid by the principal will be recorded in the cash book which will be divided into two sections. The first section should show the receipts and payments on account of petty disbursements and salaries. The cheques received by the principal for these two purposes will be shown on the debit side of this book in separate columns; on the credit

Cash book.

APPENDIX No. LXXI. (C).—*Continued.*

side the "petty disbursement" payments will be shown under the heading of account to which they relate, while the payment of "salaries" will be shown in a separate column.

In the second section will be recorded receipts by the principal of students' dinner fees, stationery sales, etc., as shown in detail in the registers (Notes 14 to 17). The sums received will be shown on the debit side in total under those heads. On the credit side will be shown the total (in one) amount paid into the bank.

13. The postage-book should show the value of stamps received and the details of stamps used. It should be ruled off monthly and the balance of stamps in hand shown.

14. This register will show the fees received from each resident student, which information should be obtained from a statement supplied by the assistant comptroller (Education) and the dinner fees, etc., received from the day students, terminally or weekly. In the latter case the money will be paid in advance to the principal who will give receipts therefor. From the counterfoils of these the details will be recorded in the register.

15. When visitors to the staff partake of meals, etc., at the college, an order should be sent by the member of the staff concerned to the matron so that the latter may make provision for such meals, etc. These orders should be handed by the matron to the clerk so that she

may take steps to recover the money for the meals supplied. Details of the number of meals supplied, amount due, number of receipt, etc., will be recorded in this register.

16. On receipt of stationery to be sold to the students a "stationery sales" account will be opened. The debit to this account will be the value of such stationery as shown by the requisitions. The credits will be the total of the daily receipts. The balance on this account should represent the value of the stock of stationery in hand which will be periodically tested by the comptroller.

17. When a member of the council or of the committee partake of luncheon, etc., at the college his name should be recorded (preferably by himself) in the "committee luncheon book." The details as to payment will also be recorded therein.

18. The registers above referred to should be totalled and the amounts passed through the cash book (Note 12) a reference to the same being given against each total. The money should then be paid into the bank each day, if necessary. The bank "paying in" slip accompanying the money should show details as to how the money is made up, whether for students' fees, etc., or stationery sales, etc.

(Signed) H. E. HAWARD,

Comptroller.

APPENDIX No. LXXI. (D).

Handed in by the London County Council.

REGULATIONS AS TO CONTRACTS AND ACCOUNTS.

(Revised by the Finance Committee, June 26th, 1907.)

I.—ORDERS AND CONTRACTS.

1. The several committees, when giving authority for works or goods, are to require the officer giving the order to state thereon the name of the committee from whom the order proceeds, and to request the person or firm to whom the order is sent to state on each account the name of the committee, the number of the order and the name of the place where the work was done or the goods delivered, and to render a separate account in respect of each committee.

2. Contracts and agreements involving the payment of money either to or by the council, shall be sent to the comptroller for registration immediately upon their execution; also a memorandum, certified by the head of the department concerned, of all estimates which, having been accepted, have virtually become contracts.

[Hereafter the word "contract" means a contract, an agreement, or an accepted estimate, as the case may be.]

II.—DOCUMENTS FOR COMPTROLLER.

3. All documents required by these regulations to be sent to the comptroller must be addressed to him as follows:—

Accounts relating to services other than Education—County Hall, Spring Gardens, S.W.

Accounts relating to Education services—Education Offices, Victoria Embankment, W.C.

III.—EXAMINATION OF INVOICES AND ACCOUNTS.

(i.) *When they relate to Stores.*

4. Every contractor delivering stores shall deliver therewith invoices made out *in duplicate*, bearing the name of the committee from whom the order proceeded. The number of the order, the place of delivery and the exact name of each article must be quoted.

5. Upon the receipt of the goods the store officer shall examine and sign each of such invoices as to quantity, quality and prices. Such officer shall then send to the comptroller one of the invoices so signed, and numbered with a store invoice number. Where a contractor neglects to deliver invoices with the goods, it shall be the duty of the store officer to apply for such invoices, and to continue the application until they are received. The store officer shall notify the comptroller of the cause of the delay whenever an invoice is not examined and forwarded to the comptroller within seven days of the delivery of the goods.

6. Credit notes (with the exception of those for "returned empties"—the council not being responsible for the return of, or payment for, empties) received from contractors are to be dealt with in the same manner as invoices for stores delivered. An invoice number is to be given to each credit note, and upon it must be stated the number of the invoice upon which is charged the item to which the credit note relates.

7. The prices of all articles supplied under contract are to be doubly checked; first by the department by which the orders were given, and afterwards by the comptroller. The responsibility of checking the prices of articles supplied which are not included in any contract is to devolve entirely upon the head of the department by whom the orders were given.

8. At the expiration of every quarter, month or other period as agreed with the contractor, the contractor shall forward to the comptroller a list of invoice totals for the preceding period, a separate list being sent in respect of the orders of each committee. The only particulars required in these lists are the date and total of each invoice, the number of the order, and the name of the depot or place at which the goods were delivered. The comptroller shall compare them with the invoices, and if found correct shall forward such list with the invoices to the department concerned. The head of

APPENDIX No. LXXI. (D).—*Continued.*

the department shall certify the account, if accurate, and return it to the comptroller with a view to payment.

(ii.) *When they do not relate to Stores.*

9. All accounts of fees, demand notes for rates and taxes, and all other bills and accounts shall be sent direct to the comptroller for registration. If sent to any other department, they shall at once, before being dealt with by such department, be sent to the comptroller for registration.

10. The comptroller shall forward the accounts, immediately after registration, to the heads of the departments to which they relate, for their examination and certificate, after which they shall be returned to the comptroller for his examination.

11. If an account is not received for examination within fourteen days after the expiration of the month in which the services have been rendered or the work completed, it shall be the duty of the department concerned to request the creditor to render an account forthwith to the comptroller, and to continue the application until the account is received.

12. In cases where it is necessary that the invoices, accounts, or claims should be summarised before certificate by the head of the department, they shall, after examination and when ready for certificate, be sent to the comptroller for that purpose, and he shall prepare the account for the certificate of the head of the department.

13. All prices under contract (except for printing) shall be doubly checked, first by the department by which the orders were given, and afterwards by the comptroller; but when not under contract, and in case of printing, the responsibility of checking the prices shall devolve entirely upon the chief officer of the department by whom the orders were given.

14. In all accounts for works, the contract prices are to be distinguished by the professional officers from those not under contract; the former being marked in red and the latter in blue.

15. Any variation amounting in value to:—

£100 and upwards on contracts under £20,000;

£500 and upwards on contracts over £20,000 and under £100,000;

£1,000 and upwards on contracts over £100,000, is to be reported by the head of the department to the committee concerned. Any variation which would reduce the amount of advances payable from time to time to the contractor is to be referred to the comptroller for his information.

16. Before preparing a certificate for any payment under a contract for works, the professional officer will notify to the comptroller the amount proposed to be paid. When the amount payable has been verified by the comptroller, the professional officer will prepare and issue his certificate and forward the same to the comptroller with a view to payment.

(iii.) *Correction of Invoices.*

17. Invoices and accounts which require correction must be dealt with as follows:—

(a) The original invoice must in all cases be dealt with and forwarded to the comptroller for payment.

(b) In every case where an item is struck out through non-delivery, rejection, or other cause, the reason for deleting the item must be briefly stated on the invoice.

(c) If the quantity received is less than the quantity invoiced, the invoice must be altered accordingly and the correction initialled.

(d) When in order to rectify an obvious error an increase is made in an invoice in respect of quantity, price or extension, the original invoice, duly corrected and initialled, must be sent forward for payment accompanied by an invoice marked "corrected invoice," supplied by the contractor to support the alteration made. It shall be the duty of the examining officer to obtain this "corrected invoice," which he should regard as a memorandum and neither sign nor number. The examining officer should exercise his discretion before increasing any invoice

in the manner indicated, as such increase can only be justified in exceptional cases.

(iv.) *Certification of Accounts.*

18. The head of a department may, if he so desire, certify accounts by means of his initials, provided that the certification of payments to contractors for works and of accounts for purchase-moneys and other accounts of a like nature shall be attested by his signature.

19. During a recess or under exceptional circumstances, the signature of the deputy is accepted, for a limited period, on the written request of the head of the department.

20. It shall be the duty of the department responsible for the certification of an invoice or account to state upon the face of every invoice or account payable by the council, a reference to the authority under which the expenditure has been incurred.

21. Heads of departments shall present to the Finance Committee at their second meeting in every quarter a complete return of all liabilities incurred more than three months previously and not certified for payment. If there are no such outstanding liabilities a *nil* return must be presented.

22. The comptroller is required to present to the Finance Committee, at their first meeting in every quarter, a schedule of all accounts rendered more than forty-two days previously and not certified for payment.

IV.—APPROVAL BY COMMITTEES.

23. All accounts are to be signed by the chairman or duly authorised member of the committee directing the expenditure, as indicating the approval of that committee, before they are submitted to the Finance Committee; but the comptroller may submit accounts requiring immediate payment without the signature of the chairman or other member of the executive committee. The Finance Committee are to be informed by the committee concerned whenever a member (other than the chairman) of the committee directing the expenditure is authorised to sign accounts. The signature of the chairman or other member shall not be required to the weekly accounts of wages and disbursements certified by the clerk of the Council, nor to the accounts of the Tribunal of Appeal and of the Standing Joint Committee, certified by the respective clerks of those bodies.

24. In order to avoid delay in passing accounts for payment, the chairman or other member of an executive committee appointed by such committee may, between the meetings of the committee, approve and sign any duly certified account presented to him by the comptroller, provided that no account shall be so signed unless the amount of or prices contained therein have already been approved by the committee or settled under an express authorisation of the committee, or is for costs and charges certified by the solicitor; and further, that no account shall be so signed except at the county hall or other offices of the council.

25. The comptroller shall report to the committee concerned, at their next meeting, every account signed by the chairman or other member of the committee since the last meeting of the Committee, and also any account paid without such signature; and the comptroller shall, if required, produce the accounts, or any of them, to the committee, in order that they may investigate the same as fully as they might have done if presented to them in the first instance.

26. The comptroller is to report to the Finance Committee every case in which an account paid does not receive the approval of the committee on whose behalf the payment was made.

27. Claims for small charges and for petty disbursements generally, may, after being certified by the head of a department and examined by the comptroller, be paid without being submitted to a committee; but the comptroller may, if he think fit, require that any such claim shall be submitted, before payment, to the appropriate committee for their approval.

H. E. HAWARD,
Comptroller.

APPENDIX No. LXXII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY THE LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL AS TO THE INCIDENCE
OF COST OF MAINTENANCE OF PAUPER LUNATICS IN LONDON.

1. On the 3rd December, 1907, the Council without a division passed the following resolutions:—

(a) That in the opinion of the Council—

(i.) The existing system of charging the cost of maintaining London pauper lunatics is complicated, cumbersome, and unsatisfactory.

(ii.) The cost of maintaining London pauper lunatics should be charged directly upon the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund instead of first being charged upon individual poor law unions.

(iii.) The grant of 4s. a week for each pauper lunatic, payable by the Council to Guardians, pursuant to Section 24 (2f) of the Local Government Act, 1888, should be paid into the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund, or be deducted from the cost of maintenance before such cost is charged upon the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund.

(iv.) The responsibility for maintaining all pauper lunatics belonging to unions in the County of London should be in the hands of the Asylums Committee of the Council.

(v.) The responsibility for ascertaining the settlement of pauper lunatics in the County of London, and obtaining adjudication orders, and of effecting contributions from estates and relatives of lunatics, should be transferred to the Council.

(vi.) The charges made by some of the boards guardians in connection with the certification and removal of pauper lunatics are excessive.

(b) That the foregoing resolution be sent to the Royal Commission on the Poor Laws, with a request that evidence may be received from the Council with respect to the matters referred to therein.

2. The following statement is made in pursuance of these resolutions, and for convenience it is arranged in the same order as the resolutions.

3. By way of introduction it should be stated that the Asylums Committee of the London County Council is the Visiting Committee within the meaning of the Lunacy Act, 1890, and that its function is to administer the ten lunatic asylums belonging to the County of London. It is also responsible for recommending the London County Council to provide asylum accommodation to meet any increase in the number of London pauper lunatics. The Council, as the local authority for the purposes of the Lunacy Act, 1890, is required by Section 239 of that Act to exercise the powers conferred by the Act for providing asylum accommodation by a visiting committee.

4. Prior to the passing of the Local Government Act, 1888, the provision and administration of County lunatic asylums was in the hands of the County justices. This Act transferred these powers to County Councils, and the London County Council took over the London County asylums in 1889.

5. On 1st January, 1890, the number of London lunatics for whom the County was primarily responsible to find accommodation was 10,104. On the 1st January, 1907, the number was 18,841.

6. In April, 1890, the estimated population of the County of London (excluding the City) was 4,151,795. In April, 1907, the estimated population was 4,670,000.

7. Thus, during the last seventeen years there has

been an approximate increase in the population of the County of London (excluding the City) of nearly 12½ per cent.; but during the same period there has been an increase in the number of lunatics for whom the County is responsible to find accommodation of 86.4 per cent.

8. As against these figures it is worthy of note that the population of England and Wales during the last seventeen years has increased by 21½ per cent., while the number of pauper and criminal lunatics in county and borough asylums throughout England and Wales in 1889 was 50,825, and in 1907 was 88,532, so that in this case the increase is only 74.2 per cent.

9. Over a period of seventeen years, ending January, 1907, the ratio of insane persons in England and Wales registered by the Commissioners in Lunacy (including private pauper and criminal lunatics) has increased from 29.92 to 35.48 per 10,000 of population. Comparable figures for the County of London show an increase during a similar period from 39.4 to 55.2 per 10,000 of the estimated population.

RESOLUTION (a) (i.).

10. To obtain figures for a complete statement of expenditure it is necessary to revert to the year 1904-5.

11. The London County Council is responsible for the provision of asylum accommodation for County of London lunatics, and for the pensions paid to asylum officials, the City Corporation being similarly responsible for the City. The average number of patients of all classes in London County asylums in the year 1904-5 was 16,920, and in the City asylum in the year 1904 563, while the numbers on 31st December, 1904, were 16,987 and 565 respectively. The approximate cost of providing accommodation (i.e., buildings) was as follows:—

	London County (1904-5)	City 1904.	Cost per patient per week	
			County.	City.
	£	£	s. d.	s. d.
Debt charges in respect of interest.	58,513	320	—	—
In respect of repayment.	68,279	—	—	—
	126,792	320	2 11	0 3
Repairs and additions, insurance, taxes, &c.	70,764	*	1 7	—
Pensions of officials	13,017	495	0 3	0
	210,573	815	4 9	0

12. The Asylums Committees of the Council and the City Corporation are responsible for the maintenance of lunatics in the respective County asylums, recovering most of the cost from the guardians.

APPENDIX No. LXXII.—*Continued.*

13. The expenditure of these Asylums Committees for 1904-5 is given in the Local Taxation Returns as follows:—

—	County of London.	City of London.	Total.	Cost per Patient per Week.	
				County (16,920).	City (563).
Salaries, wages and uniforms - - - -	£ 168,480	£ 6,108	£ 174,588	s. d. 3 10	s. d. 4 2
Provisions - - - - -	157,318	5,395	162,713	3 7	3 8
Farm and garden expenses - - - -	29,539	1,655	31,194	0 8	1 2
Clothing of patients - - - - -	19,090	375	19,465	0 5	0 3
Fuel, lighting, furniture and other necessities and funeral expenses.	79,336	3,581	82,917	1 10	2 5
Miscellaneous expenditure (including rates)	52,421	1,886	54,307	1 2	1 4
Total maintenance in London asylums - -	506,184	19,000	525,184	11 6	13 0
Transfers to Building and Repairs Fund Accounts, &c.	2,585	7,387	9,972	0 1	5 0
	508,769	26,387	535,156	11 7	18 0
To other asylums committees for maintenance of London lunatics.	36,065	—	36,065	—	—
Total - - - - -	544,834	26,387	571,221	—	—

14. The "Transfers to Building and Repairs Fund Accounts, etc.," are made up of the surplus of contributions for out-county, criminal and private patients over the actual cost of maintaining those

patients. These sums go in relief of the item "Repairs, etc.," in the table set out in paragraph 11.

15. This expenditure was provided for as follows:—

—	County of London.	City of London.	Total.
The Asylums Committees obtained receipts from the following sources:	£	£	£
Sale of produce and miscellaneous receipts - - - -	3,774	219	3,993
Private Patients - - - - -	17,481	14,334	31,815
Criminal Patients - - - - -	827	90	917
Out-county Guardians at 14s. a head per week for both the County and City - - - - -	1,474	* 929	2,403
	23,556	15,572	39,128
The excess cost of London patients maintained in other asylums over the cost in London asylums was charged on the London County Council - - - - -	7,979	—	7,979
The cost of maintaining "county patients" (<i>i.e.</i> , patients for whom no parish settlement could be found) was charged on the London County Council and City Corporation respectively - - -	17,745	2,146	19,891
	25,724	2,146	27,870
The main part of the expenditure was charged on the London Guardians, viz.:			
In respect of patients in London asylums (London County charge 11s. 4½d. a week; City charge 12s. 3d. a week.) - -	474,593	*7,000	481,593
In respect of patients in other asylums (London County charge 11s. 4½d. a week.) - - - - -	25,047	—	25,047
	499,640	7,000	506,640
Total receipts - - - - -	548,920	24,718	573,638

* The total receipts by the City of London Asylum Committee from Boards of Guardians amounted to £7,929. Of this amount it is estimated that about £7,000 was received from the Guardians of the City of London Union and the remaining £929 from Guardians of other Unions.

APPENDIX No. LXXII.—*Continued.*

16. In addition to the £506,640 charged to London guardians by the Asylums Committees, the guardians have to pay the cost of maintaining lunatics in asylums not under reception contracts made by the Asylums Committees. The total expenditure of London guardians in maintaining lunatics was £525,629. The guardians also spent sums amounting to £12,613 in connection with pauper lunatics, but not upon their maintenance. These sums remain chargeable upon the various unions.

17. The expenditure of the guardians for maintenance of pauper lunatics is not, however, directly charged on the unions concerned.

The guardians collect from relatives and estates of patients a portion of the cost -	£	32,361
They obtain from the London County Council a grant out of the Exchequer Contribution Account, in substitution for the discontinued grants (prior to 1889-90), paid direct to the guardians out of the Imperial Exchequer. The grant is calculated at the rate of 4s. a week for each pauper lunatic whose net cost, after deducting contributions by relatives and out of the lunatic's estate, exceeds that amount - - - - -		167,906
		<u>200,267</u>

The expenses charged upon the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund amount to - - -	£	315,805
Total - - -		<u>£516,072</u>

18. There is thus a difference of (£525,629 - £516,072), £9,557; but probably this is due to net decrease of balances.

19. The following sums were provided by the London County Council out of the Special County Account:—

	£	£	£
Debt Charges - - -	-	126,792	-
Repairs, additions, insurance, etc. - - -	70,764	-	-
Less excess receipts on out-county, criminal and private lunatics in London asylums - - -	2,034	68,730	
			195,522
Pensions to asylum officials - - -	-	-	13,017
Total cost of County lunatics in London and other County asylums. - - -	-	17,863	
Less amounts recovered from relatives. - - -	402	-	
Pauper lunatic grant transferred from the Exchequer Contribution Account. - - -	6,076	-	
Other receipts - - -	17		
		6,495	11,368
Excess cost of London lunatics at out-county asylums. - - -			7,979
Payments to Guardians in respect of maintenance and removal of County patients - - -			1,469
Expenses of inquiry into settlement, &c. - - -			298
			<u>229,653</u>

20. The corresponding charges falling on the City were as follows:—

	£	£
Debt Charges (1904) - - -	-	320
Pensions to asylum officials (1904) - - -	-	495
City County Lunatics (1904-5) - - -	2,146	
Less grant from Exchequer Contribution account and other receipts (1904) - - -	411	
		1,735
		<u>2,550</u>

21. The Exchequer Contribution Account bears the following charges, whose incidence in effect is on the General County Rate:—

Pauper lunatic grant of 4s. a head per week:—

To guardians (including the City Guardians) -	167,906
To Special County Account for London County lunatics - - - - -	6,076
To City Corporation for City County lunatics -	379
	<u>£174,361</u>

22. A summary of chargeability may be made from the above details.

Charged on relatives and estates of lunatics:—

	£	£
Private lunatics (collected by the Asylums Committees) - - -	31,815	
Pauper lunatics (collected by Guardians - - - - -	32,361	
London County Council - - -	402	
City Corporation - - - - -	32	
		64,610
Charged on Guardians of the Poor of out-county Unions - - - - -	2,403	
Charged on Guardians of the Poor of London Unions - - - - -	12,613	
Charged on the Imperial Exchequer in respect of Criminal Lunatics - - - - -	917	
Charged on the Special County Account - - -	229,653	
Charged on the City - - - - -	2,550	
Charged on the Administrative County:—		
(a) Exchequer Contribution Account -	174,361	
(b) Metropolitan Common Poor Fund -	315,805	
		<u>£802,912</u>

23. The result of this complicated system is to charge the whole cost of maintaining pauper lunatics belonging to London either upon the County at large or upon the City and the Special County, thereby relieving the guardians of individual unions from the financial burden of maintenance. But the bulk of the expenditure figures in the guardians' accounts, because the County and City Asylums Committees are obliged to charge the maintenance of each pauper lunatic upon the union responsible. The unions, however, recover the whole cost from the County (or City), the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund, and from the relatives or estates of patients.

RESOLUTIONS (a) (ii.) and (iii.).

24. The object of these suggestions is to abolish the complications of the system of charging and counter-charging, with the vast amount of unnecessary book-keeping it entails. They are made—as are all the present suggestions of the Council—on the basis of the existing state of authorities and jurisdiction, because it is not known what changes may be recommended by the Commission. But all the present suggestions could be carried out, whether the present authorities are maintained or not.

25. If the net cost of maintaining pauper lunatics be charged directly upon the Common Poor Fund, it will be distributed by an equal pound rate over the whole County. But before this can properly be done the grant of 4s. per week per patient from the Exchequer Contribution Account must be credited. If these grants were payable either to the Asylums Committees or to the Common Poor Fund, the effect on the ratepayer of the Administrative County would be the same. As matters now stand, it would be slightly more convenient to credit these grants before throwing the burden upon the Common Poor Fund.

APPENDIX No. LXXII.—*Continued.*

RESOLUTIONS (a) (iv.) and (v.).

26. The Lunacy Act, 1891, provides, by Section 3, that a lunatic sent to an institution for lunatics under Section 13 or 16 of the Lunacy Act, 1890, shall be classified as a pauper until it is ascertained that he is entitled to be classified as a private patient.

27. In consequence of the decision in the case of *re Steneult* (1894), 29 L.J.N.C., 345, it has been deemed the duty of the Asylums Committee to ascertain whether any of the patients coming to the asylum as paupers are entitled to be classified as private patients. Eminent counsel have advised that where the full rate of maintenance at the asylum is paid by the friends or out of the patient's own estate, the patient is entitled to "private" classification. The guardians, through their collectors, have imposed on them the duty of obtaining, either from property belonging to the lunatic, or from relatives legally responsible, reimbursement, as far as possible, of the cost of maintaining a pauper lunatic in the asylum. The guardians' officers are consequently better informed of the existence of property belonging to the lunatics, or of relatives and friends able or willing to repay the cost of maintenance.

28. It is the practice of the Asylums Committee to make inquiries of the guardians as to the means of any lunatics who may appear likely to be entitled to classification on the private list. Whilst many boards of guardians and their officers readily afford all information within their knowledge, it has been most difficult to get any particulars from other unions and parishes. Inquiries are not answered, and knowledge of means and property is deliberately withheld. The fact of a patient being placed on the "private list" at the asylums results in the patient being removed from the guardians' list, and the maintenance cost being paid direct to the asylum. The Local Government Board recently informed the London County Asylums Committee, in reply to an inquiry, "that the collectors of guardians who collect under the direction of the guardians, moneys due and payable to them, are paid by commission in the several Metropolitan Poor Law Unions, with the exception of Poplar." Thus, if a patient has sufficient estate to reimburse the full cost of his maintenance, or if the relatives repay such cost, it is against the collector's personal interest that the patient should be put on the private list, and that his maintenance should be paid direct to the asylum and not to the guardians. There are numerous instances of patients whose full maintenance cost is paid to the guardians, and who are yet described in the guardians' books and in their returns as "Paupers."

29. Figures illustrative of this question are obtainable in connection with the County Pauper Lunatic Grant. The Council is required to pay to the guardians a county grant of 4s. a week in respect of every pauper lunatic whose net cost of maintenance amounts to more than that sum. In making claims for this grant the guardians are required to state the amounts received by them from relatives and friends, and from pensions and estates of the lunatics.

30. From an analysis of the contributions received by the respective boards of guardians in the year ended

30th September, 1906, it would appear that in 468 cases (or 15 per cent. of the total) contributions amounting to 10s. a week or more were received. As the total cost of maintenance during this year was 11s. 4½d., or 11s. 1d. a week, the contributions in all these cases were very nearly the full maintenance cost. If the contributory relatives had been aware that an additional shilling or so per week would have transferred the patient from the category of pauper lunatics to the private list, this would have been a strong inducement to them to pay the full contribution.

31. An even more important point is that, included in these 468 cases are 328 cases in which the full cost (and in a few cases more than the full cost) has been collected by the guardians, and the patient still treated as a pauper lunatic, although entitled to be placed on the private list.

32. These figures exclude the 228 cases in which lump sums were paid. These amounted to a total of £5,756 in the year, or an average of £25 5s. a case.

33. Cases have occurred where friends have reimbursed the guardians the full cost of a patient's maintenance in the belief that the patient was considered to be a private patient, and their indignation has been great at finding that the patient's name has still remained amongst the paupers.

34. The guardians are now responsible for paying the Asylums Committee for the maintenance of the pauper lunatics chargeable to them, but if that responsibility were removed to the Asylums Committee, the latter body would have such knowledge of the means of patients and their relatives as would enable them to give the proper classification to all patients under their care.

35. An appreciable number of the persons who are certified as insane in London are without a "settlement" in the unions or parishes of the county. A person who becomes insane and has to be dealt with by the parochial authorities is held to have a *prima facie* chargeability to the union or parish in which he is at the time residing or is found wandering. The Lunacy Acts provide the necessary machinery for the adjudication of the chargeability of lunatics to the union or parish in which they have a proper settlement. Speaking generally, if a person has resided for three years in a parish (without relief) he has acquired a "settlement" there, and the parish is responsible for his maintenance if he becomes a pauper. He is "irremovable" if he has resided for 12 months in the parish or union in which he was residing at the time he became chargeable as a pauper, and in this event he is exempt from removal to the parish of his settlement, and the parish in which he has acquired such exemption is liable for his maintenance.

36. The powers of the guardians of the poor include the ascertainment of the proper settlement of every pauper receiving poor relief. In the majority of cases there is no question as to the chargeability of the pauper being with the parish which has dealt with him, but in cases where detailed inquiries are necessary different policies are adopted in the different London parishes, some making very few inquiries.

APPENDIX No. LXXII.—*Continued.*

37. The following return shows the number of adjudications of pauper lunatics (admitted to the London County Asylums) made by the various unions in the County of London during the three years ending 31st December, 1906, distinguishing between the number of adjudications to Unions within and without the County respectively, together with the proportion of such adjudications to the total adjudications.

	Total Admissions.	Adjudications.			Percentage of Adjudications to Admissions.		
		Within the County.	Without the County.	Total.	Within the County.	Without the County.	Total.
Bermondsey - - - - -	217	11	8	19	5.1	3.7	8.8
Bethnal Green - - - - -	235	18	7	25	7.6	3.0	10.9
Bloomsbury (St. Giles and St. George)	107	40	13	53	37.4	12.1	49.5
Camberwell - - - - -	441	57	20	77	12.9	4.5	17.4
Chelsea - - - - -	196	34	14	48	17.3	7.2	24.5
Fulham - - - - -	363	62	15	77	17.1	4.1	21.2
St. George, Hanover Square - -	227	51	22	73	22.5	9.7	32.2
St. George in-the-East - - -	83	14	1	15	16.9	1.2	18.1
Greenwich - - - - -	337	30	17	47	8.9	5.0	13.9
Hackney- - - - -	782	90	43	133	11.5	5.5	17.0
Hammersmith - - - - -	307	58	41	99	18.9	13.3	32.2
Hampstead - - - - -	104	7	3	10	6.7	2.9	9.6
Holborn - - - - -	201	21	11	32	10.4	5.5	15.9
Islington - - - - -	758	101	60	161	13.3	7.9	21.2
Kensington - - - - -	450	34	7	41	7.5	1.6	9.1
Lambeth - - - - -	673	86	24	110	12.8	3.5	16.3
Lewisham - - - - -	225	29	16	45	12.9	7.1	20.0
St. Marylebone - - - - -	333	52	29	81	15.6	8.7	24.3
Mile End - - - - -	311	30	7	37	9.6	2.3	11.9
Paddington - - - - -	241	40	23	63	16.6	9.5	26.1
St. Pancras - - - - -	567	79	22	101	13.9	3.9	17.8
Poplar - - - - -	365	33	21	54	9.1	5.7	14.8
Shoreditch - - - - -	263	24	3	27	9.1	1.1	10.2
Southwark - - - - -	444	16	5	21	3.6	1.1	4.7
Stepney - - - - -	146	16	1	17	10.9	.7	11.6
Strand - - - - -	183	64	26	90	35.0	14.2	49.2
Wandsworth - - - - -	926	127	66	193	13.7	7.1	20.8
Westminster - - - - -	70	19	5	24	27.1	7.2	34.3
Whitechapel - - - - -	200	5	14	19	2.5	7.0	9.5
Woolwich - - - - -	238	9	17	26	3.8	7.1	10.9
Total - - - - -	9,993	1,257	561	1,818	12.7	5.6	18.3

38. From these figures it will be seen that, while the average proportion of adjudications to admissions is nearly one-fifth (18.3 per cent.), the individual unions range from nearly one-half (Bloomsbury 49.5 and Strand 49.2) to less than one-twentieth (Southwark). Allowance must be made for the class of neighbourhood of the various unions, in some of which there is a considerable transient population, *e.g.*, unions in which there are many lodging houses, railway termini,

etc.; yet this will not sufficiently account for the big differences shown by the return.

39. It will be observed that there are very considerable difference between contiguous unions, for example, Kensington with 9.1 is surrounded by unions having proportions of 24.5 (Chelsea), 21.2 (Fulham), 32.2 (Hammersmith), 26.1 (Paddington) and 32.2 (St. George's). Again, Bloomsbury with 49.5 is surrounded by unions having 15.9 (Holborn), 17.8 (St.

APPENDIX No. LXXII.—*Continued.*

Pancras), 24.3 (St. Marylebone), 34.4 (Westminster) and 49.2 (Strand). Southwark Union with 4.7, and Bermondsey Union with 8.8 are abnormally low.

40. There is no real advantage, either to the individual London union or to the county at large, gained by the adjudication of a pauper lunatic from one London union to another, inasmuch as the cost of maintaining pauper lunatics becomes eventually a charge on the County at large. Thus the cost of adjudication proceedings in 1,250 out of the 1,800 cases was practically wasted, the only possible advantage obtained being that inquiries set on foot to remove the chargeability from one London union to another have disclosed a "settlement" in an out-county union. On the other hand, it will readily be seen that the adjudication of out-county cases with due speed is a matter of considerable importance to the authority which is called upon to house the lunatics. The incentive to the guardians is little, if any, as the payments they make to the county asylums for the maintenance of their lunatics are all repaid to them either by relatives or by means of the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund and the 4s. capitation grant of the Council. Although due care is necessary in obtaining an adjudication order, as such orders are granted *ex parte* and may be appealed against, it is frequently found that out-county patients remain in the London asylums several months before they are adjudicated. It is only possible to recover from the union to which the patient is adjudicated the cost of maintenance (not lodging) for twelve months; thereafter, if the patient is not removed to another asylum, a sum not exceeding 14s. per week can be charged for him. During the whole time an out-county patient remains unadjudicated the county has to provide lodging, the cost of which is irrecoverable. In addition to this, dilatoriness in adjudication must have the effect of unduly and unfairly increasing the number of lunatics for which the County of London has to provide. It is not easy to dissociate delay in obtaining adjudication orders from the practice in London of payment of commission to settlement officers and collectors in respect of amounts recovered. The natural tendency of such a system is to retard adjudication.

41. It is therefore submitted that the present system of dealing with the settlement of pauper lunatics is not calculated to obtain the best results. It would be preferable for this work to be carried out under the supervision of the authority which is responsible for providing the accommodation; this body, at any rate, would have a wholesome incentive to carry out the work thoroughly. This would secure uniformity of action. Instead of 29 authorities, with their different policies, there would be the one central authority. The work would not only be more effectively, but more economically carried out. A small central staff would be able to do what is now done by officers in 29 unions and parishes. Formal adjudications from one London union to another need not be made so long as it was established that the settlement was in a London parish, but out-county settlements would be vigorously prosecuted. It is not proposed that the parishes of the County of London should merge into one large union; for purposes of settlement and irremovability the parishes would remain as they are.

Resolution (a) (vi.).

42. The majority of the pauper lunatics in the London county asylums are persons who have been re-

moved from their homes to the workhouse or infirmary because they have become insane—that is, their insanity has caused their pauperism. When a person of limited means (other than a pauper in the workhouse) becomes insane, it is usual for notice of the fact to be given to the parish relieving officer, who, under the Lunacy Act, has then specific duties to perform. It is his duty to give notice to a justice of the peace, who orders the lunatic to be seen by a medical practitioner. If, however, it is deemed for the benefit of the lunatic or the public welfare that the patient should be removed to a workhouse in the meantime, the relieving officer is empowered to do so, and the lunatic can be detained therein by the master of the workhouse for three days; but, before the expiration of that period, notice must be given by the relieving officer to a justice of the peace. As a matter of practice in London, almost without exception, all alleged lunatics notified to relieving officers are removed to the workhouse or the workhouse infirmary. Although it is within the power of the justice to whom the case is reported by the relieving officer to call in any medical practitioner he may think fit, in nearly every union and parish the union doctor, either the infirmary medical superintendent or the district medical officer, is the practitioner who certifies the patients. Some unions have made it a rule that their doctor is not to receive a fee for any lunatic certified by him, but, in the majority of the unions and parishes, fees are paid ranging from 10s. 6d. to 21s. In some unions the cost of medical certification of a lunatic amounts to two guineas. The number of pauper lunatics certified annually in London for removal to asylums numbers some 4,000, and probably the numbers brought into the workhouses and infirmaries as alleged lunatics amount to quite half as many again, there being a considerable number who are not certified to be kept in an asylum.

43. Various methods of removal from the workhouse to the asylum are adopted by the different unions. Sometimes the lunatic is brought by train to the nearest station, and thence by cab to the asylum. In other cases a vehicle is hired to bring the lunatic down, and some unions have their own conveyance or ambulance. The relatives are, if able, called upon to reimburse to the guardians the cost of certification and removal, and this, at times, is a great hardship on the individual. A case recently brought to the Asylums Committee's notice was that of a female patient admitted to a London asylum in June, 1906, afterwards discharged recovered, but readmitted in May, 1907. The cost of removal and certification on the first occasion was £4 5s. 6d., on the second occasion £4 9s. 6d. Each time the medical examination fee was £2 2s., and the rest of the charges were for removal and attendants.

44. If the *onus* of removal of the patients were with one authority, which might well be the Asylums Committee, proper ambulances could be provided, and more than one patient removed at a time. Trained attendants could be employed, and the result would be that the removals would be conducted in a more humane, efficient and economical way than is possible under the present system.

45. It would be advisable that medical officers of the union who are called upon to certify lunatics should not be dependent on fees for so doing; it would be preferable that they should be paid a fixed salary for such work irrespective of the number certified.

APPENDIX No. LXXIII.

REPLIES BY THE LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL TO QUESTIONS AS TO INDUSTRIAL AND REFORMATORY SCHOOLS, &c., SUBMITTED TO THEM BY THE COMMISSION.

Question I.—What classes of children are sent to industrial and reformatory schools, including truant schools and day industrial schools respectively?

Answer I.—Reformatory Schools.—The young persons committed to these schools all come under one description, viz., those under 16 years of age, "who have been convicted of an offence punishable by penal servitude or imprisonment."

Industrial Schools.—The children committed to these schools may be classified as follows: (a) Children of dissolute parents who exercise no control over them, with the result that they are found "wandering," and not having any home or settled place of abode or proper guardianship or visible means of subsistence, or are found begging, etc. (b) Children of vagrants who, when not tramping the country, make their home in common lodging-houses or in single "furnished" rooms. (c) Children found in brothels or living with prostitutes. (d) Children of respectable parents who, in consequence of being out at work all day, are unable

to exercise efficient supervision over them. (e) Children of respectable parents of weak character who are unable to exercise control over them.

Truant Schools.—Children who dislike school, and absent themselves from the ordinary elementary school.

Day Industrial Schools.—Speaking generally, these are for troublesome children whose homes, however poor, are of a fairly decent character, and for children who are falling into bad or irregular habits through the want of proper supervision. Day industrial schools are not suitable for the vicious or wandering child or for the persistent truant.

Question II.—What evidence is there as to results in the way of success in life of the training in industrial and reformatory schools, and to what feature in them is such success attributed?

Answer II.—The practical result of the training and care received by the children is demonstrated in the following Table, showing the disposals during the year ended 31st March, 1907:—

School.	Army or Army Bands.	Royal Navy.	Mercantile Marine.	Placed in Trades.									Other Services.						Transferred.	Emigrated.	Discharged by Secretary of State.	Discharged to ordinary Elementary Schools.	Re-admitted as Voluntary Cases.	Died.	Discharged to Guardians.	Unknown.		
				Boat Builder.	Shoemakers.	Carpenters.	Bricklayers.	Painters.	Bakers.	Engineers.	Tailors.	Printers.	Domestic Service.	Railway Service.	L.C.C. Service.	Garden and Farm Service.	Factory Hands.	Various Occupations.										
Feltham - - -	22	-	33	-	14	11	4	6	3	7	1	-	10	-	1	41	-	10	1	36	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
Mayford - - -	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	2	-	-	11	-	1	-	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Gordon House - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Home for Little Boys	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	14	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Upton House - -	-	-	-	1	-	2	-	-	-	-	2	1	-	-	-	2	3	23	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Highbury - - -	-	-	-	-	3	2	-	-	1	1	-	-	2	2	-	-	3	6	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Drury Lane - -	3	-	-	-	3	2	-	-	1	1	-	10	2	-	-	-	3	4	5*	-	-	-	3	2	-	-	-	-
Brunswick Road -	7	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	5	-	-	1	6	20	6†	-	-	-	8	9	1	1	-	-
Ponton Road - -	3	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	13	6*	-	-	-	2	3	-	-	1	-
Portslade - - -	3	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Contract Schools (B) -	81	4	41	-	15	8	-	1	4	5	18	1	-	-	-	85	2	105	-	65	2	-	-	3	1	-	4	-
„ „ (G) -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	129	-	-	-	-	3	2	2	-	-	-	-	2	-	1	-
Totals - - -	128	4	75	1	40	25	4	7	9	17	23	13	157	2	1	140	17	186	36	113	2	13	14	7	2	1	1	1

* To Residential Industrial Schools.

† 1 transferred to Drury Lane Day Industrial School, and 5 sent to Residential Industrial School.

Results 10 years after disposal.

Evidence of the fact that the good results are of a permanent nature is furnished by the following table, which gives information extending over a period of ten years respecting all children sent by the Council who have left the schools. (See App. LXXIII. (A).)

At the end of three years after a child has left the

school the further supervision of the managers is entirely voluntary. It is evident, therefore, that the managers and the superintendents of schools take a great personal interest in the careers of their old scholars, and make every effort, either by correspondence or by personal visits, to keep in touch with them.

APPENDIX No. LXXIII.—Continued.

It will be noticed that the number of "unknown" cases increases year by year. It must not be assumed, however, that these young persons are unsatisfactory. On the other hand, many of them are doubtless doing well. The percentage of girls who are "unknown" is greater than that of boys, and this is to a great extent due to the fact that they marry, and do not desire that their former detention in an industrial school shall be known.

The success in regard to disposals and after careers may be attributed to the fact that the industrial school child is under care and training uninterruptedly from the time of his entry into the school until his final disposal, and that he cannot, in the meantime, be removed by his parents. The education and training are carried on progressively and methodically throughout his school course. The general training is systematic, the individual child is studied as to his fitness for any particular calling or occupation; his life in the school, the discipline, instruction, recreation, and feeding are all arranged with the sole object of making him self-reliant and self-supporting.

When a child reaches the age of fourteen years and nine months a full report with regard to his educational attainments, industrial occupations, conduct, mental capacity, and physical condition must be furnished to the Council, together with a suggestion by the managers as to the most suitable age and manner of disposal. With this information before them the Council are able to come to a decision in each case, which the managers undertake to carry out. If it is subsequently found that effect cannot be given to this decision, the case is re-submitted, with an explanation, and an alternative method of disposal is decided upon. From the time a child leaves the school until he reaches the age of eighteen years he is kept under observation by the managers, who submit a periodical report to the Council in every case.

The reasons for the success of industrial school children in after life may be summarised as follows:—

1. Continuous treatment of the child in the school and the non-interference of parents.
2. The formation of character by the general system of training and education, and the preparation of the child for final disposal.
3. The care exercised in the disposal as to the choice of suitable occupations.
4. The supervision by the superintendent or matron and managers; the watchful eye and the helpful hand during a period of three or four years after leaving the school, during which time supervision is compulsory, and voluntary supervision for an indefinite time afterwards.
5. The fact that information as to each case must be furnished to the Council from the time a child is eligible for disposal until he attains the age of 18 years.

Under the existing agreement with reformatories the Council has no control over the disposals, but steps are being taken to make the procedure in this respect the same as in the case of industrial schools. From the report of the Government Inspector for the year 1906 it would appear that, of the young persons discharged from reformatories during the three years ended 1905, about 75 per cent. were in regular employment, 7 per cent. were in casual employment, 12 per cent. were convicted, and 6 per cent. were unknown.

Question III.—Is any inquiry made as to whether the family is in receipt of Poor Law relief, and would such relief interfere with the sending of a child to the industrial or reformatory school?

Answer III.—There is no record as to whether any of the families from which children are sent to industrial schools are in receipt of Poor Law relief. No inquiry is made by the Council upon this point, and the fact of such relief being granted would not disqualify a child for admission to an industrial school.

Reformatory cases do not at present come within the cognisance of the Council until after committal.

Question IV.—What is the procedure as to contributions to each of the various kinds of school, and to what extent are contributions actually received?

Answer IV.—Parental contributions towards the maintenance of children committed to reformatory or industrial schools are fixed by magistrates either at the time the child is sent thither or at a later date. The maximum is fixed by the Reformatory or the Industrial Schools Act respectively at 5s. a week, but it is very rarely that an order for the full amount is made. The amounts are collected by the agents of the Inspector of Industrial Schools, and go to the relief of the Treasury contribution. From the report of the Inspector of Industrial Schools it appears that the sum collected amounts to about £1 14s. per head in reformatory cases, and about £1 5s. in industrial school cases, but it is not known what proportion this bears to the amount ordered. The prosecutions are instituted by officers of the Government, who alone could furnish this information.

With regard to day industrial schools, the parental contributions in "committed" cases may be a sum of not exceeding 2s. a week, and for "voluntary" cases the minimum payment per week is fixed at 1s. The parental contributions are fixed by the magistrate at the time of making the order in "committed" cases, and are collected and retained by the local authority.

A sum of £3,201 was obtained from the parents of 3,284 children in attendance at the day industrial schools throughout the country during the year 1906, giving an average of about £1 per head. The amount collected from the parents of children at the Council's day industrial schools during the year ended 31st March, 1907, was £410 16s. 1d., or a sum of £1 18s. 7d. per head on the average number maintained.

Question V.—Is there any connection, co-operation, or overlapping between the administration of the Industrial and Reformatory Schools Acts and that of the Poor Law?

Answer V.—There is at present no co-operation between the Council as Education Authority and the Boards of Guardians, but concerted action between those bodies would undoubtedly result in a much more efficient and more economical system of working.

The Chairman of the Special Schools Sub-Committee of the Council (Major Skinner) in the course of certain evidence (see *Appendix No. LXXIV.*) which has been deposited with the Commission, submits a statement with regard to cases of children, who, having been dealt with in some form or other by the Poor Law Authorities, afterwards come before the Special Schools Sub-Committee on being charged at a police court with an offence under the Industrial Schools Act. The list shows that during a period of twelve months 113 cases were so charged, and that in 94 cases it was necessary for the safety and welfare of the children to commit them to industrial schools.

Question VI.—Would it be possible for the Poor Law Authority to make use of the day or residential industrial schools for any of the children relieved from the Poor Rates, bearing in mind the possibility of prejudice on the part of the parent?

Answer VI.—Under the existing law it would only be possible for a Poor Law Authority to make use of an industrial school in the cases of refractory children in workhouse schools, or where a parent of children in such schools had been convicted. In the event, however, of the law being amended there would be no difficulty or disadvantage in amalgamating the two classes of schools and placing them under one Authority. In the case of day industrial schools there would probably be no prejudice on the part of the parents, inasmuch as the children would be returned to their homes at night. In Liverpool and Glasgow such an arrangement is now in successful operation. The children who would be sent to the residential schools would be either those who had no parents or those whose parents were inmates of the workhouse. In the first class of cases there would, of course, be no difficulty, and in the second class it is suggested that objection would be taken only in a very small number of cases. This prejudice might be altogether removed by altering the title of the schools.

APPENDIX No. LXXIV.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY MAJOR C. L. A. SKINNER, OF THE LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL.

Charles Lancelot Andrewes Skinner will state that :

1. He is a member of the London County Council and chairman of the Special Schools Sub-Committee of the Education Committee of the Council. He is authorised to give evidence before the Royal Commission by resolutions of the Council, dated July 16th, 1907, and January 21st, 1908.

2. The Special Schools Sub-Committee of the Education Committee has the immediate control of the nine industrial schools belonging to the Council. These schools are Brunswick Road, Drury Lane and Ponton Road Day Industrial Schools, Gordon House Girls' Home, Home for Little Boys, Highbury and Upton House Truant Schools, and Feltham and Mayford Industrial Schools. The Council also has agreements with fifty-seven industrial schools throughout the country for the reception of cases from London. The expenditure in connection with the schools maintained by the Council is about £48,000 per annum, and in connection with agreement schools about £36,500 per annum. A section of the Committee (of which witness is also the chairman) meets at the Education Offices weekly for the purpose of dealing with the cases of children charged before the Metropolitan Police Magistrates with offences under the Industrial Schools Acts. The particulars presented to the Committee concerning these cases give full information with regard to the children and their parents.

3. From these particulars it appears that the parents of many of the children are thriftless, vagrant or dissolute persons who frequent workhouses and casual wards, and who are unfit to have the custody of children. Some of the parents are from time to time committed to prison for varying terms. While the parents are in prison or are the inmates of workhouses the children are placed under the care of the Poor Law guardians, and are usually sent to the parish schools; but when the parents are discharged from prison, or when they choose to leave the workhouse, they have the power to claim their children, who are thereupon removed from the care of the guardians and are again subjected to evil influences and degrading surroundings. In some instances, the children are deserted by their parents, and in such cases the guardians endeavour to trace them with the object of compelling them to resume the custody of their children. Only in cases where the children are orphans, or where the parents remain continuously in the workhouse, or where the guardians are unable to trace the parents, do the children remain permanently under the care of the guardians.

4. Under Section 1 of the Poor Law Act, 1899, the guardians have power to adopt children maintained by them under the following circumstances until such children reach the age of eighteen years :—

(a) Where the child has been deserted by its parent.

(b) Where the guardians are of opinion that by reason of mental deficiency, or of vicious habits or mode of life, a parent of the child is unfit to have control of it.

(c) Where a parent is unable to perform his or her parental duties by reason of being under sentence of penal servitude or of being detained under the Inebriates Act, 1898.

(d) Where a parent of the child has been sentenced to imprisonment in respect of any offence against any of his or her children.

(e) Where a parent of the child is permanently bedridden or disabled, and is the inmate of a workhouse and consents to such adoption; or

(f) Where both the parents, or in the case of an illegitimate child, the mother of the child, are or is dead.

It is the experience of the Council that guardians are in most cases reluctant to put into force their powers of adoption under this section, presumably on account of the cost.

5. When children are removed by their parents from the care of the guardians it frequently happens that the parents have no homes, or are habitual beggars. In such cases the children often fall into the hands of the police, and are charged with wandering without any home or settled place of abode or proper guardianship. In other cases the parents and the children are charged with begging. When this happens the cases of the children are referred to the Council's officers by the police and they then come before the Industrial Schools Cases section of the Special Schools Sub-Committee, who, in order to save them, frequently suggest that the children shall be sent to industrial schools. The cost of their maintenance for a long period is, therefore, mainly borne by the Council, and considerable expenditure falls upon the education rate on account of children who, in many instances, are not London children.

6. A statement of the cases of this nature which have, during a period of twelve months, come before the Special Schools Sub-Committee is submitted in the Appendix (*see App. No. LXXIV. (A.)*), from which it will be seen that for the sake of the future of the children they have, in many cases, been committed to industrial schools, and that in numerous instances, two, three, and even four members of one family have been dealt with in this way.

7. In addition, moreover, to the children who fall into the hands of the police or the Council's officers, it is evident that there are many others who escape the vigilance of both, chiefly because their parents are constantly moving from one common lodging-house or free shelter to another, or, without committing any offence which causes them to be taken into custody, are in and out of the workhouse. For such children there is no hope of any other career than that of vagrancy or criminality.

8. It is therefore desirable that all children who are without proper guardianship should, immediately they fall for the first time into the hands of the guardians, be rescued from their evil surroundings and be dealt with in such a way as will ensure their being educated and trained to become self-supporting and respectable citizens. As, however, the children are in many cases not permanently resident in the district in which the workhouse is situated, it is felt that it is inequitable that the cost of maintaining, educating and training them for a number of years should fall upon the local authority of that district.

9. In the Report of the Departmental Committee on Vagrancy issued in 1906 the subject of vagrant children is dealt with. In Chapter XVIII, Paragraph 414, it is stated, with reference to the powers of adoption possessed by the guardians under the Poor Law Act, 1899 :—

"If the guardians take action the child must be maintained by them, but, as a rule, they are not willing to throw upon the rates of their union the burden of the maintenance and education of children who are not settled there nor to go to the trouble and expense which would be involved in an attempt to ascertain their place of settlement."

The Report goes on to state (Paragraph 415) that it is very desirable that boards of guardians should exercise their powers of adoption under the Poor Law Act of 1899, but that it is hardly reasonable to expect them to assume, in all cases, the cost of the maintenance of children not belonging to their union. A suggestion is made that power should be given to the county council to make a contribution from the county rate towards the cost of the maintenance of a vagrant child who may be adopted by a board of guardians.

10. In Paragraph 419 of the Report the Committee call attention to the excellent results to children of that class from training in an industrial school, and add, "We feel strongly that so far as possible use should be made of industrial schools for dealing with vagrant children who, from their previous surroundings, need training of a correctional nature."

APPENDIX No. LXXIV.—*Continued.*

11. Paragraph 421 quotes Section 13 of the Elementary Education Act of 1876, which deals with the duty of a local authority to take proceedings under that Act or the Industrial Schools Act, 1866, and states that, "Difficulty here has arisen from the proviso, which leaves it in the discretion of the local education authority to take proceedings or not, as they may think proper. It is doubtful whether the section has been used to any extent in the case of vagrant children on account of the objection to putting the cost on a small area, but it will be seen that if it were acted on it would afford ample means for securing control of all children passing through a district who are not receiving proper education."

12. The concluding paragraph of the Report (428) states that "Where the parent or guardian of a child is dealt with as an habitual vagrant there should be power to the court to order the child to be sent to an industrial school or to be dealt with in such other way as may seem expedient."

13. Arising out of this Report a Bill (entitled the Vagrant Children Bill) was introduced into Parliament in the session of 1906. The Bill did not follow the recommendation of the Departmental Committee on Vagrancy as to committing vagrant children to industrial schools, but provided that such children should be committed on a magistrate's order to the workhouse, and if the guardians so desired they might adopt them under the Poor Law Act of 1899. The cost of maintenance, so far as it was not paid by the parent, was to be repaid to the guardians out of the county rate by the county council of the county in which the union was situate. This did not, however, appear to the Council to be an equitable arrangement, as they were of opinion that if it was decided that the cost of maintenance should be a local burden it should be borne by the body dealing with the children. In the cases of children sent to industrial schools at the instance of county councils as local education authorities the cost is borne partly by them and partly by the Treasury. Having regard, however, to the fact that the children in question are vagrants without any settled place of abode, the Council was of opinion that the charge should not be local, but national, and that a local charge in these cases would constitute a potent and effective influence against any action. The Bill further proposed that action should be permissive; but the Council was of opinion that in order to be effective, particularly if maintenance was

to be a local charge, action should be compulsory. It was intended to take steps to secure the amendment of the Bill in the direction indicated, but before this could be done the Bill was withdrawn.

14. Witness is of opinion that in any legislation affecting this matter provision should be made that in all cases where children under fourteen years of age, whose parents are apparently of vagrant or dissolute or criminal habits, are admitted to workhouses, casual wards, free shelters, or common lodging-houses, it shall be the duty of the officer in charge of the workhouse, casual ward, shelter or lodging-house to send to the police, or to the local education authority, an immediate notification of such cases, and that upon such notification being received it shall be the duty of the police or of the education authority, as the case may be, to at once take steps to charge such children under the Industrial Schools Acts.

15. It would therefore be necessary to amend Section 14 of the Industrial Schools Act, 1866, so as to include the description of children mentioned in Paragraph 14. In such cases the charge should not be a local but a national one. In any legislation, however, it should be clearly defined what cases are to be dealt with under the Poor Law Acts, and what cases under the Industrial Schools Acts. With regard to the latter, the attitude of magistrates and the strong objection in some quarters to any action which may tend to relieve parents of the care of their children should be taken into consideration.

16. Prompt action would in such cases be necessary, as otherwise the children would be removed before action could be taken. So far as London is concerned, the Education Committee of the Council has recently been entrusted by the Council with the duty of putting in force the by-laws relating to the Employment of Children Act, 1903. This would necessitate some of the Council's officers being on duty early in the morning and late at night, and it would probably be possible for such officers to visit the workhouses and other institutions previously mentioned for the purpose of obtaining information as to vagrant children, and of taking action with the object of securing their detention in a remand home pending inquiry as to whether the circumstances of the parents are such as would render it necessary to commit the children to industrial schools.

January 22nd, 1908.

APPENDIX No. LXXIV. (A).

STATEMENT giving particulars of Cases brought before the Cases Section of the Special Schools Sub-Committee, from November, 1906, to November, 1907, where Children have previously been in Workhouses or Parish Schools:—

Identification Number.	Initial of surname and Christian name.	Age.	Charge.	Particulars of Home, Parentage, etc.	Additional particulars.	Action taken by County Council.
70,238	E., Susan ..	10 $\frac{7}{12}$	Wandering, etc.	No home for months. Parents tramps. Children sent in public-houses with shoe-laces for the purpose of begging. Sleeping in casual wards, shelters, etc.	Sleeping in casual wards, etc.	Sent to an industrial school.
70,239	E., Jos. Edwd.	5 $\frac{3}{4}$	Do.			Sent to an industrial school.
70,250	S., Charlotte Louisa.	8	Do.	No home. Father deserted family about two years ago. Mother living with a man. Both imprisoned for neglecting the children. Woman a prostitute, and had been soliciting for some time past. When in workhouse both man and woman were found to be suffering from syphilis.	Family have been in and out of workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
70,251	S., Maud Rose	7 $\frac{2}{12}$	Do.			Sent to an industrial school.
70,252	G., Frederick ..	13 $\frac{10}{12}$	Do.	No home. Parents and children tramp country in summer and remain in workhouse during winter. Charged with wandering by Rescue Officer.	Family in the workhouse in the winter.	Sent to an industrial school.
70,253	G., Sarah Ann	10 $\frac{5}{12}$	Do.			Sent to an industrial school.
70,254	G., Frank ..	8 $\frac{4}{12}$	Do.			Sent to an industrial school.
70,292	J., Harry ..	9 $\frac{3}{12}$	Do.	No home. Has been in workhouses, casual wards and shelters for weeks past: destitute. Father has tried several charitable institutions to help boy, but unsuccessfully.	Family have been in workhouses and casual wards.	Sent to an industrial school.
70,313	J., Elizabeth ..	13 $\frac{3}{12}$	E. F. Act, 1876.	A bad girl and a truant. No father. Education Act case (truancy).	Girl has three sisters in parish schools (Leytonstone).	Sent to an industrial school.
70,314	D., Jeremiah ..	12 $\frac{4}{12}$	Do.	A confirmed truant; now absconded with his brother, aged nine years. Has been brought home by the police from Peterborough, Dunmow, Chelmsford, Epping, and St. Pancras Unions. A chronic wanderer; quite beyond control. Parents character fair. Education Act case (truancy).	Boy is constantly in the hands of the Guardians.	Now absconded; whereabouts unknown.
70,317	M., John ..	12 $\frac{4}{12}$	Found destitute.	No home. Boy recently came out of Leytonstone parish schools. Mother went to live with a man and deserted boy, who was left with a Mrs. B. This person pawned his boots and clothes and turned him out. Mother drinks. No father.	Boy has been in parish school.	Discharged and sent to workhouse.
70,420	E., Henry ..	13 $\frac{11}{12}$	Wandering, etc.	Father has had no fixed home since his wife died, 11 years ago. Boy left with aunts, but turned out as father did nothing for him. Has been in Dr. Barnardo's Home, St. Vincent's Home, and the North Hyde parish school. Living in common lodging-house when charged.	Boy has been in parish school.	Sent to an industrial school.
70,421	K., Geo. Hy. ..	11 $\frac{9}{12}$	Do.	No fixed home for three years. The family have been several times in Paddington Workhouse. Mother convicted many times for drunkenness and assault. Stepfather also convicted. He is now in Rackham Street Infirmary.	Family several times in workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
70,422	F., Albert ..	11 $\frac{7}{12}$	Do.	Family had been sleeping in streets for a week because when at work-house stepmother refused to have her hair cut for cleansing purposes and took her discharge.	Family had been in workhouse, but left for reason given.	Sent to an industrial school.
70,426	J., Sidney Arthur Thos.	12 $\frac{5}{12}$	Being beyond control.	Boy was in parish schools, but was taken out by mother and another child sent in his place. Boy now beyond control, of dirty habits, and plays truant. Mother a weak, delicate woman. Father deserted family.	Boy has been in parish schools.	Sent to an industrial school.

APPENDIX No. LXXIV. (A)—Continued.

Identification Number.	Initial of sur-name and Christian name.	Age.	Charge.	Particulars of Home, Parentage, etc.	Additional particulars.	Action taken by County Council.
70,437	McN., Edith ..	9 $\frac{4}{12}$	Wandering, etc.	Seen standing at Hyde Park Corner evidently for the purpose of collecting alms, but not actually begging. The money received was taken by the parents, who stated that they had no home and that they had been sleeping in casual wards and in the workhouse.	Family had been sleeping in the workhouse and casual wards.	Sent to an industrial school.
70,438	McN., Caroline	7	Do.			Sent to an industrial school.
70,439	McN., Henry ..	5	Do.			Ordered to care of N.S.P.C.C.
70,445	R., Wm. Albert	9 $\frac{9}{12}$	Do.	No home. Was wandering at Sirdar Road in company with father, who has been tramping the country with the boy, sleeping in casual wards and common lodging houses. Mother dead.	Father and boy have been sleeping in casual wards.	Sent to an industrial school.
70,462	H., Richard ..	5 $\frac{4}{12}$	Do.	Family ejected for non-payment of rent. Children taken to workhouse by police—stayed there during confinement of mother—discharged, and now sleep in a wash-house. Man and woman both drink and inquiries prove that woman is immoral.	Family have been in workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
70,463	H., Minnie ..	12 $\frac{7}{12}$	Do.			Sent to an industrial school.
70,471	L., Wm. John ..	6 $\frac{7}{12}$	E.E. Act, 1876.	A case of great neglect. Boy charged with other children last March, when a girl was sent to an industrial school and the boy to the workhouse—since taken out. Mother strange in manner and violent. Father drunkard, recently imprisoned for drunkenness. Education Act case (truancy).	Boy has been in workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
70,491	E., Richard ..	13	Wandering, etc.	No home. Boy previously charged with stealing and birched. Again charged with wandering, etc., and discharged to workhouse, thence sent to parish schools. Father summoned and sent to prison for one month—on another occasion for three months—for desertion. A drunkard. Mother dead.	Boy has been in the workhouse and parish school.	Sent to an industrial school.
70,494	O., Richard ..	9 $\frac{8}{12}$	E.E. Act, 1876.	On a previous occasion boy was charged with wandering and sent to workhouse as destitute with an order to notify N.S.P.C.C. of case. Mother summoned, but remanded for inquiries into her mental condition. Father decent man. Lad uses very bad language and was in a filthy condition. Education Act case (truancy).	Boy has been in the workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
70,495	McC, or C., Geo,	6 $\frac{7}{12}$	Wandering, &c.	Children illegitimate. Man with whom mother is cohabiting at present undergoing sentence of five years' imprisonment for burglary. Previous sentences of three years, 21 months and several minor terms. Children were in St. Luke's Workhouse, but mother had to take them out as she declined to go in herself. Her character is bad.	Children were in workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
70,496	McC. or C., Margaret May.	5 $\frac{7}{12}$	Do.			Sent to an industrial school.
70,574	H., Violet Maud	6 $\frac{9}{12}$	Begging	No home. Father deserted family; mother lived with various men. Children were found in company of mother begging under pretext of selling matches.	Children were until recently in parish schools.	Sent to an industrial school.
70,592	C., Ernest ..	11 $\frac{4}{12}$	Do.	Father no work. In and out of workhouse five or six times.	Family have been in and out of workhouse.	Discharged.
70,676	B., Dorothy ..	6 $\frac{2}{12}$	I.S. Act Amendment Act, 1880.	Mother a single woman and a prostitute—cohabiting with a man named S. In December, 1905, when this woman was in the workhouse, a girl was charged with living with prostitutes and sent to an industrial school.	Mother and girl have been in workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
70,762	L., James ..	9 $\frac{10}{12}$	Begging	Begging from door to door and offering boot-laces for sale, also begging in public-houses. Father deserted family. Mother and children in and out of workhouse.	Mother and children in and out of workhouse.	Discharged.

APPENDIX No. LXXIV. (A).—Continued.

Identification number.	Initial of surname and Christian name.	Age.	Charge.	Particulars of Home, Parentage, etc.	Additional particulars.	Action taken by County Council.
0,781	R., Harold ..	11	Wandering, etc.	No fixed home. Mother a single woman, living in casual wards, shelters and common lodging-houses. Whereabouts of boy's father unknown.	Mother and boy have been sleeping in casual wards.	Sent to an industrial school.
0,785	R., Rose ..	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	Do.	No fixed home. Mother in and out of workhouse for some time. Deserted by second husband.	Mother and girl in and out of workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
0,828	C., William ..	8 $\frac{3}{4}$	Do.	Found wandering in Farringdon Street. Had been selling papers. Recently came out of parish schools, his mother having married a second time.	Boy has been in parish school.	Discharged.
0,883	B. or T., Wm. .	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	Begging ..	No home. Begging with mother at Fulham. Parents have been leading a vagrant life for past three years, living in common lodging-houses and frequently in and out of the workhouse.	Family in and out of workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
0,884	N. or C., Gertrude.	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	Wandering, etc.	No home for three years. Found with parents at Notting Dale. Slept previous night in Kensington Casual Ward. Tramping country.	Family had been sleeping in casual wards.	Sent to an industrial school.
0,946	F. or F., Charlotte Rosina	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	I. S. Act Amendment Act, 1880.	Mother charged with soliciting (2.3.07) and remanded for a week. The girl was sent to the workhouse. Upon the remand the mother was fined 20s. or fourteen days. Alleged in evidence that girl was used by mother as a decoy. The woman's husband has been living on her immoral earnings. Girl charged by direction of magistrate.	Girl has been in workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
70,979	E., Dorothy Maud	9 $\frac{6}{12}$	Wandering, etc.	Reputed father undergoing three months' imprisonment for deserting his family. Mother and children were in the workhouse but took their discharge. Although quite destitute mother refuses to again apply to the Guardians.	Mother and children have been in workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
70,980	J., Wm. Henry	7 $\frac{7}{12}$	Do.	Do., do. (same family, except that child is legitimate)	"	Sent to an industrial school.
71,007	S., Benjamin ..	13 $\frac{2}{12}$	Do.	No home. Father was in Paddington Infirmary for two years. When he took his discharge boy was allowed to remain in Ashford Parish School until father found work and made a home. He made no effort to do either and had to take boy out. Been sleeping in common lodging-houses and stables. Mother dead.	Father has been in the infirmary and the boy in a parish school.	Sent to an industrial school.
71,047	C., James Arthur.	3 $\frac{4}{12}$	Do	No home. Found wandering about with mother and a partially paralysed man. Tramp country in summer. Go into workhouse in winter. Whereabouts of father unknown. Boy's sister said to be child of paralysed man.	Family go into the workhouse in the winter.	Sent to an industrial school.
71,050	C., Rose Maud..	10	Do.			Sent to an industrial school.
71,056	F., Florence ..	13	Do.	Found selling hearthstone from door to door, mother following to receive money. Discharged from workhouse March, 1906. Mother and girl living in an empty room. In and out of workhouse thirteen times since October, 1905. Father out of work.	Mother and girl in and out of workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
71,151	H., Ernest Arthur.	10 $\frac{2}{12}$	Wandering, etc.	No home. Found in a common lodging-house. Mother dead. Father and boy frequently in workhouse. Father lives with a Mrs. McK. when she is out of the workhouse.	Father and boy in and out of the workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
71,182	S., Elizabeth Mary	13 $\frac{9}{12}$	Being beyond control.	Mother keeps a general shop; girl constantly robs her. She was in the parish schools at Farnham for nine years. Father dead, mother married again.	Girl has been in parish school.	Sent to an industrial school.

APPENDIX No. LXXIV. (A).—Continued.

Identification Number.	Initial of sur-name and Christian name.	Age.	Charge.	Particulars of Home, Parentage, etc.	Additional particulars.	Action taken by County Council.
71,212	F., Annie ..	7 $\frac{3}{12}$	Wandering, etc.	No home for twelve months except common lodging houses. Father dead. Mother a drunken, worthless woman, constantly in and out of the workhouse, dragging children with her. Threatened by N.S.P.C.C.	Mother and children in and out of workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school. Sent to an industrial school. Sent to an industrial school.
71,213	F., Lawrence ..	10 $\frac{1}{12}$	Do.			
71,214	F., Wm. ..	5	Do.			
71,248	V., Thos. Franklin.	6	Do.	Wandering with sister. Parents ejected from rooms. Father in custody for fraud. Mother an invalid in Bethnal Green Infirmary. Children have been in Bethnal Green Parish Schools.	Children have been in parish schools. Mother in infirmary.	Discharged to workhouse. Do.
71,249	V., Clara Isabella.	4	Do.			
71,262	N., Thos. ..	3 $\frac{2}{12}$	Begging ..	Begging with parents. Parents charged with causing to beg. No home for years, tramping country. Child born in workhouse.	Child born in workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
71,300	K., Jno. Peter..	11	Being beyond control.	Repeatedly runs from home. Mother stated to be an immoral woman. Boy for a time in parish school from which he ran away. A confirmed truant and beyond control	Boy was in parish school from which he absconded.	Sent to an industrial school.
71,306	T., Albt. ..	11 $\frac{1}{12}$	Begging ..	No home. Mother said to be living with a man not her husband. Father of children charged with disorderly conduct and sent to prison for seven days. Been in workhouse six times during the last six months. Children have been sheltered by grandparents.	Family in and out of workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school. Sent to an industrial school.
71,307	T., Alf. ...	12 $\frac{2}{12}$	Do.			
71,313	A., Arthur Geo.	10 $\frac{7}{12}$	Wandering, etc.	Mother cohabited for many years with a man who deserted her a month ago (22.4.07). Rent in arrears, furniture sold, now sheltering with friends. Spent one night in the workhouse. Boy truant and beyond control.	Family in workhouse (one night only).	Sent to an industrial school.
71,315	A. or P., Violet Lousia.	9 $\frac{1}{12}$	Do.	Formerly in Gordon road Workhouse, since 30.10.06 (eleven months). Mother came out recently with the child. She drinks. Has again gone into the workhouse. Child illegitimate.	Family have been in workhouse.	Discharged to workhouse.
71,321	H., Walter ..	4 $\frac{3}{12}$	Do.	No home. Tramp country with parents, sleeping in casual wards and common lodging-houses.	Family have been sleeping in casual wards.	Sent to an industrial school. Sent to an industrial school. Sent to an industrial school. Sent to an industrial school.
71,322	H., James ..	6 $\frac{1}{12}$	Do.			
71,323	H., Thos. ..	9 $\frac{2}{12}$	Do.			
71,324	H., Emily ..	10 $\frac{3}{12}$	Do.			
71,408	H., Hy. Jno. ..	11 $\frac{1}{12}$	E. E. Act, 1876.	Boy goes away from home wandering. Gets into workhouse and is brought home by police. He does not like school. Case of neglect, three children in one small bed. Education Act case (truancy).	Boy has been in workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
71,433	D., Arthur ..	11 $\frac{9}{12}$	Wandering, etc.	Family wretchedly poor; recently came out of workhouse. Boy bears indifferent character; twice charged with begging and discharged.	Family have been in workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
71,434	D., Fdk. ..	13 $\frac{10}{12}$	Do.			
71,550	C., Lilac ..	9 $\frac{5}{12}$	Wandering, etc.	No home. Whereabouts of father unknown. Mother and children been tramping country, sleeping in fields and casual wards. Continually in and out of workhouse.	Family in and out of workhouse. Sleep in casual wards.	Sent to an industrial school. Sent to an industrial school.
71,551	C., Rose ..	7 $\frac{4}{12}$				
71,570	M., Thos. Jas. ...	13 $\frac{4}{12}$	E. E. Act, 1876.	Father and boy came out of workhouse three months ago. Father then deserted family. Mother only earns few shilling weekly. Home, one kitchen, very poor but clean. Mother and five children all sleep in one bed. Elementary Education Act case (truancy).	Father and boy have been in workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.

APPENDIX No. LXXIV. (A).—Continued.

Identification number.	Initial of surname and Christian name.	Age.	Charge.	Particulars of Home, Parentage, etc.	Additional particulars.	Action taken by County Council.
629	S., Maria ..	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	Wandering, etc.	Children found at midnight in a filthy, verminous condition. Parents drunkards, constantly in and out of workhouse. Two children already in industrial schools.	Family in and out of workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
630	S., Ellen ..	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	Do.			
694	McC., Annie ..	12 $\frac{9}{12}$	Do.		Girl has been in workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
1,704	T. or C., Hy. ..	13	E. E. Act, 1876.	Mr. and Mrs. T. cohabited before marriage and two children were born in the workhouse. One now sent to Feltham and this boy to Brunswick Road. Home poor.	Boy born in workhouse.	Sent to a day industrial school.
1,713	S., Albert ..	11	Wandering, etc.	Boy said to have been in Hanwell Schools since he was four years of age. Father arrested in April, 1905, at instance of Guardians; took children out of workhouse to avoid being sent to prison. Boy has been living with aunt. Father lives in casual wards and common lodging-houses.	Boy has been in Hanwell Parish Schools. Father has been in casual wards.	Discharged to workhouse.
1,718	N., Joseph ..	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	Begging ..	Boy a truant. Parents are drunkards and fight and quarrel. Boy previously charged and sent to workhouse. Home very poor.	Boy has been in workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
1,734	S., Wm. ..	13 $\frac{5}{12}$	Stealing ..	Home conditions wretched. Boy has bad companions; frequently sleeps out. When arrested was dirty, verminous and almost starving. Beyond control. Was in Gordon Road Workhouse two years ago. Certified unfit for truant school in April last (consumption).	Boy has been in workhouse.	Discharged to infirmary.
1,745	B., John ..	8	Wandering, etc.	Father ejected from home four weeks ago. Came out of workhouse with children three months ago. Now sleeping in an empty kitchen. Does little or no work. Wife has left him several times to live with another man.	Father and children have been in workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
1,746	B., Martha ..	5 $\frac{8}{12}$	Do.			
1,799	C., Wm. ..	9	Do.	Boy and brother illegitimate. They are the children of mother's present husband's brother with whom she lived before marriage. Boy continually runs from home to the Romford Workhouse. Home poor.	Boy has been in workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
1,863	S., Alf. Edwd. ...	13 $\frac{8}{12}$	E. E. Act, 1876.	Parents separated. Boy beyond mother's control. She is at work all day. Headmaster gives boy a fair character. He was in Newington Workhouse seven years ago for eight weeks.	Boy has been in workhouse.	Undisposed of; truant school named, but boy attending regularly. (Over age, 20.11.07.)
1,961	F., John ..	7 $\frac{2}{12}$	Wandering, etc.	No home. Mother a single woman. Father of children has deserted her. Mother's whereabouts at present unknown, but she is not difficult to find, as she is a local character, and is probably looking for the father of the children. Mother drags the children in and out of the workhouse. Four times this year (until August, 1907)	Mother and children in and out of workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
1,962	F., Fredk. ..	11 $\frac{1}{12}$	Do.			
2,012	P., Thomas ..	12 $\frac{3}{12}$	Do.	Mother dead. Father in workhouse. Boy absconded from parish school. States he wants to go on a ship. Guardians written to on 5.9.07 and 13.9.07. Parent declined to consent to boy going on board the "Exmouth." Guardians agree that boy should be sent to a training ship but decline to make any payment towards his maintenance.	Father in workhouse. Boy an absconder from a parish school.	Sent to an industrial school.

APPENDIX No. LXXIV. (A). —Continued.

Identification Number.	Initial of sur-name and Christian name.	Age.	Charge.	Particulars of Home, Parentage, etc.	Additional particulars.	Action taken by County Council.
72,031	H., Alfred ..	12 $\frac{9}{12}$	Wandering, etc.	Father deserted family. Mother and children went into workhouse, and children were sent to Sidcup Parish Schools. The boy will not stay there; he has absconded four times. Guardians have been written to, but decline to take action for an industrial school.	Mother and children in workhouse. Boy an absconder from parish school.	Sent to an industrial school.
72,070	B., Alf. Frank..	13 $\frac{8}{12}$	E. E. Act, 1876.	Father dead. Mother at work all day and unable to control boy. Home circumstances extremely poor. Three months in City Road Workhouse six years ago. Education Act case (truancy).	Boy has been in workhouse.	A truant school named, but boy is now attending regularly.
72,072	J. or H., Emily	11 $\frac{1}{12}$	Wandering, etc.	Mother and children were begging in Walworth Road on Sunday afternoon. Father subsequently charged with causing to beg. Mother admits begging for past seven years. Man sells song books and does odd jobs. Woman sells matches in public-houses, taking the children with her. N.S.P.C.C. has visited case. In St. Luke's Workhouse seven years ago.	Family have been in workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
72,075	C., Archie ..	8 $\frac{7}{12}$	Do.	No home. Mother dead. Father imprisoned for two months for deserting children. When released he took the children out of the workhouse, and also a woman. They all went to Burke's Lodging-house, taking one room and paying 9s. weekly. The woman is often drunk, and is known to be a prostitute. Children all excluded from school on account of their verminous condition.	Children have been in workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
72,076	C., Lily ..	10 $\frac{9}{12}$	Do.			
72,077	C., George ..	12 $\frac{11}{12}$	Do.			
72,084	G., James ..	11 $\frac{7}{12}$	E. E. Act, 1876.	Family turned out of home for non-payment of rent and the theft of a shirt. Were a few days in Paddington Workhouse. Now sheltered by a married son and his wife in the one room occupied by them.	Family have been in workhouse (a few days only).	Sent to an industrial school.
72,085	C., George ..	11 $\frac{8}{12}$	Begging	Boy previously charged in May, 1903, and father bound over. Parents went hop-picking on the 5th September last, and boy has been sleeping out since. Father does but little work, and has been imprisoned for assaulting his wife. Boy has been several times in Paddington Parish Schools.	Boy several times in parish schools.	Discharged.
72,125	T., James ...	12 $\frac{2}{12}$	E. E. Act, 1876.	Boy out of hand and difficult to manage. Beyond control of mother, whom he has assaulted. Headmaster says: "Weak parental control." Home conditions very poor. Boy was in Salford Workhouse for seven months two years ago.	Boy has been in workhouse.	Undisposed of. A truant school named, but boy is now attending regularly.
72,134	Y., Jno. Percival Geo.	8 $\frac{2}{12}$	Wandering, etc.,	Father dead. Mother and boy have been homeless for over two years, and have spent seven months in the workhouse. Mother cohabits with a man.	Mother and boy have been in workhouse.	Case adjourned <i>sine die</i> . Boy is suffering from severe ringworm of the scalp.
72,193	W., William ...	13	Stealing ..	Charged with stealing from a gas meter. Case of poverty. Furniture consists of one small table and an old iron bedstead.	Boy was born in Whitechapel Workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
72,198	S., Jas. Edward	11	E. E. Act, 1876.	Bad case of neglect. Father stays away from home for several nights together. Mother and children very poor. Child has been in workhouse several times. Education Act case (truancy).	Boy has been in workhouse several times.	Sent to a truant school.
72,228	S., Jas....	10 $\frac{6}{12}$	Begging ..	Boy has been in workhouse schools (Hornsey Road). Parents very poor. Father consumptive and frequently has to go into workhouse. Now carrying boards for the Church Army.	Father goes in and out of workhouse. Boy has been in parish school.	Discharged.

APPENDIX No. LXXIV. (A).—Continued.

Identification number.	Initial of surname and Christian name.	Age.	Charge.	Particulars of Home, Parentage, etc.	Additional particulars.	Action taken by County Council.
2,230	B., Daniel ..	12 $\frac{8}{12}$	E. E. Act, 1876.	Parents poor but respectable. Boy charged with stealing and birched 18.7.07. Again charged with wandering at Walthamstow. Sent to workhouse. Truant and sleeps out. Education Act case (truancy).	Boy has been in workhouse (apparently only pending inquiries).	Sent to an industrial school.
2,255	H., Edwin James	5 $\frac{8}{12}$	Wandering, etc.	Found in a ragged, dirty condition and without boots. Parents no home for 3 years—drink. Father does little or nothing to support family and has been several times charged. Have been in Kensington and Paddington Workhouses.	Family have been in workhouse	Sent to an industrial school.
2,256	H., Walter Thos.	7 $\frac{11}{12}$	Do.			Sent to an industrial school.
2,272	S., Geo. ..	12 $\frac{8}{12}$	Do.	No home. No school attendance for months. Father dead. Case of neglect. Boy has been in workhouse.	Boy has been in workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
2,321	F., Alf. . .	10 $\frac{3}{12}$	Wandering, etc.	No home. Parents' character bad—living in workhouses, shelters and lodging-houses. Father a drunkard, children much neglected.	Parents have been in workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school. Sent to an industrial school.
2,322	F., Wm. ..	3 $\frac{10}{12}$	Do.			
2,326	C., Bridget ..	12 $\frac{3}{12}$	Do.	Father dead. Mother drinks. Girl has been in workhouse. Family of 3 in one small room with one bed. Girl said to frequent bad company and to be addicted to habits of indecency.	Girl has been in workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
2,334	O'G., Amelia ..	13 $\frac{2}{12}$	Wandering, etc.	Two families who tramp about together. They have had no home for 10 years but tramp the country in summer fruit-picking, etc., and go into the workhouse during the winter. They have been in St. Olave's Workhouse eleven times since 1896.	Families in and out of workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school. Sent to an industrial school. Sent to an industrial school. Sent to an industrial school. Sent to an industrial school.
2,335	O'G., Blanche..	7 $\frac{8}{12}$	Do.			
2,336	O'G., Michael..	4 $\frac{7}{12}$	Do.			
2,337	K., John ..	13 $\frac{3}{12}$	Do.			
2,338	K., Edward ..	10 $\frac{11}{12}$	Do.			
2,361	R., Edwd. ..	9 $\frac{4}{12}$	E. E. Act, 1876.	Father a cripple. No trouble taken to get boy to school—a girl now in Ponton Road D.I.S. Boy has been in workhouse.	Boy has been in workhouse.	Sent to a day industrial school.
2,366	N., Gerald ..	11 $\frac{3}{12}$	I. S. Act, Amendment Act, 1880.	Three years ago mother was sent to an inebriates home; while there her husband died and the children were sent to the workhouse. When the mother left the home she removed this boy from the workhouse (January, 1907). She is leading an immoral life and has had 8 or 10 different addresses since leaving the home.	Boy has been in workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
12,367	H., Hy. Geo. ..	10 $\frac{8}{12}$	Begging ..	A wretched family, constantly in and out of the workhouse. The father has deserted his family many times and is now alleged to be living with another woman. The mother has been imprisoned for being drunk while in charge of a child.	Family in and out of workhouse.	Sent to an industrial school.
12,408	R., Charles ..	12 $\frac{11}{12}$	Being beyond control.	Mother died nine years ago; father's whereabouts unknown for last two years. Boy lives with an aunt, who is a respectable woman with a small confectioner's shop. The boy was sent to the Mitcham Schools. He has since been brought up by his aunt, but is now unmanageable; steals money; absconded from home and brought back by police; stubbornly refuses to attend school and gives no promise of amendment.	Boy has been in parish school.	Sent to an industrial school.
72,417	W., Albert Edward.	10 $\frac{11}{12}$	Stealing ..	Boy concerned with others in stealing boots. Mother and children went into workhouse. This was done in order to obtain a warrant for the arrest of the man, who had deserted his family for three years. He was found and sent to prison for six months.	Family has been in workhouse.	Discharged.

APPENDIX No. LXXIV. (A).—Continued.

Identifi- cation Number.	Initial of sur- name and Christian name.	Age.	Charge.	Particulars of Home, Parentage, etc.	Additional particulars.	Action taken by County Council.
72,438	C., John Jos. . .	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	Wandering, etc.	Home, one poor room. Mother dead. Boy sells papers in the City and gets his food by begging. He was in the Brentwood Parish School but absconded, taking his younger brother with him. They were found and taken home.	Boy has been in parish school.	Sent to an indus- trial school.
72,455	T., Violet . .	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	Do.	No home. Parents are tramps who sleep in common lodging-houses when they have money to pay for their lodging. Two children sent to an industrial school in March, 1905. The parents have been tramping ever since the birth of this child in the Plumstead In- firmmary.	Girl was born in the infirmary.	Sent to an indus- trial school.
72,517	W., Ernest . .	9 $\frac{5}{7}$	Begging	No home. Father turned out of his room and children went into work-house. Mother dead. Father has been cohabiting with a woman who sent the children out to beg, spending the money received in drink.	Child has been in workhouse.	Sent to an indus- trial school.
72,530	M., Mary . .	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	Wandering, etc.	No settled home for five years. Mother dead. Father's character is good, but he lives in common lodging-houses. He is a wood-chopper, but is a cripple. Girl has been in parochial school and Bromley Sick Asylum; recently kept by a woman who can now keep her no longer.	Girl has been in parochial school and Bromley Sick Asylum.	Sent to an indus- trial school.

The numbers bracketed together refer to children of the same family.

APPENDIX No. LXXV.

CORRESPONDENCE BETWEEN THE LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL AND THE COMMISSION
AS TO THE QUALITY OF THE WORK PERFORMED BY THE UNEMPLOYED.

Scotland House,
Victoria Embankment,
Westminster, S.W.,
28th January, 1908.

SIR,— I am, at the same time, to say that the Commission would feel much obliged if the London County Council could by the date referred to also send in to them a short statement dealing with the quality of the work performed for the London County Council by the "Unemployed" under Mr. Walter Long's scheme and the Unemployed Workmen Act in each year since 1904-5.

I am, sir,
Your obedient servant
R. G. DUFF,
Secretary.

The Clerk of the
London County Council,
County Hall, Spring Gardens.

LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL.
County Hall,
Spring Gardens, S.W.,
13th March, 1908.

SIR,—With further reference to your letter of 28th January, 1908, as to the quality of the work which

has been executed, on behalf of the Council, by un-
employed workmen since the year 1904-5, I have to
state that, generally speaking, the work has been car-
ried out in a satisfactory manner. A distinct im-
provement has been noticeable, during the last two
years, in the execution of works undertaken at the
Council's parks, such as levelling and returfing play-
grounds and grass areas, mudding out lakes and ponds,
and clearing channels of streams, cleansing and reno-
vating old shrubberies, etc.

The works carried out in connection with the hous-
ing of the working classes and the main drainage
services have also been dealt with in a very satisfac-
tory manner.

I am, sir,
Your obedient servant,
G. L. GOMME,
Clerk of the Council.

The Secretary,
Royal Commission on the Poor Laws
and Relief of Distress,
Scotland House,
Victoria Embankment, S.W.

APPENDIX No. LXXVI.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY MR. WALTER MILLEDGE, SECRETARY TO THE
BRADFORD CITY GUILD OF HELP.

1.—In order to justify the claim that Guilds of Help merit some consideration, it may be stated that since Bradford first organised personal philanthropy under that title, less than four years ago, thirty-one towns have adopted similar methods. This seems to be sufficient proof that these methods, and the ideas for which they stand, are suited to the temper of the times, and therefore accepted readily; and this is the more evident when we add that no effort at propaganda has been possible.

2.—The following account of the origin of the Guild of Help movement may indicate the causes of its rapid growth and successful operations: a further description of the machinery of the organisation as it has developed in Bradford with an examination of the principal aims which have emerged as the result of experience will be sufficient to show the scope of its present operations; this will lead naturally to suggestions for encouraging the adoption of similar methods throughout the Kingdom, for promoting their efficiency, and for securing the co-operation of Guilds of Help or similar organisations with the Poor Law and other authorities.

ORIGIN OF THE BRADFORD GUILD OF HELP.

3.—(a) The situation in Bradford before the formation of the Guild of Help in regard to voluntary agencies for helping the poor, was one which is common to many large cities; there were many charitable societies and poor funds together with personal almsgiving of a generous description, and as the services of the local C.O.S. to which no voluntary workers are attached were not generally used, the usual abuses and complications resulted, and public opinion might be counted upon to respond to any sentimental appeal, even if somewhat ill-advised.

(b) As against this the public administration of poor relief in Bradford had, under wise supervision, been steadily improving, the efficacy of strict investigation and careful classification had been proved, and several of the leading citizens had become expert administrators. Some of these were also prominent members of the various charitable bodies, and to them it was evident that much of the material help provided by the voluntary agencies was not only ineffectual in securing any permanent improvement in the condition of those who were helped, but was in some cases actually pernicious in its effects. In many cases it was seen that individual and continuous treatment was necessary if lasting benefit was to result from the help given, and to secure treatment of this character it was evident that a large number of workers would be needed. By the advice of a member of the Board of Guardians of ripe experience, who was also familiar with German methods of poor relief, a careful study of the Elberfeld system was made by several influential men and women, with a view to adapting it to the needs of an English town. At their request a conference was called by the mayor, a provisional committee was appointed, and a scheme was drawn up and adopted, and has now been in operation for nearly four years.

PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING THE GUILD OF
HELP MOVEMENT.

4.—(a) In certain directions the conditions in an English city are wholly different from those which obtain in Germany, and some modification in method was necessary, but the basis of the constitution of the Guild of Help is similar to that of the Elberfeld system, inasmuch as it asserts the principle that the citizens are personally as well as collectively responsible for the welfare of the members of the community, and cannot delegate that responsibility to a handful of public officials or charitable agents. The guild enlists its workers, not as members of particular churches or chapels, not as social workers of certain political creeds, not even as philanthropists, but as public spirited citizens concerned

for the common weal. It is easy to under-estimate the importance of this, but the fact remains that in response to an appeal to the personal sense of responsibility of the citizens of Bradford for the well-being of their less fortunate neighbours, 500 workers were secured representing all shades of religious and political opinion, and these have worked in complete harmony for more than three years.

(b) Another principle to which much of the continued success of the work may be traced is seen in the methods of decentralisation. A local and personal sense of responsibility is fostered by giving the local committees control of their own affairs, and by giving the individual worker all the freedom in his work which is consistent with general uniformity. This appeal in the first place to the sense of citizenship, followed by bold reliance on a personal sense of responsibility, has produced an extraordinary response, both in numbers and in the character of the work which has been done.

ORGANISATION OF THE BRADFORD GUILD OF
HELP.

5.—(a) In order to create a sense of local responsibility, the city is divided into small areas which have no relation to the municipal ward areas. The four large Poor Law divisions are each of them subdivided into ten districts, making forty in all, of a size varying according to the character of the district; in the poorer quarters the districts are small. In each district there are ten or more helpers, whose work is strictly defined; no one is given more than four homes to visit, many not more than two, but these homes must be visited frequently and for a considerable period of time. If a district committee has more than twenty-five cases to deal with the area is divided.

(b) The helpers in each district elect their own district head or chairman, and he appoints his deputy, and a local secretary. In this way the whole of the Bradford Union is mapped out into small districts, each with a responsible district head and ten or more helpers. The ten district heads in each division appoint the divisional chairman, and meet together from time to time to discuss the conditions and organization of their division. They also elect one of their own number to represent them together with the divisional chairman, on the executive committee. Thus eight practical workers are duly elected to form the nucleus of the executive committee, with power to co-opt additional members who retire annually. The co-opted members include representatives from the Poor Law Guardians, the Education, Health, and Watch Committees, and the principal charitable societies.

METHODS OF THE BRADFORD GUILD OF
HELP.

6.—(a) Notification of cases which appear to require the assistance of the Guild of Help is made by the clerk to the guardians, the relieving officers, the school medical officers, the school feeding staff, the teachers, the female health inspectors, and occasionally by the police and county court officials. In addition to these there are the more usual sources of information, such as the clergy, the employers, and numerous personal applications.

(b) At the central office there is a register of all recipients of Poor Law relief (outdoor), all defective children visited by the Education (After Care) Committee, and of all cases dealt with by four of the principal voluntary relief agencies.

When a case is notified, the register is searched, and if no record is found, a special enquiry is made of the relieving officer and the Charity Organisation Society for any available information. Such information is copied on to a case paper, which is sent to the district head, and by him is given to a suitable

APPENDIX No. LXXVI.—*Continued.*

helper, male or female, as the circumstances may indicate. The helper visits the home, obtains particulars, and immediately consults his district head in order that steps may be taken at once. The district committee meets fortnightly, when each helper presents a written report, and each case is carefully considered, a decision being made as to the immediate treatment of the case and future policy.

(c) More than two-thirds of the cases are visited weekly for an average period of six months, and after the first visit each of them is recorded in a case book, which provides a continuous record or diary of all the efforts of the helper, and of the decisions of the committee. The remainder are such cases as can be dealt with in two or three visits, and these are recorded on the preliminary case paper, which is then filed. All the papers and books are sent to the Central Office after each District Committee meeting, and the records are copied before the books go back to the helpers. Thus the progress of each case is fully recorded at the Central Office fortnight by fortnight, and in some instances there is a continuous history extending over three years.

(d) There is no relief fund, but each worker is provided with a handbook showing the charitable and social resources of the city, and the district heads become expert in advising as to the proper use of the various agencies, the Guild serving as a clearing house. This may be illustrated by enumerating some of the principal agencies.

FOR SICKNESS OR INJURY.

Royal Infirmary, in, out, and home treatment.
 Eye and Ear Hospital.
 Harrogate Royal Bath Hospital, for uric acid and skin diseases.
 Buxton Devonshire Hospital, for rheumatism and gout.
 St. Catherine's Home, for cancer and incurables.
 Eastby and Eldwick Poor Law Sanatoria, for consumption.
 Bradford Children's Hospital.
 Union Infirmary.
 Surgical Instruments—Samaritan Society.
 Sick Nourishment—Samaritan Society.
 District Nursing Association.

CONVALESCENCE.

Numerous convalescent homes and, in the case of children, the Victoria Children's Convalescent Fund.

CHILDREN.

Education Committee for School Meals.
 Cinderella Club for clogs and clothing, also milk for infants and mothers (supplied from the Municipal Milk Depot).
 Lantern Bearers' Society, for teaching at home crippled or deficient children unable to attend deficient school.
 Summer Holiday Fund and Ambler Holiday Home.
 Nutter Orphanage for Boys.
 Orphan Girls' Home.
 National Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children.
 Factory Inspectors, in regard to employment of uncertified or unfit children.

WOMEN.

Education Authority's Cookery and Dressmaking Classes for Women.
 Ladies Lying-in Charity.
 Association for Care of Friendless Girls.
 Rescue Committee for Fallen Girls.
 Female Health Inspectors, in regard to domestic filth.

PERMANENT INFIRMITY.

Institution for the Blind.
 Deaf and Dumb Institute.

POVERTY OR INDIGENCE.

Tradesmen's Homes and Benevolent Association.
 Spinsters' Endowment Fund.
 The Jacob Moser Aged Workpeople's Benevolent Trust Fund.
 Charity Organisation Society, for temporary distress.
 Many small charitable funds.

HOMELESS.

Salvation Army Shelter and Elevator.
 Women's Shelter.

Specific needs which cannot be met in this way are provided for on the "special case system," by direct appeal to benevolent persons.

(e) There is a Guild of Help Loan Fund, granting loans not exceeding £5 for refurnishing homes which have been sold up or taken by the hire-purchase companies, for providing stock for hawkers or small shopkeepers, for purchasing tools, false teeth, etc.; but loans are not made to pay debts or redeem pledged goods, the fund being intended to be used "for fresh enterprise." Repayments are collected in small weekly instalments.

(f) In one district a penny bank has been opened, and has met with considerable success owing to the personal efforts of the helpers, although the Yorkshire Penny Bank had not been patronised.

(g) Free legal advice, sometimes followed by legal assistance, is given by several solicitors at the request of the Guild. The larger number of the cases relate to separation and administration orders, and workmen's compensation. In the case of county court and administration orders the helpers collect weekly instalments and pay them into court monthly.

(h) There is a monthly magazine for educational and advertising purposes.

AIMS.

7.—(a) The first object of the Guild of Help was expressed simply as being "to provide a friend for all in need of help or advice," and it is doubtful whether the founders realised the extent to which its active operations would become dovetailed into the work of public bodies. From the first, emphasis has been laid on personal influence rather than on material relief, and on sustained moral pressure rather than any sudden attempt to alter conditions artificially. If it be granted that many conditions of a large industrial centre are directly responsible for the degradation and poverty of the people, it is nevertheless a fact that the first to succumb to those conditions are the mentally and morally weak, and it is the aim of the Guild to provide that mental stimulus and moral support which is needed if any material help is to be made effectual.

(b) The special features of the work are that it is individual and continuous. The helper is able to make friends with all the members of the family, to know each child by name, to hear of relatives, and to get the intimate and personal point of view which can only be gained by frequent visits. It is his aim to develop the internal resources of the home, its wage-earning capacity from the material point of view, and also its social and educational possibilities. This cannot be done in a week or a month, and we have in Bradford an average of 500 homes visited weekly, and many of them have been so visited for more than twelve months. The result is a relationship between helper and helped which may justly be termed as friendship.

THE RELATION OF THE GUILD OF HELP TO PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION.

8.—(a) A very short experience revealed the fact that many cases were already known to, if not immediately under the supervision of, one department or another of the Civic Administration. The conditions in Bradford being peculiarly favourable, it was as readily discovered that the various authorities were quite prepared to assist with information and advice in all such cases, and the further step by which the authorities notify cases needing the help of the Guild soon followed.

(b) In the case of the Health Department, there are five female health inspectors, and, taking only one branch of their work, that arising from the adoption of the Compulsory Notification of Births Act, it is evident that there is an enormous field for the co-operation of voluntary workers. The worst cases of neglectful or ignorant mothers cannot be visited officially more frequently than once a month. These are notified for weekly visitation by the Guild helper, under the direction of the inspector. Filthy homes need the same constant attention.

APPENDIX No. LXXVI.—*Continued.*

(c) The school medical officer notifies cases where medical treatment is not provided after his inspection, or where home conditions are unfavourable to recovery, or convalescent treatment is required. The School Feeding (Education) Authority notifies cases where it is evident that more is needed than the mid-day meal which is being provided.

The county court officials suggest cases where legal advice is needed, or where friendly pressure may secure regular payments under a judgment order, and consequent release from difficulties.

POOR LAW.

9.—But in the case of the Poor Law Authority, the work of the Guild is of even more direct economic importance, and with this department co-operation has been more fully developed. It has been stated that each of the four divisions of the Guild coincides with a relief area of the Poor Law, so that the workers in the ten sub-divisions or districts have one relieving officer and one Relief Committee dealing with their cases. The Guild Central Office also provides a supervisor for each division, who attends the meetings of the District Committees, and to these supervisors the guardians have granted the privilege of attending the weekly Relief Committees held at the relief stations.

This arrangement enables the Guild to select suitable cases for visitation, to grasp the intentions of the guardians in regard to particular cases, in some instances to represent special aspects of a case, and generally promotes real co-operation. In addition to this, the relieving officers are frequently consulted by the district heads direct.

10.—A certain number of the cases referred to the guild by the Guardians are those in which the application for relief has been refused, either because there is no destitution, although there may be distress, or because the trouble is evidently of a temporary nature. In either case timely help may remove the danger of pauperism, and the personal influence of the guild helper may provide the necessary impulse towards recovery of independence. Of those actually in receipt of Poor Law relief two classes offer considerable scope for the work of the guild.

11. *Able Bodied Men with Two or More Children.*—These are granted relief on performing a daily task known as "test work." There is always a danger that they will relax their efforts to find work, and in this they need constant encouragement, while their wives need every inducement to retain their self-respect and "house pride." The guild does not supplement the relief, but the woman is sometimes helped with cast-off clothes, and is taught to make the best of what she has, while the landlord is induced to be lenient in regard to rent. Frequently the home has been depleted of all that is saleable, and even when work is obtained, continued supervision is needed while debts are being paid, and necessary utensils and clothing are being replaced. Help of this description is always possible, and not infrequently the work itself has been obtained as a result of the efforts of the helper, thus the rates are relieved sooner than would otherwise have been the case.

12. *Widows with Dependent Children.*—These have been helped with even greater success. There is a variety of employment for women in Bradford, and in cases where none of the children are under school age, it is quite possible for the mothers to support two or even three children. In some instances a fee is demanded before the trade can be learnt, and in any case some enterprise is needed to secure regular employment. In a number of cases the helper has provided the fee for learning the trade (weaving), has found a suitable dwelling near the mill, and has succeeded in establishing the family in independence. When this has been accomplished, there is always the possibility that illness, or slackness of work, may threaten the security of the home, and constant watchfulness is required until one of the children is old enough to work.

13.—In addition to this, all persons discharged from the Poor Law sanatorium for consumption, both men and women, are referred to the guild, and the helper is required to see that the patient in his own home continues, as far as possible, the conditions under which he has been living at the sanatorium. The prejudice

against open windows on the part of his home people must be overcome, separate sleeping accommodation secured, occupation under reasonably healthy conditions must be sought, and not unusually the patient needs moral bracing after the long period of enforced idleness. When it is stated that the average cost of each patient admitted to the sanatorium is £40, it will be seen that some form of after-care is of economic importance.

14.—Other cases call for the adjustment of family quarrels, for the provision of suitable lodgings for aged persons, and for numerous other friendly services which can be rendered by an intelligent helper, but which are outside the province of the official. In every case it may be claimed that such services remove the need for public relief, or render it more effectual.

PUBLIC OPINION.

15.—The effect of the organisation of the Guild of Help on public opinion is very considerable. Here in Bradford, for example, we have 500 citizens drawn from all classes of the community confronted with the problems of poverty, and studying the policy and effects of the official administration, not academically, but by daily observation. The result is a lively attention to matters which hitherto have been treated with apathy, and the creation throughout the city of an altogether healthy interest in local government and administration.

16.—In order to extend the organisation of the Guild of Help throughout the kingdom, the financial support and recognition of the Public Authority is needed. The expenses of administration are heavy, especially in the item of salaries. This arises from the fact that special qualifications are needed in the paid workers, and also from the extent of the operations of the guild. In order to enlist an army of 500 voluntary workers, the sympathy and co-operation of the religious leaders of all denominations must be secured, and the enthusiasm of all sections of the community must be aroused. The work of propaganda must be persistently carried on, and never allowed to flag. Not only is it necessary to replace workers who from one cause or another are unable to continue their work, but the demands made upon everyone who undertakes to help are so considerable, and the nature of the work is so depressing, that constant encouragement and stimulus must be provided. The district heads need frequent advice, and every new worker must be educated and trained, co-operation with public officials and charitable agencies needs continual adjustment; in a word, the paid workers must have extraordinary tact and resourcefulness, as well as unbounded enthusiasm.

17.—The office work alone is heavy, as may be imagined when it is stated that in Bradford the total number of cases actually reported upon in writing from week to week exceeds the number of those dealt with by the Guardians at all the weekly relief committees taken together. In 1907, 1,071 cases were dealt with, including 4,384 persons. In addition to registration and enquiry, all reports must be carefully scrutinised, in order that, if possible, some useful suggestion may be made to the local committee, and cases which appear to have been neglected must be investigated. Moreover, practical work reveals many opportunities for promoting the development on new lines of old established charities—the Ladies' Lying-in Charity may be transformed into a midwifery centre, the Girls' Club into a housewifery class.

18.—All of this implies the employment of an adequate staff, and in Bradford there is a general secretary, £250; an assistant-secretary (lady), £100; and a clerk (lady), £52. This staff is supplemented by the voluntary services of a gentleman, who gives two hours every morning to office work, and twelve ladies, two of whom come for two hours each afternoon. At present the divisional supervisors are unpaid, but the work is very exacting, and will, probably, necessitate additional paid assistance in the near future.

19.—The number of philanthropic persons who are disposed to contribute towards purely administrative expenses is limited, and while it may be comparatively easy to raise money for relief purposes, it is extremely difficult to provide adequately for office and staff expenses, even on the most economical basis.

APPENDIX No. LXXVI.—*Continued.*

20.—The Poor Law Authority might be empowered to defray these charges, and, possibly, to provide suitable offices for the guild, but further than this some official recognition of the organisation is desirable. The privilege of representation on the relief committee granted by the Bradford Guardians to the guild might be extended without danger by the co-option of the nominees of the Guild to the full membership of the Board of Guardians, and this would clearly define a position which is at present somewhat anomalous, and would justify in the eyes of the Poor Law officials the claim of the guild to their co-operation.

21.—The support and recognition of the guild by the Poor Law Authority would, of course, imply proper representation on the executive committee of the guild, and the fulfilment of certain conditions would be required before such support was sanctioned by the Local Government Board. The Guild of Help should be required to give an undertaking to deal with cases referred to it by the Guardians from any part of the

Poor Law area. It should be able to show that the other charitable societies were properly represented on its executive committee, and that it was the focus of the philanthropic work of the city. The last condition, which implies the formation of a Charities Board for the city, would become much easier of fulfilment if it were known that such a board would be officially recognised.

22.—Assuming that such support and recognition were granted, it is easy to indicate directions in which the usefulness of the guild might be extended. All families discharged from the workhouse, all women leaving the lying-in ward, all persons in receipt of outdoor relief, might be referred to the guild, to say nothing of that large and difficult class of applicants who, when offered "the House," refuse to accept it, and remain, often with young children in their care, in the most undesirable surroundings, and in a most deplorable condition.

APPENDIX No. LXXVII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY MR. ALFRED A. MILLWARD, CLERK TO THE GUARDIANS, ST. PANCRAS PARISH, AS TO THE TRAINING OF RELIEVING OFFICERS.

I am submitting extracts from a paper relating to this subject I had the honour to read at a Poor Law Conference in London on the 10th December, 1903, together with a paper read on the same occasion by the Superintendent Relieving Officer of St. Pancras.

Considerable interest and encouragement were displayed in the discussion upon these papers at that Conference, and the development of the proposal for affording facilities for the training of relieving officers has been so far advanced as to have already become favourably recognized far beyond the Metropolis, and

the growth of the scheme to its present successful issue is mainly due to the cheerful energy of the Honorary Secretary to "The School of Sociology and Social Economics"—Mrs. G. F. Hill, B.A., of 10, Kensington Mansions, S.W.

Mrs. Hill has prepared a report upon the work, and results of the lectures and examinations already held, and in allusion to those in prospect; and I think she is ready, if so desired by the Royal Commission, to present that report as evidence on this subject.

APPENDIX No. LXXVII. (A)

Handed in by Mr. Alfred A. Millward, St. Pancras.

EXTRACTS FROM PAPERS ON THE TRAINING OF RELIEVING OFFICERS, READ BEFORE THE SOUTH EASTERN AND METROPOLITAN DISTRICTS POOR LAW CONFERENCE, ON 10TH DECEMBER, 1903, BY MR. ALFRED A. MILLWARD, CLERK TO THE GUARDIANS, AND MR. HODGSON A. CRAIG, SUPERINTENDENT RELIEVING OFFICER, ST. PANCAS.

(a) MR MILLWARD'S PAPER.

Our special attention just now is directed to the measures for dealing with the classes of poor who come within the scope of Poor Law administration, viz., those whose condition of indigence may, for various reasons, have become so urgent as to justify application for assistance from the poor rates, and whose claim for such assistance has, in the first instance, to undergo a careful investigation on the part of the relieving officer; and so my object in this paper is to give some impetus to the growing conviction that candidates for the position of relieving officer should have had theoretical teaching and opportunities of practical administrative education to be qualified for the very important duties to be performed in that capacity.

There is, however, the less reason for me to pursue this as an argument in much detail, since I shall be followed by Mr. Hodgson A. Craig, Superintendent Relieving Officer of St. Pancras Parish, with a Paper which admirably sets forth reasons for the training of relieving officers,

and its value is greatly enhanced by the fact that it emanates from an experienced relieving officer, who is supported in his views on this subject by the majority of his colleagues and co-workers.

* * * * *

In large parishes and unions many of the candidates for the office have had opportunity, as assistant relieving officers, of becoming acquainted with portions of these duties, and some of them may have been entrusted with more than the clerical work; but others are restricted to clerical work, and this in many places demands their full working hours. Even if such candidates as these were sufficiently numerous, and always had preference, the desirableness still remains for the uplifting of the qualifications of candidates; and it seems to be conceded on every side that opportunity should be afforded for aspirants to the position of a relieving officer to become possessed of a knowledge of the principles and aims of the

APPENDIX No. LXXVII. (A).—*Continued.*

Poor Law system; and it will be of the utmost advantage if such officers have received a measure of training in social economics, and in the principles which lie at the root of all social effort, whether legal or voluntary, to entitle them to a reliable certificate as evidence of their having availed themselves of the means of obtaining the requisite qualifications.

Theory unconfirmed by practice is seldom very impressive; but a good acquisition of theoretical knowledge, imparted by experienced teachers, and enlightened by chances of listening to intelligent discussions among those actually engaged in the work, would give a most valuable start towards the entry into practice, and the mind would become stored with an insight into first causes and guiding principles which would inevitably expedite efficiency.

* * * * *

Let the relieving officers be well equipped with knowledge and some training, to attain the skill to wisely use and classify the facts they have to collect.

They have to distinguish between what is real, and what is defective, relevant and irrelevant; they must possess the power of sympathy for one, and sound judgment not to be misled by the other.

The guardians, for the most part, receive their impression of the case from the officer's report, and the trend of the report inevitably gets its impetus from the officer's point of view.

He may deem it to be his duty to confine himself to making a simple statement of facts, without offering comments upon them, but even then his own conception of the value of the facts to be mentioned has its influence. He may have misunderstood a clean and tidy home and respectable exterior, and assumed there were resources which had no existence; or he may have been misled by the signs of penury which had been due to culpable negligence, and did not accurately reveal the true conditions of the case.

His duties and responsibilities under the Lunacy Laws demand the exercise of discretionary powers and intelligence of more than an ordinary degree.

The guardians are not wholly dependent upon the information obtained from the relieving officers; but even those who have had the longest experience require of them reliable reports, and an intelligent statement of thoroughly sought facts for their deliberations; and those guardians who have but recently taken up this public work, with its elements of endless interest, have a right to expect from the officers of whom they may make inquiries, sound and well-tryed reasons for the methods adopted in dealing with applications for relief.

May it not therefore be accurately said, that none should be more ready than the guardians themselves to encourage any means that can be devised to give to young men who aspire to enter the Poor Law service, facilities to obtain a good insight into the nature and description of the duties which would have to be performed by them?

A thorough training can, of course, only be acquired by years of practice; but is it not an accepted fact that the principles of administering Poor Law relief have long since passed beyond the experimental stage, and that those upon whom so much depends, should be well grounded in its principles and methods before being appointed to take office?

The need of such training is recognised and insisted upon in every other profession in which special intelligence and knowledge are necessary.

The importance of the proposed training has a fourfold value:—

(1) *To the Officers themselves.*—The more intelligent their study of general principles and of the Acts of

Parliament and Orders which govern Poor Law relief, the more will be their sympathetic interest in their work, and the more likely will they be to be thorough in their inquiries.

There will be an increasing esteem for the office they hold, when it becomes recognised by all concerned that only those who can produce evidence of having been suitably prepared are regarded as eligible for election.

(2) *To the Guardians of the Poor.*—The advantage of appointing as relieving officers, men who have already made a substantial advance in the acquisition of knowledge, which, in too many instances, is now only attained after years of hesitating and stumbling work and many mistakes, will soon be made manifest, both in the statistical returns and financial statements, and in the greater sense of satisfaction in the onerous duties of the relief committees.

(3) *To the Recipients.*—A highly qualified officer, whilst on his guard against fraud or unnecessary resort to the Poor rate, will, by the thoroughness of his inquiries and lively interest in his work, find frequent opportunities of sympathetically helping those who most deserve encouraging aid, many of whom may thus be saved from becoming a permanent charge upon the rates.

(4) *To the Community.*—Those who are closely acquainted with the inner working of the Poor Law, or indeed of any system, often see cause for lament when successors to an office in which large expenditure of public money is concerned have to gain their experience by starting again on paths which have been repeatedly found to be injudicious and costly. The process of training will help towards giving beginners some of the insight gained by the long experience and failures and successes of their predecessors.

In the largest parishes and unions, where assistant relieving officers are employed, it is sometimes said that a good school already exists; but even there the assistant should be ready in emergencies to fulfil the duties with a properly based knowledge, or much mischief may be caused in a very short time for the want of it.

He cannot obtain all he should know from the officer for whom he is acting.

Some officers (but not all) may be very willing to impart to their assistants important details to be observed quite outside and above the duties upon which the assistants are chiefly occupied, but this cannot always be sufficiently done.

Methods of teaching and of aiding in a course of reading suitable text-books, and of imparting some practical knowledge by demonstrations, are already under consideration and construction, and there is good reason to look forward, as time progresses, to add object-lessons to the teaching of principles.

* * * * *

The sympathy and co-operation of the guardians of the poor are essential and confidently hoped for in this movement; and we now submit it to their most favourable consideration, and trust that as vacancies occur in the appointments they have at their disposal, many occasions will arise when preference will be given to those candidates who have striven to qualify themselves to undertake the duties of the office with credit to themselves, and advantage to those whom they will have the honour to serve.

(b) MR. CRAIG'S PAPER.

The qualifications for the position of relieving officer, as laid down by the Local Government Board, are as follows:—

Art. 162 (a). "No person shall hold the office of relieving officer under this order who has not reached the age of twenty-one years."

Art. 164. "No person shall hold the office of relieving officer unless he is able to keep accounts, and unless he reside in the district for which he may be

appointed to act, devote his whole time to the duties of his office, and abstain from following any trade or profession, and from entering into any other service."

But by Art. 166. "Provided always that the guardians may, with the consent of the Local Government Board, previously obtained, but not otherwise, dispense with any of the conditions specified in Arts. 162 and 164."

It should also be borne in mind that by the 4 & 5 Will. IV., c. 76, Sec. 28: "No person shall be eligible to hold

APPENDIX No. LXXVII. (A.)—*Continued.*

any parish office, or have the management of the poor in any way, who shall have been convicted of felony, fraud or perjury, or of purloining, embezzling, or wilfully wasting or misapplying any of the moneys, goods, or chattels of the union." Nor is a person eligible if he has been dismissed by the Local Government Board.

First, let me say, that I am daily becoming more and more convinced of the absolute necessity for relieving officers to have some previous knowledge of the serious and responsible duties entrusted to their care, and, what is perhaps even better, some previous experience as an assistant relieving officer (although there are objections held by some to the latter office, and to which I will refer later).

* * * * *

Now, I may be asked why I think a special training is necessary. And I will reply by stating that one of the reasons, and perhaps the best, is, in my own actual experience, first as an assistant relieving officer for a period of four years, and then as a relieving officer for twelve years, and during that time being brought into close and constant contact with all classes of poor, and the various departments of relieving officers' work.

First, a man to do his duty must be conversant with the Orders of the Local Government Board governing his office and specifying his work. He will require to bring an open and intelligent mind to bear upon the Orders governing outdoor relief. He must comprehend the difference between the Outdoor Relief Regulation Order and Outdoor Relief Prohibitory Order. He will have to understand something of the law of settlement and removal. He should be acquainted with the Bastardy Laws, the Articles of the Local Government Board relating to medical relief, and to permanent medical relief for the aged and infirm persons receiving outdoor relief. He will be expected to understand various sections of the Public Health Act, the Orders and Law relating to service and apprenticeship, the Boarding-out Order, the Vagrancy Act, the Elementary Education Act, the working of the Outdoor Labour Test Order, and a very practical knowledge of the Lunacy Acts. I have but briefly named some of the Orders of the Local Government Board and Acts of Parliament which contain the duties relating to his office.

It will be quite unnecessary for me to dilate upon these Acts and Orders, however, but I cannot refrain from mentioning that even one section of the Lunacy Act, through being differently read, has required the decision of the law officers of the Crown, and caused much controversy, and in this Act there are no less than eighteen sections specially relating to relieving officers, and many others with which he should be conversant.

Doubtless it would be possible for an ordinarily intelligent person to learn by heart all the various Orders and Acts quoted, but even then he has only learnt the first lesson. The greater one has still to be studied, viz., the *practical* work in carrying them into effect. This can only be done by daily dealing and contact with the vast number of poverty's problems with which it will be his duty to cope. He must learn to discriminate between brazen and chronic loafing and the poor, heart-broken, aged woman, whose dread of the parish is only equalled by her nervousness in applying. He has ever to bear in mind that ratepayers are, in many instances, but little better off than the poor to whose support they must contribute.

* * * * *

During the first years, if he be a diligent officer, he will frequently be discouraged by the statements made to him, which, upon investigation, he will find to be false, and soon he will be looking with suspicion upon all communications made to him; but after a time he will, by a process of quick reasoning, tell instinctively or by intuition how much he can believe as truth. He will become alert to the case of genuine distress and quick to detect imposition.

The relieving officer practically stands in relation to persons applying for relief as the representative of the board of guardians during the interval between their meetings, and important powers are given him, and, only subject to the Local Government Auditor, he may give in food and actual necessities what he deems necessary, although he may not give money.

* * * * *

It will thus be seen that to fill the position of a relieving officer successfully, diligent study of the various Orders and enactments of Parliament is necessary, combined with a practical experience in the habits, conditions of life, mode of living, requirements and necessities of the class of persons who apply for relief; and this brings me to what I anticipate you expect me to refer, *i.e.*, "The Mode of Training required."

First, I hold that the finest training for a relieving officer is to serve as an assistant under an intelligent and painstaking relieving officer.

I know that many Poor Law authorities do not look with favour upon assistant relieving officers, holding that it is better for each relieving officer to do his own work, keeping the whole of the threads in his own hands, and that very often the appointment of assistant relieving officer tends to weaken the energies of the relieving officer and thus leads to lax administration.

I am afraid the objections to these appointments have been mainly brought about by relieving officers themselves. The assistant has often been made a drudge; the unpleasant work has fallen to his share; very frequently he has been overworked; and when anything has gone wrong, he has been the scapegoat. These objections to the appointment of assistant relieving officers have gradually resulted in the relief work in the larger parishes and unions being divided into departments. Thus we find provision made in the Lunacy Act, 1891, for the appointment of one officer to do lunacy work; the prosecution work is also often in the hands of one officer; the work in connection with widows having children in district schools, boarding-out, apprentices and servants, etc., is now very generally given to one man who is called the "general relieving officer"; leaving the actual relief work in the hands of the district relieving officer, *without* assistance. There can be no doubt that, looking at the question from the point of good administration, this system is the best that can be adopted; but looking at it from the view of the training of officers, it certainly does not help the matter.

Now how are men to get the requisite knowledge? My answer is, by studying the various Orders of the Local Government Board, and the enactments relating to the duties; and it is pleasing to find that facilities are being afforded by the School of Sociology and Social Economics for the study of relieving officers' work. The particular committee who have charge of this department embraces some of the best known men in the Poor Law world, and is a guarantee that the education given will be thoroughly sound and of a practical character.

* * * * *

Now, let us see what a few other professions and callings require as to training before the members of them are permitted to act. First, I would draw your attention to the Civil Service and other Government offices. Entrances to these are obtained by passing an educational examination, and appointments made to higher positions when qualified by experience. Ministers of religion are taught at theological colleges the different tenets of the faith they have to teach; medical men have to serve years at medical schools and hospitals, and are not permitted to practise until they have obtained their diploma. The teachers in our public elementary schools are specially trained by serving first as pupil-teachers; thence pass, if found competent, to college; and after two years of special study and the passing of examinations, appointed assistant teachers, and when vacancies occur, are afterwards appointed head teachers. Solicitors are articled, mechanics serve apprenticeships, sanitary inspectors are expected to hold the certificate of the Sanitary Institute, and in hundreds of other callings proficiency is required.

* * * * *

What I believe would be the best guarantee for boards of guardians is a certificate showing them that the person applying was competent to do the work, both as to his ability to keep accounts, and also as to his general knowledge of the duties, and the Orders and enactments governing his office.

The advantages of the possession of such a certificate seems to me to be manifest.

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APPENDIX No. LXXVII. (A.)—*Continued.*

A more definite and recognised profession would be an inducement for thoughtful and intelligent men to enter it. Further, the opportunity of obtaining a certificate would be an incentive to assistant relieving officers to study and make themselves more proficient in their work. Its possession would, I venture to believe, enhance the prospect of obtaining appointments; it would aid

boards of guardians desirous of securing trained and qualified men as their officers, and ultimately lead to an improvement in the class of candidates seeking election; it would gradually be the means of shutting out men who are sometimes elected on account of personal influence, or on sympathetic grounds, without the slightest reference to their fitness for the position.

DISCUSSION.

Mr. W. Vallance (replying to a member) said that the certificates would be granted in connection with the training engrafted by the School of Sociology on the scheme of instruction in social economics. The whole of the machinery had not yet been perfected. It was, he added, very refreshing to find two such papers presented to a Guardians' Conference. The second paper, coming from an experienced relieving officer, showed to what a high platform he was disposed to raise the work of those officials. In any machinery which might be devised, there was no intention to interfere with the free discretion of the guardians to appoint their own officers, but simply to provide the best possible men for the choice. (Hear, hear.) He was firmly of opinion that a candidate with little or no experience of relief work but a thorough knowledge of the Poor Law and the Orders of the Local Government Board, that man would be a better officer than another who had experience but no knowledge of principles, and whose mind was a blank to be written on by the board which appointed him. (Hear, hear.) Mr. Craig's able and intelligent paper would evoke the concurrence of guardians generally. (Hear, hear.)

Sir William Chance (Honorary Secretary of the South-Eastern and Metropolitan Conference and of the Central Committee of Poor Law Conferences) was very warmly greeted on rising to address the Conference. He said that he always hesitated to speak at the Conference, because he preferred to listen rather than speak himself. It was evident that the Conference was thoroughly in agreement with the authors of the two papers. One thing they might claim for the Poor Law administration of this country, and that was that the high character of the relieving officer was a conspicuous feature, and that the guardians, as a rule, took great care in making the appointments to that office. (Hear, hear.) But in some cases very unfit persons had been appointed, for reasons he need not go into. In one case the relieving officer was found to be carrying on a coal business, and upon being remonstrated with he transferred it to his wife. (Laughter.) It ought to be clearly understood that neither the relieving officer nor his wife should be permitted to carry on any kind of trade which will offer any sort of inducement to give certain persons relief. (Hear, hear.) Relieving officers sometimes had cause to feel aggrieved that guardians should for personal reasons give appointments to persons who were not the best qualified of the applicants. Relieving officers who had taken the trouble to learn something about the duties of their position felt that very much indeed, and it was not the kind of thing which ought to occur. (Hear, hear.) It was said that a man might be certificated and yet not be a good officer, but, generally speaking, the preference should be given to a man who held certificates provided that he also possessed tact and energy. (Hear, hear.) The idea of training relieving officers was still quite young, but he was convinced that it was a good idea, and would have beneficial results. He was glad that the suggestion had emanated from the relieving officers themselves, as it showed that they wanted to do the work better, and they should be encouraged by the boards of guardians. (Hear, hear.)

Mr. Walker (Maidenhead) said that listening to smart descriptions of the ideal relieving officers, he thought that the writers must have visited his own union, and got the Maidenhead officials' portraits. (Hear, hear, and laughter.) The examination system had much to recommend it, but they were hardly ripe for its application to relieving officers. Again, a man might be able to take honours about the Poor Law Orders, and yet lack common-sense and shrewdness. It was highly desirable that they should have those qualities and a quiet manner. The loud, bombastic manner was utterly out of place in a relieving officer

(Hear, hear.) They needed a man with a soft heart and a hard head. (Laughter.) The paper was in line with the movement for the attraction of a higher class of men and women to all the grades of the Poor Law service. The day had gone by when they could promote a man to be workhouse master simply because he had been a respectable porter. (Hear, hear.)

Mr. George Beer (East Preston) said that while heartily approving the papers, he had been wondering how the trained officers of the future were to get appointments, if the experience in his own union was any guide in respect to the long tenure of office. Their officers had held the positions for twenty-two, thirty, and even forty years. (Hear, hear, and laughter.) He was not there to excite laughter; he wished to excite thought. Some years ago a small committee of guardians was formed in his union to investigate and report on applications for relief beyond a certain radius from the centre of the union. It did good work. (Replying to Mr. Vallance, the speaker said that the committee had ceased to act some time ago. (Hear, hear, and laughter.)

Mr. Sharman (Southwark) said it would be exceedingly unfortunate if the Conference should appear to give unqualified assent to the suggestions in the papers. It would involve an increase in the cost of the staff, for a superior class of men would mean more expense. There was another more weighty objection, and that was that the new type of officers would tend to widen the breach which existed between the officials and those who came to them for relief. (Hear, hear.)

Mrs. Morris expressed the hope that the expense of the special curriculum suggested for relieving officer students would not be thrown on the rates. When appointed, the new trained class of officers would rightly command more money, but would do the work better. St. Pancras, like her own union, were to be congratulated on having very good officers. (Hear, hear.)

Mr. Allison (Clerk, Malling Union) said that this matter interested the officers very much, for they all desired to raise the status of the service. In the result the rates would be benefited by the suggested training of officials, and the supply of certificated candidates would enable the guardians to offer a lower rate of remuneration if they wished. But a more commendable means of economy in the future was to be found in the fact that a more efficient service of officials would reduce the expenditure on relief. (Hear, hear.)

Rev. C. D. Hall (Tenterden) said that they might take it for granted that the future relieving officers, like most other students, would themselves defray the expenses of their studies. He believed that the efficient performance of their duties would reduce the expenditure on relief. He disagreed with the Southwark delegate, who expressed the fear that trained officials would widen the breach between the poor and the officials. On the contrary, he believed that a trained official would be able kindly and firmly and without delay to inform an unsuitable applicant that he could not put his case before the Board, and that he would thus avoid the irritation of raising false hopes. (Hear, hear.)

Mr. Flood (Lewisham) said that in that union there had been no difficulty in getting good officers, as they had a system of promotion which encouraged the officers in each grade to prepare themselves for the efficient performance of the duties of the higher grades. That was the right system, and there was no need to set up an elaborate school which would merely lead to increased expense. Mr.

APPENDIX No. LXXVII. (A).—*Continued.*

Craig had learned his lesson well during his term of office; but there was one or two things in the paper which showed that he must have been a very unsatisfactory candidate. (Hear, hear, and laughter.)

Mr. Hawkes said that if the School of Sociology would give them men of character as well as of certificated knowledge, the difficulties of guardians in the matter of appointments to those offices would be reduced. He presumed that the new instruction would be given by correspondence classes, and would not involve a prolonged residence in London. He did not see why relieving officers alone needed training, Masters and Guardians, and even town councillors might benefit by some instruction in the theory and principles of the work. (Hear, hear.)

Rev. H. L. Paget (Vicar of St. Pancras) said it was something to be proud of to stand there and hear two St. Pancras officials evoke so much approval. He did not see why, in time, the certificate might not be granted after examination by the London University. (Hear, hear.) The demand by the relieving officers for some system of examination showed that the work was becoming more technical, and that protection was needed against the invasion of quacks. (Hear, hear.) It was a sign

of healthy and wholesome activity on the part of the relieving officers. It was almost worse than trifling to say that the increase of knowledge would decrease the sympathy of the officials. Did the typical Poor Law officer of former days, "Bumble," lose sympathy with poor little "Oliver Twist" because of his great knowledge. (Cheers.)

Mr. Millward said that the paper by Mr. Craig was prepared some time ago, and before they were aware of the movement for systematic instruction of relieving officers. As to the cost of training, it would be borne by the individuals who went through the course. With regard to the remarks of the Southwark delegate, they had only to remember that there was no man who was so dictatorial and cocksure as the inefficient person of rather feeble intellect. (Hear, hear, and laughter.)

Mr. Craig expressed his pleased surprise at the kindly reception of his paper, and his entire concurrence with the remarks of the Lewisham delegate as to the efficacy of the system of promotion in force in that union. (Hear, hear.)

The Conference then rose for the day.

APPENDIX No. LXXVIII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY MR. HENRY F. NEW, SECRETARY, ON BEHALF OF THE ASSOCIATION FOR BEFRIENDING BOYS.

1. The Association for befriending boys was formed in 1868 by the late Rev. Brooke Lambert, for the purpose of the after-care of boys belonging to Metropolitan unions after their discharge from the guardians' schools.

2. The Association has worked on the lines laid down by Mrs. Eaton Lascelles, who had charge of the boys belonging to the Banstead schools, and by Mr. Brooke Lambert, who looked after the interests of boys from the Sutton schools. Full details of their work will be found in the Report before the Departmental Committee on Poor Law Schools (*v.* Vol. II., Martin, p. 166, Lascelles, pp. 252, 899, Steer, pp. 729, 899).

The Association is assisted by subscriptions from the boards of guardians authorised by the Local Government Board under the Acts 39 & 40 Vict., c. 61, Sec. 33, and 42 & 43 Vict., c. 54, Sec. 10.

4. The Association is managed by a council consisting of:—

(a) One member from each board of guardians or board of school managers which co-operate with the Association.

(b) The district or branch secretaries in each Poor Law district.

(c) One member nominated by the superintendents of "The District and Separate Schools" Association.

(d) Not more than twenty additional members elected at the general annual meeting of the Association.

An executive committee, consisting of twelve members of the council in addition to the chairman, the hon. treasurer, and the secretary, meets once every month for the dispatch of business. The council meets three times a year.

5. The president of the Association is the Rt. Hon. and Rt. Rev. the Lord Bishop of London; the chairman is the Rev. J. Scott Lidgett, M.A.; the treasurer is Sir William Chance, Bart.

6. The *modus operandi* of the Association is as follows:—

(a) When a boy is discharged from a school belonging to the guardians of the unions which co-operate

with the Association,* notice to that effect is sent to the secretary of the Association. The notice is accompanied with full particulars of the boy's name, age, character, length of time in school, parents' and nearest relatives' names and addresses when known, the name and address of the employer to whom he is being sent, and the address of the boy.

(b) The secretary of the Association, if the boy is living in London, sends the foregoing particulars to the local secretary of the Association in whose district the boy is residing.

(c) The local secretary is expected forthwith to enter into communication with the boy, to explain to him that the Association, in the person of the local secretary, is ready and willing to help him by advice, encouragement, and sympathy, to be a friend to him when in illness or in trouble, and on all critical occasions. The local secretary is expected to keep in constant touch with the boy without undue interference with his employer, to send periodical information about him to the central office, and to notify promptly changes of address or employment.

(d) The local secretaries are expected to encourage the boys under their charge to join thrift clubs, educational classes, recreative institutions and benefit societies, and to keep up the practice of their religion.

(e) If a boy is living out of London, then the secretary of the Association endeavours to enlist the sympathy and help of the local clergyman or other suitable person who fulfils in this case the duties of local secretary.

* The Unions which co-operate with the Association at the present time are Bermondsey, Bethnal Green, Camberwell, Chelsea, City of London, Fulham, Greenwich, Hackney, Hampstead, Holborn, Islington, Kensington, Lambeth, Lewisham, Mile End, Paddington, Poplar, St. George's, Hanover Square, St. George's-in-the-East, St. Marylebone, St. Pancras, Shoreditch, Stepney, Strand, Wandsworth, Westminster, and Woolwich and the extra-Metropolitan Unions of Epsom, Edmonton, Kingston, West Ham and Strood.

APPENDIX No. LXXVIII.—Continued.

(f) Boys remain on the books of the Association until they have completed their twentieth year. On reaching the age of twenty they are supposed to be able to look after themselves.

(g) The local secretaries are required to send to the secretary of the Association twice during the year a report on the boy or boys committed to their care. The secretary at the end of each year sends to each board of guardians a report of the boys belonging to the union. Thus the Hackney Guardians, for example, receive reports of all the Hackney Poor Law boys, the Camberwell Guardians reports of the Camberwell boys, and so on.

(h) In districts where there are no local secretaries, the secretary of the Association and his assistants at the central office endeavour, to the best of their power, to perform the duties of local secretaries.

(i) In districts where there is a large number of boys the local secretaries are assisted by visitors for whom they are responsible.

The Association endeavours to obtain employment for the boys when they are out of work and to provide temporary assistance for them when they are looking for work, and its efforts are attended with considerable success.

8. There is no doubt however that in many other ways the Association is of real and substantial help to the boys, especially when the local secretaries are hard-working, tactful and able to gain their respect and confidence. This is clear from the many and continual appeals for help and advice to the secretary and local secretaries and by the gratitude frequently and spontaneously expressed by the boys whom the Association has been able to help even in a small degree. Many of the boys are orphans and quite friendless and they look upon the Association as represented by the secretaries as their only friend.

9. The Association is much hampered in its work on account of its somewhat scanty income; it would be able to extend its work and to do it more thoroughly and efficiently if it could obtain more adequate support.

10. The following table exhibits the actual receipts and expenditure during the last six years:—

—	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Receipts - - -	203 13 6	272 9 8	324 15 11	405 2 3	438 9 0	454 13 9
Expenditure - -	273 18 5	306 4 8	357 12 7	495 2 11	409 13 8	421 15 4

It will be seen that except during the year 1906 and 1907, the expenditure during the four preceding years has exceeded the receipts. Owing to the fact that the year 1902 started with a credit balance of £109, the adverse balance on January 1st, 1907 was not as large as would appear from the figures just quoted. The debit balance on January 1st, 1908, was £33, and it is hoped that by December 31st, 1908, the greater part of the debt will have disappeared.

11. The boards of guardians with the sanction of the Local Government Board, subscribe annually to the funds of the Association. The amount received from this source during the last six years is set out in the subjoined table.

1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.
£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
130 11 0	137 18 0	140 0 0	166 10 0	174 9 0	204 6 0

In 1907, thirty boards of guardians subscribed.

12. It should be observed that the Association is, with the exception of a somewhat similar Association in Southwark for Southwark Poor Law boys, the only Association that attempts the after-care of Poor Law boys belonging to London Unions. It is hoped that by degrees its work may be extended so as to include many extra-Metropolitan boards. At present the board of guardians for Epsom, Edmonton, Kingston and West Ham are the only boards outside the metropolis which have entered into official relations with the Association.

13. The relations between the boards of guardians and the Association are most friendly and cordial and the Association is deeply grateful to the clerks of the various boards and to the superintendents of their schools for their ready and ungrudging assistance at all times.

14. There have been certain difficulties with regard to the relations between certain Working Boys' Homes and the Association; but these difficulties are in process of solution and settlement.

15. Three tables are appended showing; (1) the numbers of boys belonging to the various unions who have been reported upon by the Association during the last six

years; (2) the ages of 1,889 boys reported on by the Association in 1906; and (3) as far as can be ascertained, the occupations, etc., of the 1,889 boys on the books of the Association in 1906 and reported upon to the various boards of guardians. (*See Appendix No. LXXVIII. (A.).*)

16. With regard to the third table, it may be pointed out that it is probable that some of those boys who are classed as assistants may be apprentices. The information sent to the office is very often not very precise in this particular.

17. Among the assistants classed as "Others, 109," are included all those who in any particular trade or employment do not number ten.

18. The chief difficulty that confronts the Association is the problem of how to deal with the boys between the ages of seventeen and twenty who happen to be out of work and unskilled. As a rule boys who are unskilled manage to do fairly well up to the ages of seventeen or eighteen, provided that they have good characters and are steady and reasonably intelligent. After these ages, however, they become too big for their work, they want higher wages, and the result is that they not uncommonly find themselves out of work have very great difficulty in obtaining fresh employment, and tend consequently to join the ranks of casual unskilled labourers. Boys who have been apprenticed are, as a rule, much better off and seem not to have much difficulty in supporting themselves.

19. It is not easy to suggest remedies. The Association can only venture to express a hope that the boards of guardians should be encouraged and empowered to increase the number of the boys they apprentice and that they should be encouraged also to assist in emigrating suitable boys, provided of course that the boys had some months' previous training.

20. It may be noted that the number of boys under the care of the Association who may be described as satisfactory and doing well is over 50 per cent. of the total, and that the reports of the boys who join the Royal Navy or the Army are almost uniformly eulogistic and are striking evidence of the soundness of the training given at the guardians' schools.

APPENDIX No. LXXVIII.—*Continued.*

21. The Association keeps in touch with the boys in the Army and Navy principally by correspondence, which is conducted by two specially appointed secretaries and their voluntary assistants. The reports on these cases come from commanding officers for the boys in the Army and from the chaplains for the boys in the Navy. The Association is deeply grateful to the commanding officers and chaplains for all their care and trouble over the reports, and it desires also to thank the authorities at the War Office and Admiralty for their ready and ungrudging

assistance in helping to trace boys who have been transferred to different battalions and ships.

22. The annual Reports for the years 1902, 1903, 1904, 1905, 1906 and 1907 are sent with this statement.

23. The chairman of the Association, the Rev. J. Scott Lidgett, M.A., has been nominated by the executive committee to attend and give evidence before the Royal Commission, should he be summoned.

APPENDIX No. LXXVIII. (A.)

Handed in by Mr. Henry F. New.

I.

Table showing the numbers of boys belonging to the various Unions which have been reported upon by the Association during the last six years.

	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.
Bermondsey - - - -	—	—	88	90	83	82
Bethnal Green - - - -	19	23	29	35	34	29
Camberwell - - - -	72	78	95	115	176	207
Chelsea - - - -	55	51	58	68	71	81
City of London - - - -	—	—	2	2	2	3
Fulham - - - -	78	84	82	73	71	62
Greenwich - - - -	95	120	100	117	107	131
Hackney - - - -	126	146	140	157	170	167
Hammersmith - - - -	—	—	—	1	1	1
Hampstead - - - -	3	3	3	2	12	4
Holborn - - - -	98	111	113	110	110	124
Islington - - - -	37	46	62	72	102	111
Kensington - - - -	106	98	102	100	114	126
Lambeth - - - -	73	95	103	100	115	113
Mile End - - - -	6	6	7	9	18	23
Paddington - - - -	11	12	11	19	20	18
Poplar - - - -	87	114	145	154	194	205
St. George's, Hanover Square -	—	—	—	—	5	21
St. George's-in-the-East -	16	17	23	16	13	10
St. Marylebone - - - -	39	40	34	32	27	25
St. Pancras - - - -	75	98	123	141	151	150
St. Olave's - - - -	98	92	—	—	—	—
Shoreditch - - - -	54	63	59	64	69	68
Stepney - - - -	51	65	69	57	55	44
Strand - - - -	28	32	37	27	32	31
Wandsworth - - - -	—	—	—	41	73	87
Whitechapel - - - -	—	1	—	—	—	—
Westminster - - - -	—	—	—	—	1	2
Woolwich - - - -	48	48	46	47	60	56
Epsom - - - -	—	—	—	—	3	5
West Ham - - - -	—	—	—	—	—	25
Totals - - - -	1,275	1,444	1,536	1,647	1,889	2,015

Note.—After the year 1903, the name of St. Olave's Union was changed to Bermondsey Union.

APPENDIX No. LXXVIII. (A.)—Continued.

II.

Table showing approximately the ages of the 1,889 boys reported upon by the Association in 1906.

Number of boys 11 years of age	-	-	-	-	9
" " 12 " "	-	-	-	-	24
" " 13 " "	-	-	-	-	52
" " 14 " "	-	-	-	-	161
" " 15 " "	-	-	-	-	300
" " 16 " "	-	-	-	-	431
" " 17 " "	-	-	-	-	282
" " 18 " "	-	-	-	-	273
" " 19 " "	-	-	-	-	204
" " 20 " "	-	-	-	-	153

III.

Table showing as far as can be ascertained the occupations, etc., of the 1,889 boys on the books of the Association in 1906, and reported upon to the various Boards of Guardians.

Apprentices.

Tailors -	-	-	-	-	20
Bootmakers -	-	-	-	-	22
Bakers -	-	-	-	-	13
Other trades -	-	-	-	-	21
					76

Assistants.

Errand boys -	-	-	-	-	52
Printers -	-	-	-	-	22
Chemists -	-	-	-	-	12
Carmen -	-	-	-	-	20
Bakers -	-	-	-	-	24
Engineers -	-	-	-	-	17
Pawnbrokers -	-	-	-	-	19
Factory hands -	-	-	-	-	34
Porters -	-	-	-	-	17
Carried forward -	-	-	-	217	76

Assistants—cont.

Brought forward -	-	-	-	-	217	76
Warehousemen -	-	-	-	-	17	
Bootmakers -	-	-	-	-	24	
Pit (coal) boys -	-	-	-	-	19	
Builders -	-	-	-	-	17	
Grocers -	-	-	-	-	12	
Gardeners -	-	-	-	-	22	
Milk boys -	-	-	-	-	12	
Tailors -	-	-	-	-	19	
Others -	-	-	-	-	109	468

In Private Service.

Pages -	-	-	-	-	64	
Footmen -	-	-	-	-	11	
Others -	-	-	-	-	12	
					—	87

Various.

Army -	-	-	-	-	282	
Royal Navy -	-	-	-	-	136	
Militia -	-	-	-	-	2	
Merchant Service -	-	-	-	-	122	
On training ship (Exmouth) -	-	-	-	-	91	
Clerks -	-	-	-	-	20	
Office boys -	-	-	-	-	8	
Hotel servants -	-	-	-	-	24	
Railway servants -	-	-	-	-	8	
Farm labourers -	-	-	-	-	37	
Mechanics -	-	-	-	-	5	
Emigrated -	-	-	-	-	20	
Reported upon directly to the Guardians -	-	-	-	-	67	
Returned to Guardians -	-	-	-	-	29	
Lost sight of -	-	-	-	-	63	
Over age -	-	-	-	-	157	
Out of work -	-	-	-	-	60	
Unspecified -	-	-	-	-	127	1,258
					—	1,889

APPENDIX No. LXXIX.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY THE REV. J. B. PATON, D.D., AS TO A SCHEME BY WHICH THE METHODS OF THE ELBERFELD SYSTEM OF POOR RELIEF MAY BE MODIFIED AND APPLIED TO ENGLAND, WITHOUT A VIOLENT CHANGE OF THE PRESENT SYSTEM OF POOR RELIEF.

1. That guardians shall be no longer empowered to assess the rating values of property, and also shall not make any contracts for expenditure connected with the relief and help of the poor. These duties shall now be entrusted to the municipal council which controls the financial and general interests of the community.

2. That the guardians thus relieved of these accessory duties which may divert them from the special duties for which they are elected, shall be responsible not only for the relief of the destitute, but also for the care of those who are needing help, and who, by such help, may be prevented from becoming destitute and may be restored again to a condition of self-support.

3. That the guardians be chosen, as at present, by the different wards of the town or city, and that a sufficient number be elected to provide a chairman of each district of the town or city into which it is divided for the purpose of providing individual care of the poor in that district. For example, in Nottingham at the present time there are sixteen wards, and three guardians are appointed for each ward. In Nottingham, if the same principle is adopted as in Elberfeld and other German towns for effective, individual care of the poor, there ought probably to be sixty-four districts which would require four guardians to be elected

from each ward. The guardians elected shall be the chairmen of the districts into which the town is divided for the care of the poor.

4. That twelve associate guardians shall be appointed to assist each of the guardians who are chairmen of the several districts, and they shall be responsible for the poor in the twelve small sub-districts into which each district is sub-divided. These assistant guardians shall be appointed by the municipal council of the borough which shall select and appoint persons who have been nominated for that office by the churches, the charitable societies, the Chamber of Commerce, the Trades Unions, and other united and responsible bodies in the borough to whom the municipal council shall make appeal that they nominate members for this office; and in this election there should be no distinction of church, or class, or party.

5. That the districts into which the city is divided shall be grouped in divisions. In Nottingham at the present time there are seven divisions into which the town is divided for poor relief; and seven divisions would be a suitable arrangement for co-ordinating the different districts and effectually carrying out the business undertaken in them.

6. That in each of these seven divisions there shall be a trained secretarial officer who will, together with other business, assist the voluntary associate

APPENDIX No. LXXIX.—*Continued.*

guardians, giving them, if needed, personal training, examining some of the more difficult cases with them, and attending to special types of cases such as lunatics, idiots, orphan children, etc.

7. That the guardians who are the chairmen of the districts shall appoint one of their number as chairman of each division, and that whilst the associate guardians meet once a fortnight with the guardian who is the chairmen of their district, the chairmen of these districts shall meet with the chairman of their division at such regular times as may be necessary for the efficient control and administration of the division.

8. That the seven chairmen of the divisions, together with seven representatives of the municipal council, shall be the *central board* of Poor Law administration in the borough. This central board shall register and preserve in its offices the records of all cases dealt with in each district or division, and the decisions of each district and divisional committee shall be revised and approved by it. Further, this board, conferring with the guardians, shall prepare the annual budget of poor relief, and shall appoint from the guardians and from members of the council, sub-committees for the management of institutions such as the poor house; the infirmary for the old, and infirm, and sick; elementary training schools for children; and training or industrial colonies, if established, in order to provide training for the unemployable, and to find work for the unemployed. The budget prepared by this central board to be presented to, and adopted by, the municipal council.

9. The duties to be undertaken by the guardians and associate guardians will be similar to those that are undertaken in Elberfeld and in other towns in Germany, where the Elberfeld system has been adopted; they will therefore not only give relief to those who are actually destitute by the giving of alms, but in all possible ways prevent needy persons from becoming destitute, and encourage them to recover their independence. The means to be thus used are (a) enlisting the support of relatives and friends and the help of neighbours; (b) by friendly sympathy and counsel giving encouragement and stimulus to efforts towards the recovery of their independence; (c) endeavouring to find employment for those who are out of employment; (d) seeking thus in every way possible to awaken hope and energy, and to strengthen character, in those whom they help. This, of course, to be done under the most careful supervision, and with all the safeguards which have made the Elberfeld system successful, and which, although this larger responsibility and care of the poor is undertaken, have greatly decreased the amount spent in poor relief.

10. There are certain principles which underlie the Elberfeld scheme and also the scheme which I have drawn up in the foregoing paragraphs, which seem not only to commend it, but to make it, or something like it, absolutely necessary in our time.

(1) The conditions of labour in our country seem to make it expedient on many grounds and even necessary, that a community should care not only for those who are absolutely destitute, but by timely and friendly counsel and help, care also for those who may be saved from the degradation of pauperism. The fluctuations and crises in our large industries affect great multitudes of our industrial classes, so that without fault of their own they are suddenly thrown out of employment. They thus find themselves suddenly in great straits, and may not be able for a long period to find employment again. During such a period of unemployment even the thrifty and those who have saved a little money find themselves reduced to deplorable want. When we remember that such a man as Will Crooks went through this terrible experience for many months, it shows that there is a class of people in every community whose poverty makes an appeal for temporary help—who deserve and need it. The very fact that in our present industrial system we seem to require a certain number of unemployed men who are thus ready at once for any new great industrial enterprise that is on hand, shows that unemployment is not now, as it has been under former conditions, an ignominious state into which men allow themselves to fall.

(2) The existence of this state of poverty into which many even of the deserving lapse, is giving rise to

social evils which are degrading the character of great numbers of our people. It is hard to refuse those who beg for alms, when we know there are many to whom alms would be a real help and who deserve our alms; but this willingness to give alms has produced a class of persons who seek for alms diligently and skilfully—a predatory class who live on charity. Further, for this reason, charitable institutions abound to aid in this poverty. But at present the ministries of these charities overlap, and people are tempted to live by sedulously cultivating these charities. All this growing evil of our time would be obviated if every needy case in every district of the town is cared for, and if the whole town is pledged, with necessary safeguards, to care for its poor in a humane and reasonable manner. To this end the charities of a town or district, wisely applied, would contribute.

(3) A new spirit has been awakened in our time which requires that something effectual be done to deal with the social evils and miseries that fester in our towns, and which hurt the conscience of the community. There is a revival in our time of that communal feeling which has always to some extent existed in English communities, whether small or large. There is a growing movement for civic collective action growing sense of communal responsibility for the well-being of the borough or district. I have endeavoured to set this forth on pp. 15, 16, and 17 of the pamphlet which I enclose, and which also enforces other principles which seem to require such a reform of our Poor Law as is suggested in the modified Elberfeld scheme which I have set forth. (*See Appendix No. LXXIX. (A).*)

(4) The development of our industries has led to a great separation of the two classes—employers and employed, and also a segregation of the wealthier and the poorer classes in separate and distant districts of our towns, so that they see little of one another and have no friendly intercourse with each other. This fact makes it necessary that means should be found such as the Elberfeld system provides, for personal acquaintance and intercourse between the more educated and wealthy classes of the community and the poorer classes. It is not simply a sense of alienation, but a sense of antagonism and hostility, that is growing up between these diverse classes, and each suffers because of its separation from, and its ignorance of, the other. There can be no doubt that many of our poorer families would hold themselves in higher esteem, and would be awakened to greater effort after a higher and more honourable mode of life, if they were visited personally by, and had thus the friendship of, men and women of higher social rank than themselves; and the men in higher social position would be better fitted for the duties of citizenship, and take greater interest in the concerns of their town or city if they had personal acquaintance with the needs and difficulties of the poor.

(5) It is recognised by all who have studied the problems of poverty that it is only by individual and personal care that the poor can be wisely dealt with, that appropriate and needful sympathy can be given to the old and sick, and that strong stimulus and patient effort can be applied so as to restore those who have become idle and listless. By the sub-division of labour in the Elberfeld system, and in this scheme by employing a number of associate guardians (each of whom has only charge of a very small district for which he is responsible, and who thus becomes acquainted with the condition of the poor in it), new conditions are created in dealing with poverty; and we may be quite certain that equally good results will follow in English towns as have been seen in Elberfeld. We cannot forget that Saxon freedom has involved from the very beginning of our history duties of common responsibility and of common service in the boroughs of our country; and that England has done much to awaken in Germany the spirit of civic patriotism and of personal service for the community which are now so marked a feature in the national life of that country.

11. Two objections will naturally be raised to the scheme which I have thus ventured to describe and to commend, namely:—

(1) That associate guardians will not be found in numbers sufficient to give the minute and per-

APPENDIX No. LXXIX.—*Continued.*

- sonal service that will be required if Poor Law relief is to be administered in this fashion.
- (2) That if they are found, they would not easily be trained, and that if they were not trained their service would be worse than useless.
12. With regard to the first objection, I would say—
- (a) That England has always been famous for voluntary service rendered to the State and to the municipality.
- (b) That already in England the civic guilds of help which have been established, now numbering 27 or 28, have in a remarkable way obtained voluntary service to carry out the objects of these guilds; and those who have had the chief responsibility in the forming of these guilds have told me that if their work were sustained by public authority so that those who volunteer their service were serving the civic community, and were recognised by the community, voluntary service would be much more easily obtained by them than it is now.
- (c) I have suggested that the borough council should itself appoint the associate guardians who would thus at once obtain an honourable civic status. Their names should be enrolled on a table exhibited in the town hall or guild-hall of the town or city; and further, as in Elberfeld, another distinction might be given, viz., that those who serve the poor in this honourable way for a certain number of years should have their names permanently inscribed in a permanent roll of honour exhibited in the town hall.
- (d) It is difficult to believe that England has not as much public spirit as is shown in the great number of German towns that have adopted this system. In Elberfeld, as is known, and in other towns it is the same, it is deemed an honour to be a helper. As a visitor who was present at a recent meeting of the Administrative Council in Elberfeld says, "A vacancy had to be filled up in one of the districts, but there were three eligible candidates offering themselves for the office." The president of the Administrative Council in Elberfeld humorously remarked to Mr. Grisewood and Mr. Henewinkel when visiting the town that in order to find out how the Poor Law administration is looked upon in Elberfeld, you have only to ask a citizen if he is a visitor of the poor—he will answer either that he is, or he has been, or he will blush with the consciousness that he has not had that honour conferred upon him.
13. In regard to the second objection which concerns the training of associate guardians, let it be remembered—
- (a) That most careful detailed instructions are given to every helper as to how different types of cases are to be dealt with.
- (b) That the secretary of the division, who will be a trained official, will assist any new helper with his experience and advice.
- (c) That each helper will be accompanied at times by the guardian who is the chairman of his district.
- (d) That the associate guardian who visits the case has to make a full report to the district committee of which he is a member once a fortnight, and that whatever is done in regard to any individual case is done after that case has been considered by the committee, so that the visitor carries out its decision.
- (e) There are occasional conferences of all associate guardians with the Central Administrative Council, when the principles and methods of their system of poor relief and care of the poor are thoroughly discussed, explained and enforced, so that there is a thorough understanding of the work which they have in hand.
- (f) The experience of those who have been at work in our guilds of help is expressed in a letter which I have received from one of the most able workers in the Bradford Guild of Help. "Given a good organisation, trained workers guiding and advising all district committees, it is remarkable how few people who do volunteer service prove unsuitable, after a little experience. It affords a remarkable opportunity for social and civic training."
- (g) Our voluntary helpers will be quite as amenable to training as the voluntary helpers who serve at Elberfeld and in other German cities, and they have found that the service of their helpers is effectual, and that they are quickly trained in their work to render such effectual service.
- (h) If, from any special cause, adequate volunteer service is not obtainable in any borough or district, it will be necessary to appoint an assistant secretary in each division to take the place of the associate guardians until they have been nominated and elected.
14. It will easily be understood why it is deemed necessary that guardians elected for the special duties of not only relieving the destitute, but of guarding the poor from destitution, and assisting them by all possible means to maintain their personal independence, should not be invested with the power of assessing the rateable value of property, and should not make public contracts. The civic service to which they are appointed requires special qualifications, and they should be chosen only for their fitness for it. They should not be tempted to seek the office from any other considerations, and to secure civic influence by work of a wholly different kind than that for which they are chosen. The office of guardian should be magnified as one that gives no place or opportunity for any business but the diligent care of the poor, and an office thus magnified would attract the best men and women of the town or city, because of its freedom from business transactions of an alien nature.
15. I am not intimately acquainted with the system of poor relief in country districts, but I am informed by those who are thus acquainted that the same principles and methods as are embodied in the scheme which I now present to you for towns and cities can be applied as easily and effectively in country districts.

APPENDIX No. LXXIX. (A.)

Handed in by the Rev. J. B. Paton, D.D.

A MODIFIED ELBERFELD SCHEME.

NOTE.—The passages in the pamphlet, entitled "A Civic League for our Towns and Cities," to which I refer in para-10(3) above, are the following:—Throughout all the past, cities, when fewer and smaller than now, have yet been the centres of civilisation, as the very word "civilisation" implies; and plainly they will be more so in the future. Hence the problem which con-

fronts us. How can these cities, growing larger in our midst, become the homes of a healthy, happy, industrious, and noble people? We look around us now, and see that the problem of city life menaces not only the civilisation to which they have given birth, but the very existence of multitudes that inhabit them. It is mere ostrich-like cowardice and blindness that

APPENDIX No. LXXIX.—*Continued.*

will not face the truth, and see the swift deterioration that falls upon masses of the people in the insanitary homes and the sordid squalor of the slums of our great cities. There may be fuller and freer life in our cities, but for vast numbers it is life that burns with a fierce fever-heat, and we witness all around the wastage and wreckage which it entails. Macaulay had a prophet's vision when he warned us that the Huns and Vandals who, if no great reform is made, will destroy the Christian states of Europe, are being bred, not in the wilds of Asia, but in the slums of our great cities.

This problem, then, of our city life must be solved, or our national well-being, if not our existence, is imperilled. The civilisation of which we boast is at stake; and the problem can be solved only as that new spirit of the time, of which I spoke—the spirit of “collectivism,” as it has been called, touched with the fine enthusiasm of humanity and a sense of the brotherhood that links man to man, can be organised and applied with wise, civic statesmanship to comprehend the intertwining elements of that problem. A municipal conscience must be roused that shall impress and possess every member of the city's commonwealth. Citizens of every grade and of every class must unite to support the civic authorities whom they have chosen for the government of the city, and take part with them in the furtherance of its well-being.

To this end I suggest, and even venture to invoke, the formation of a civic league, constituted on a large and civic basis, but inspired surely of the redemptive spirit of the Christian faith, which will take upon itself the glorious burden of these civic responsibilities. In this appeal I but seek to revive the soul of our Saxon freedom, which underlay and inspired our British constitution. The “tithing” and the “hundred” of our first English communities were formed in order that the persons in them might give a frank-pledge for the good conduct and the welfare of one another. And the old English word “borough,” as you know, means that all who lived in it gave the same warrant and security to the King and the State for one another. And yet further, in making this appeal to your city I but ask that in larger and nobler ways it may fulfil what in other cities, both abroad and at home, and in marvellous ways, is being done. Everywhere this movement of civic, collective action for the welfare of the city grows apace, and is becoming one of the illustrious features of our time.

In Germany, more than in any other country, this new spirit has possessed the whole country, and civic patriotism has become in our day the finest moral power of that country. Not only in the housing of the people and the planning of their cities, so as to secure the health of the citizens and the beauty of the city, as Mr. Horsfall has shown us, is this patriotism seen; but also, and even more effectively, in other departments of civic life. But, I would remind you, the first impulse of this great movement came from our own country. The most distinguished jurist of Germany, Dr. Gneist, in his great book on the British Constitution, published in the early part of last century, showed how much of the best and most useful public service of this country was given voluntarily by men who devoted their time and their great ability and business experience to the business of their country. He spoke of our magistrates and our juries, our city councillors and guardians of the poor; and of the number of voluntary associations formed for public objects, sustained not only by the money, but by the willing and disciplined service, of their members. At that time, under two great statesmen, Von Stein and Von Hardenberg, Germany was reorganising herself after the desolation of the Napoleonic wars. Dr. Gneist appealed to Germany to reorganise herself in the spirit which animated the public life of Britain. He thus struck and relit the olden spirit of all the Teutonic races; and Germany responded wisely to the appeal, as we now see to-day. Is it not pleasant, then, to know that there are cities and towns in our own

country which are bringing back from Germany the lessons that were first given to her by us? In Bradford and Halifax, in Edinburgh and Belfast, and elsewhere, civic unions of various types are being formed, and citizens from all classes are rallying to the service of the city. In this movement, upon which such vast issues depend, I pray that this twin-city of Manchester and Salford may take a foremost place, and set an example which other cities and towns may emulate and follow.

In such a civic league as I propose, it seems to me there are three great departments of service to be occupied at once.

A.

The first department of service deals with the problem of poverty—a stupendous problem, which lies at the base of every other, for it cannot be dealt with, the social maladies that fester in the city cannot be healed. It is in the solving of this problem the German cities have done their best and grandest work. The Elberfeld system, which is now so widely known, has spread from city to city throughout the German Empire, and more and more commands the approval of the wisest men and the enthusiasm of the people. In this system citizens of every rank take upon themselves the charge and care of the poor, and their duty is fulfilled with such completeness of organisation and such fidelity of service, that there is no poor man or woman or child needing help that is not visited weekly and that does not receive with discriminating sympathy the succour that is needed. I cannot but hope that the new Commission appointed to revise our Poor Law system will ensure in some effective way (if it be but gradually) the adoption of that humane, and, I may say, perfect system of Poor Law relief.

But the care of the poor in German cities, as it should also be here, does not confine itself to the care of those who are forced to ask for poor-relief; it is the care of that greater multitude in every city, who in deep poverty, and often with much suffering, strive to keep their honest independence, and shun what is for them the horror of the workhouse or the pauper's dole. It is the work of prevention amongst this greater multitude that calls chiefly for the help of a civic league, so that they may be helped in their dire distress through poverty, and saved from the lower depths of pauperism.

In Bradford this work has been done. Following the lines of Elberfeld and other German cities, the Guild of Help has been formed there; the city has been separated into four divisions, and each division sub-divided into ten districts—forty districts in all. Each division has its chairman, and each district its district head; and in each district ten helpers at least associate in the work. In all more than 500 workers have taken part in the work, and are training themselves for it, on the one condition that each helper shall visit each case weekly, and that he shall usually have only one case to visit, and never more than four. Five hundred citizens in Bradford of every class and every grade are thus united and engaged in a blessed, humane, and civic service. The area which is covered by this civic league comprises nearly 300,000 people. For the twin-city of Manchester and Salford, with its 800,000 people, there will need to be 1,200 workers rallied to this service, in 12 divisions and 120 districts.* It is personal service that is given, not money; for, strange to say, in Bradford no relief fund has been formed. The endowed charities of the city, the congregational charities connected with every denomination, the private charities which abound everywhere—these, when known to one another, when organised and wisely administered, suffice for all the need where money is required. Dr. Münsterberg, the greatest authority in the world on the problems of Poor Law relief, has said, “There is no country in the world in which so much is given in charities as in England, yet there is no country where so little good is done with it.” And he has spoken truly.†

* In Halifax, it has been resolved to follow the Elberfeld plan of having 15 helpers to a district, so as to give a stronger body of helpers in each district, and to give their fortnightly meeting greater deliberative weight.

† It may be well to state the number of citizens in German cities that are engaged in the administration of poor relief, and in the larger service of giving counsel and help that will save the poor from pauperism. Berlin, with a population of 1,654,256, has 4,221 Volunteer Helpers (called *Armenpfleger*, or those who care for the poor). Hamburg, with a population of 727,000, has 1,565. Leipzig, with a population of 450,000, has 975. Breslau, with a population of 455,000, has 1,452; and Elberfeld itself, with a population of 150,000, has 518. As my friend Rev. A. Holden Byles says: “The sub-division of labour is so minute that individualisation becomes not only possible, but actual. It therefore creates absolutely new conditions in dealing with poverty.”

APPENDIX No. LXXIX.—*Continued.*

The first need, therefore, in this great problem of our city's poverty is the co-ordination and administration of all these charities so that there be no overlapping—no competition and rivalry which excite the cupidity of the poor, and such a wide and careful investigation of all cases of need that the clamant beggar be not enriched while the more deserving poor remain unknown and unhelpt. And then this great good will also be accomplished. There will be no indiscriminate almsgiving, which does harm alike to the beggar and the giver, when it is known that the money of the charitable will be administered through the league, after careful inquiry, with personal sympathy, and in effective ways, so that there shall be throughout the whole city no case of extreme and urgent need that is not cared for.

Moreover, in dealing with this problem of poverty, it is not chiefly alms that is sought and needed. For the sick and the very old they are needed, and should be given no longer as a dole of alms, but as a true gift of charity, which is love. But for the unemployed, the need is not for money but for work, and this problem of the unemployed, hard as it is, can be solved, and in many places is being solved. The bitter curse that comes from unemployment is not only the gnawing hunger in the house and the maddening torment of

fear for the future; it is also the loss, through disuse, of industrious skill and of the habit of honest work, so that men sink down into the crowd of idle and wastrel loafers who no longer care for work. Now to employ this idle labour profitably, and at the same time to preserve and stimulate among our workmen their industrial habit, their self-reliance, and their love of honest work, is an immediate and urgent problem of to-day. I believe it can be, if not altogether solved, yet solved to a degree that may astonish us. Let the public interest, through the civic league, be aroused; let the thought of the best statesmen of the city be focussed and fixed upon it, and here, as in other countries, much will be done. Supplementary industries will be found for the seasonally unemployed; arrangements can be made by which the older men of our workshops can do the work of a shorter day at lower wage; and in times of great distress through the unemployment of masses of the people, public work can be found that will increase the nation's wealth and give men the honest labour which they seek, even if they only secure it by a frugal wage. What Von Steinbeis has wrought in Württemberg, and Pastor Von Bodelschwing is doing at the present time in Westphalia and Berlin, can be done here in the heart of Lancashire, and the doing of it will be the mission of the civic league.

APPENDIX No. LXXX.

MEMORANDUM ON SOME ECONOMIC ASPECTS AND EFFECTS OF
POOR LAW RELIEF BY MR. A. C. PIGOU, M.A.*Definition.*

1. Much social evil is due to unrestricted propagation among the unfit members of the community, and it is sometimes suggested that the Poor Law should be employed as an agency for combating this evil. The suggestion is of great importance. The present memorandum, however, does not touch this subject, but is confined to a consideration of the Poor Law as an agency for relieving destitute persons.

Destitution, when used to describe the condition of a person as a subject for relief, implies that he is for the time being without material resources appropriate for satisfying such of his physical needs as actually exist or are likely to arise immediately. By physical needs are meant needs that must be satisfied in order to maintain life or to obviate, mitigate, or remove causes likely to endanger life or impair health or bodily fitness for self-support. More briefly, destitute persons are persons lacking some, at least, of the necessities of life or health according to the standard of the time. It is the duty of the Poor Law officers to relieve all these persons, and it is illegal for them to relieve any other persons.

This is the sum of what actual legislation provides. In deciding as to the mode of relief, the Local Government Board, and, subject to their orders, the guardians in their several unions, have a perfectly free hand. There is, thus, scope within the law for various lines of policy. Whatever line is pursued is likely to have considerable effect upon the well-being of the community. It is important to determine, so far as practicable, what effect different policies are likely to produce.

CHAPTER I.

The Poor Law and the Elements of National Well-being.

2. Before any step can be taken in this inquiry, it is necessary to distinguish the principal elements upon which well-being depends. These are:—

(1) The people themselves as ethical personalities.

(2) The direct social and other relations of people with one another, and the satisfactions that result therefrom.

(3) The satisfactions obtained by the people from their economic circumstances.

* It would appear from the Merthyr Tydvil case that opportunity to earn wages by work counts as material resource.

APPENDIX No. LXXX.—*Continued.*

3. The policy pursued by Poor Law administration may be expected to react upon all these elements of well-being.

First, it reacts upon the value of the people as ethical personalities. It does this chiefly by affecting one way or another the qualities commonly known as the "economic virtues." Whether it enhances or diminishes the value of the people depends on the value which various degrees of the economic virtues possess as ends in themselves, apart from their effects. Presumably, some modicum of these qualities is good, but an excess of them is likely to be bad. Up to a point an addition to economic virtue is an addition to human virtue ; after a point, it is an addition to human vice. In any case, whenever the economic virtues are stimulated or discouraged, some effect is produced upon the ethical value of the people.

Secondly, the policy pursued may react upon the direct social and other relations of people with one another and the satisfactions that result therefrom. In regard to old age pensions, for example, some urge that they would weaken the sense of family responsibility, and would thus diminish the sum of good social relations. Others reply that the obligation to burdensome monetary support makes rather for severance than for sympathy :—

"Once let it become possible [as it would be, the argument runs, under the pension system] for the poor, as it is for the middle-class and the rich, to soothe and comfort the declining years of their parents by those small gifts which cost so little and mean so much, and we may have at least a chance of awakening those filial feelings which go far to humanise and elevate personal character."*

Thirdly, the policy pursued reacts upon the satisfactions obtained by people from their economic circumstances, a class of reaction of which it is not necessary to offer illustrations.

To determine accurately the influence of any line of policy upon well-being as a whole, it would be necessary to conduct a detailed investigation under each of the above three heads. In some cases all three kinds of effect would be additions to well-being ; in some, all would be detriments ; in some the effect under one head would be an addition, that under another a detriment. A quantitative estimate of the amount of each of them would need to be made, and the aggregate effect obtained by combining them arithmetically with due regard for signs. If this were done, the merits of all practicable lines of policy could be compared by reference to the largeness of their aggregate positive, or the smallness of their aggregate negative, effects upon well-being.

4. In practice, estimates of the kind suggested cannot be made, because there are no means of measuring the effects that fall under the first and second heads distinguished above. Hence it is seldom possible to prove in a rigid manner that one plausible line of policy is superior to another. It may be possible, however, to reach a provisional decision. The effects of different policies upon the satisfactions obtained by people from their economic circumstances, the economic effects in short, *can* be roughly compared. The result of this partial comparison *need* not be the one which would emerge if a complete comparison were practicable. But unknown facts are as likely to confirm as to conflict with known facts. Hence, if one policy is *certainly* superior to another in economic effect, it is *probably* superior to it on the whole ; and, if one policy is *probably* superior to another in economic effect, it is probably, in a lower measure of probability, superior to it on the whole. For this reason, comparisons of the economic effect of different policies, though incomplete and one-sided, may still be valuable. The purpose of this memorandum is to attempt a formulation of such comparisons.

CHAPTER II.

The Poor Law and Private Charity.

5. The Poor Law is an agency for relieving destitute persons. It is not, however, the only agency that relieves such persons. Consequently, any line of policy pursued by it affects the satisfactions obtained by people from their economic circumstances in two ways : (1) indirectly through its influence on the conduct of other agencies ; and (2) directly.

6. It is a commonplace that indiscriminate alms-giving is immensely injurious to economic well-being. The policy of guardians may influence the extent to which this practice prevails. If the public are distrustful of the Poor Law and believe it to be unduly severe, they will endeavour to save from it, without investigation, anyone who comes to them with a persuasive tale. The case of vagrants illustrates this point. At present all vagrants

* Sidney Webb, "The Reform of the Poor Law," *Contemporary Review*, July, 1890, p. 106.

APPENDIX No. LXXX.—*Continued.*

are treated alike by the Poor Law. It is possible, therefore, that a deserving man tramping in search of work may be subjected to hard treatment in the casual ward. Charitable folk, lest one just person suffer this indignity, indiscriminately relieve ninety and nine unjust. If, in accordance with the strong recommendation of the Vagrancy Committee, the Poor Law were, by way-tickets or some other device, to discriminate between these two classes and to treat the genuine work-seeker with lenience, a plausible excuse for indiscriminate alms-giving would be removed. More generally, if the Poor Law conforms to public opinion, it can mitigate activities on the part of private charity that lead to immense injury. It is thus a matter for deliberation whether guardians in particular cases should adopt a standard of administration inadequate to their ideal in respect of direct effects, in order to secure indirectly a more than equivalent advantage.

7. The above is not the only way in which the Poor Law and private charity are related. Generally speaking, they are, in a measure, rivals. That is to say, a contraction in any class of relief given through the Poor Law is likely to be accompanied by an expansion in the amount of that class of relief given by charity, and *vice versa*. It is probable, for instance, that the principal effect of the refusal of out-relief to the old in any union would be a transfer of the maintenance of most of these people to private sources,* and the principal effect of a more lenient policy a transfer *from* private sources. In some degree this relation between public and private charity is natural and inevitable. If fewer people are helped by the Poor Law, more are likely to *ask* for help from charity, and, if more ask for it, more are likely to obtain it. But, over and above this, the relation is sometimes strengthened, in strict unions, by special efforts on the part of the guardians themselves to get hard cases looked after by charity † In this way the forces governing the “stock” of charity are directly modified. Not only is the demand enhanced; but the supply corresponding to any given condition of demand is also enhanced. Two causes are at work to expand the amount of private relief. The result is that, in general, a given contraction or expansion in the number of *legal* paupers, consequent upon a change in the policy of the guardians, involves a very much smaller change in the number of *actual* paupers in the sense of persons who are not self-supporting. This consideration is especially important in regard to the relief of serious illness. Poor Law infirmaries and charitable hospitals are almost perfect substitutes; an expansion of the former probably means an almost equivalent contraction of the latter, and *vice versa*.

8. When the relation between the two agencies is one of perfect substitution, the effect upon economic well-being of the absorption of new ground by the Poor Law depends on two questions: (1) whether a private agency or public officials are likely to prove the more efficient administrators of the class of relief in question; and (2) whether a given sum can be raised with less economic disadvantage by voluntary contributions or by a compulsory levy.

As administrators of relief, the guardians hold the field in the rural districts. In towns, however, it is proper to compare them with Charity Organisation Society Committees. It is recognised that they have advantages over these bodies in respect of cases where the need for relief can be ascertained by a simple objective test and where there is no question of adapting the relief to the special circumstances of individuals. But it is also recognised, in accordance with the views that will be advanced in subsequent sections, that, in any well thought-out system for dealing with destitution, the rôle of quasi-automatic arrangements for relief is much smaller than used to be supposed. The field to which the guardians and Charity Organisation Society Committee may be regarded as rival claimants is, therefore, at the present time large. In respect of it, the following arguments are current. First it is urged that the guardians, as controlling other people's money, and particularly as administering Government grants locally, are apt to be lax. It is replied that the executive committee of a Charity Organisation Society is also chiefly engaged in the expenditure of other people's money. Further, if the guardians are at a disadvantage on the side of laxity they are, on the other hand, wholly unhampered by the danger of inadequate funds. Secondly, it is urged that the guardians' work is too heavy to allow them to pay adequate attention to individual cases. It is replied: (a) that an adequate staff of relieving officers can be obtained without difficulty by a little expenditure; and (b) that the experience of the working classes themselves—an experience the value of which has been made manifest at Elberfeld‡—can be enlisted in the service of administration more easily on a public board than on a private committee. Thirdly, it is urged that the poor are apt to be less moderate in their claims on private charity than on the rates. It is replied that,

* Cf. Booth, Royal Commission on the Aged Poor, Minutes of Evidence, Q. 1065.

† Cf. Report of the Royal Commission on the Aged Poor, p. 27.

‡ Cf. Henderson, *Modern Methods of Charity*, p. 7.

APPENDIX No. LXXX.—*Continued.*

when the private charity is "organised," the difference, *other things being equal*, is not likely to be appreciable. I am not prepared to balance these arguments either in general or in any particular case. I may be permitted to refer the Commission to a detailed scheme for combining the activities of boards of guardians and Charity Organisation Society Committees, which Professor Marshall submitted to the Royal Commission on the Aged Poor.*

9. The question whether a given sum can be raised more economically by voluntary or by compulsory arrangements is susceptible of a more definite answer. If the spectacle of others' need stimulates a *desire* in anyone to give money to a public object, a new motive is afforded him towards energy in earning money. But, if the Government threatens to *abstract* a proportion of his income for such an object, his motive towards energy is reduced. In the former case a new altruistic force is called into operation; in the latter, old egoistic forces are merely driven to seek new channels. The result is that capital and business power tend to be driven abroad, the national dividend is diminished in amount, and the proportionate share available for labour is also diminished. Following this line of thought, Professor Carver has well observed:—

"Though it would have disastrous effects if the State should attempt to enforce universal benevolence, yet only beneficent results could follow if all men were to become wisely benevolent."

For these reasons it is to be expected that the effects of raising a given sum by voluntary contributions would, in general, be less injurious than those of raising the same sum by a compulsory levy.

This conclusion depends, of course, upon the assumption that "voluntary charity" is really voluntary and is not compelled by public opinion. So far as that assumption fails, voluntary contributions have no advantage over rates. But there is no reason to doubt that the assumption is valid in respect of a considerable part of voluntary charity, as it exists in England to-day.

10. The results obtained in the preceding section have a strictly limited bearing upon practice. There is nothing in the nature of things to make it necessary that money raised voluntarily should be administered by a voluntary agency, or that money raised by a rate should be administered by a public agency. Indeed, Professor Marshall's scheme involves what is, in effect, a different arrangement. There are, however, obvious practical difficulties in the way, either of handing over public money to private persons, or of collecting private money for the everyday use of a public board possessed of taxing power. These difficulties are, perhaps, unlikely to be overcome in the near future. For the present, therefore, the conclusion that voluntary contributions are economically superior to rates constitutes an argument in favour of voluntary administrative bodies.

11. In general, however, public and private relief are not perfect substitutes. An expansion or contraction in the relief afforded by the Poor Law, while it does not, as a rule, involve an equal expansion or contraction in the aggregate amount of relief, does involve *some* expansion or contraction. Consequently, the direct effects of Poor Law policy, though mitigated in amount, are not altered in character by the conduct of voluntary charitable agencies. A provisional comparison of different policies can, therefore, be based on an investigation restricted to direct effects. The investigation that follows is of that character.

CHAPTER III.

The Limitations of Statistical Reasoning.

12. It is often supposed that a good measure of the economic prosperity of any group of persons is afforded by the amount of legal pauperism that prevails among them. Upon the basis of this assumption it is inferred that the relative merits of different lines of Poor Law policy are determined when the relative amounts of pauperism that might be expected to prevail under them are known. It is observed that, in the various unions of this country, various lines of policy are being and have been pursued, and it is proposed by statistical

* Cf. also *Economic Journal*, 1892, p. 373, *seq.*

APPENDIX No. LXXX.—*Continued.*

reasoning to demonstrate *à posteriori* that one line of policy has better economic effect than another. This class of argument is capable of large application, but hitherto it has been worked out most completely with reference to the controversy between in-door and outdoor relief. I submit to the Commission that the practical importance of reasoning of this order has been exaggerated, and that, by it, little that is significant can be proved.

Anyone seeking, by means of statistics, to establish a causal relation between pauperism and Poor Law policy has, at the outset, to decide upon some quantitative measure of pauperism. Two measures are practicable. Of these, the better, according to one opinion, is the number of persons relieved during a year, according to another the number relieved on some representative day in the year. In comparing the effects of in-door and out-door relief, the decision between these opinions is of fundamental importance, because it has been found that the ratio of the year-count to the day-count is considerably larger for in-paupers than for out-paupers.* The correct solution, in my opinion, is that given by Mr. Edwin Cannan :—

“The truest index of the amount of pauperism in a particular year would be the number of what, on the analogy of foot-pounds, we might call the number of “day-paupers,” *i.e.*, the number of one-day’s relief given in the course of the year. If in 1890 A. is relieved 300 days; B. sixty-five days, and C. 365 days; while in 1891 A. is relieved 150 days; B., 100 days; C. ninety days; and D. twenty-five days; it would certainly be truer to say that the pauperism of 1890 was double that of 1891, than to say that it was only three-quarters of that of 1891, as it would be if measured by the number of individuals relieved in the year. We cannot, as it happens, get the number of day-paupers for 1891 and 1890 directly, but by taking a fairly representative day in 1890 and a fairly representative day in 1891 (not necessarily the same calendar day), we practically get the number of day-paupers for the two years divided by 365, and this is, of course, as good as the number itself.”†

This result has been combated upon the ground that the day-count fails to indicate the greater extent to which the “taint of pauperism” is diffused in in-unions. But the economic effects of the “taint” in one year is simply an addition to the number of “day-paupers” in Mr. Cannan’s sense in subsequent years, and, therefore, *is* in the end allowed for in the day-count.‡ This objection therefore fails. A correct *absolute* measure of pauperism *is* given by a day-count. Obviously, therefore, a correct *comparative* measure as between different districts is given by the percentage of the population who are found to be paupers by this count. The next step is to find a measure of Poor Law policy. For that purpose Mr. Yule has made use of the ratio of the number of out-paupers to one in-pauper. Subjecting the statistical data to mathematical analysis, he found that, for the unions of England and Wales, in 1871, and more markedly in 1891, there was a fairly high co-efficient of correlation between the ratio of the mean number of out-paupers to one in-pauper and the percentage of the population in the district who are paupers.§ In a subsequent paper he showed that marked correlation also existed in *England* from 1871 to 1891 between *changes* in the out-relief ratio and *changes* in the percentage of pauperism.|| He thus established the proposition that between the magnitude of the out-relief ratio and the pauperism percentage a *causal relation* has subsisted in this country in recent times. By the method of triple correlation he endeavoured to eliminate the objection that this relation is merely an indirect one, arising out of the fact that the out-relief ratio and the pauperism percentage in any district are both causally dependent on such things as the number of old people in the district, the population, or the poverty of the district. As a result of these investigations he concluded :—

“It seems impossible to attribute the greater part, at all events, of the observed correlation between changes in pauperism and changes in out-relief to anything but a direct influence of change of policy on change of pauperism, the change in policy not being due to any external causes such as growth of population or economic changes.”¶

* A partial explanation of this fact may be that a larger proportion of the old, who are, of course, likely to be relieved for long periods, are looked after by private charity in in-unions than in out-unions. The suggestion that, in towns, where in-door relief is more extensively given, the same man is likely to be relieved in several unions during the year and so to be counted twice over is weakened by the rules about settlement.

† *Economic Journal*, 1892, p. 254.

‡ Of course, the evil-in-itself of even for a moment depending on the Poor Law is not thus allowed for. But the opinion that this evil is very important is perhaps due to the failure of popular thought to distinguish sufficiently between two senses of “dependence.” Dependence, when it means a cringing character, is certainly an evil-in-itself, but, when it means merely receiving money, whether from the Poor Law or from anybody else, it is nothing of the kind; and a man may come into contact with the Poor Law without being defiled in character.

§ *Economic Journal*, 1895, p. 625.

|| *Statistical Journal*, 1899.

¶ *Loc. cit.*, p. 277.

APPENDIX No. LXXX.—*Continued.*

It is sometimes supposed that investigations of this character have great practical importance, because they go to prove that a more extended use of out-door relief, such as is at present often advocated, would have injurious results. In my opinion statistical reasoning cannot be rightly used for this purpose.

The fundamental objection to it is that some of the most important influences at work are of a kind which cannot be measured quantitatively, and cannot, therefore, be brought within the jurisdiction of statistical machinery, however elaborate. It is not merely that other forces beyond those taken into account *may* be operating in a way that would tend to reverse the conclusion *prima facie* suggested by the statistics. If that were all, this conclusion would merely be rendered less certain; it would remain a probable conclusion. But, among the non-quantitative facts of the situation is one which obviously accounts, at all events for a part of the correlation on which the conclusion depends. It is well known that, during recent years, those unions in which out-relief has been restricted have, on the whole, enjoyed a general administration much superior to that of the other unions. For this circumstance there are several reasons. It is partly due to the fact that the chief part of authoritative Poor Law literature is imbued with strict principles, so that the more conscientious and painstaking guardians, those who are ready to take trouble, and, incidentally, the trouble of reading about the Poor Law, are apt to be imbued with this spirit. It is partly due also to the fact that guardians in strict unions often look upon themselves somewhat in the light of pioneers, the result of whose policy is to serve as an object-lesson to others. The effects of this attitude are well described by Sir Hugh Owen in his evidence before the Royal Commission on the Aged Poor. Speaking of strict administration, he said:—

“The cases are not numerous, but the results are very remarkable. Usually it has been found that those results have been mainly secured by the action of one man. Someone of considerable firmness, who is very strongly impressed with the necessity of maintaining as far as possible the independence of the poor, becomes satisfied that, in the interests of the poor themselves, out-door relief should be checked. He regards the saving of expenditure as a very minor consideration. He throws himself into the work, heart and soul; he feels that his system is on its trial, and he endeavours to secure that there shall be as few cases as possible of apparent hardship. All hard cases he will get taken over by charity, and he will devise all the means he can for not infringing his rule, and yet giving the relief that is necessary.”

And later on he says:—

“It has usually happened that there has been a certain minority opposed to the action of the majority of the guardians in refusing out-door relief, and the working of the system has been carefully watched with every desire to find out cases of hardship, if they occurred. But those who have been strongly in favour of strict administration have made every possible effort to avoid such cases. The system has been, as it were, upon its trial in these unions, and very special and continuous efforts are made to prevent cases of hardship.” *

In view of this circumstance, what more natural than to suggest that the observed correlation between the out-relief ratio and the pauperism percentage is due, not to any direct causal connection, but to the fact that both have been caused by the character of the general administration? If general administration could be represented as a quantitative fact, the method of triple correlation could be invoked to determine whether this suggestion is correct. Since, however, it cannot be so represented, the result remains in suspense. It can be proved—what indeed scarcely required proof—that out-relief tends to augment pauperism, when it is coupled with relatively lax general administration. But, on the really debateable question whether carefully administered out-relief would be better or worse in this respect than carefully administered in-relief, refinements of statistical reasoning can throw no light.

CHAPTER IV.

Criterion for Determining the Advantages of Various Poor Law Policies.

13. The class of argument considered in the preceding chapter must now be confronted with a more fundamental difficulty. The effect of Poor Law policy upon the amount of legal pauperism could not, in any case, be used as a measure of its effect upon economic well-being. If this could be done, any proposal to bring public relief within the reach of

* Report of the Royal Commission on the Aged Poor, p. 27.

APPENDIX No. LXXX.—*Continued.*

a new class, anything, for instance, in the nature of old-age pensions or relief to school children administered by the guardians, would stand condemned not by argument but by definition. This result is itself sufficient to prove my point. What, then, is the proper criterion to employ ?

14. Economic well-being depends upon two things, the size of the national dividend of goods and services annually available for consumption by the community and the manner in which this dividend is distributed among the different members of the community. In estimating the aggregate economic influence of any Poor Law system, we have, therefore to examine its effects (a) upon the size of the national dividend, and (b) upon its distribution.

15. The magnitude of both these effects partially depends upon the quantity of money devoted to poor relief and the methods of taxation by which that money is collected. That this is the case on the side of distribution is obvious, since practically all poor relief involves a direct transference of money from the richer to the poorer classes. It is also easily seen to be the case on the side of production, since the compulsory collection of this money through ordinary taxation, by diminishing the probable reward of productive energy, is almost certain to lessen the output of that energy, and hence the magnitude of the national dividend. In certain cases, however, a comparison between rival Poor Law policies can be conducted without reference to these considerations. For divergent policies do not necessarily involve widely divergent aggregate expenditures. Rather, Unions which cut down expenditure in one direction are often found to expand it in others. Those, for instance, which rigidly restrict out-relief are apt both to give bigger allowances to such out-paupers as continue to be relieved in their homes, and to devote large sums towards provision for the sick. In view of this circumstance, I shall provisionally neglect, for the purpose of comparing various policies, the effect of differences *in the amount of money* collected under them for transference from the rich to the poor. I shall concentrate attention upon the way in which various *methods of administering this money* react upon the size and distribution of the national dividend.

16. Now, when we suppose the amount of money with which the Poor Law has to deal to be about the same under one policy as under another, it follows that the *direct* effect produced upon distribution must be about the same. For purposes of comparison, therefore, we have only to take account of indirect effects, that is to say, of changes in distribution other than those involved in the actual transference of the money that passes through the guardians' hands. The question which I now wish to raise is this: Under what circumstances is a consideration of differences in these indirect effects upon distribution likely to reverse any practical conclusions derived from a consideration of differences in effect on the magnitude of the national dividend; or, to put it otherwise, under what circumstances do effects on the magnitude of the national dividend afford by themselves an adequate criterion of the comparative merits of different policies ?

17. Before this question can be satisfactorily discussed, it is necessary to examine a popular argument by which the issue is apt to be confused. In my opinion the only way that Poor Law policy can affect distribution indirectly in any appreciable degree is through its operation upon the quantity of the various agents of production seeking employment. It is widely believed, however, that the grant of relief to persons engaged in industry, *apart altogether from its effect on the quantity of work which they or others are induced to do*, necessarily exercises a marked depressing influence upon wages. This view appears to me erroneous.

The case which those who advocate it chiefly contemplate is that of old and infirm persons, unable to earn enough for subsistence, but contriving with the help of the Poor Law—the effect is the same if the help comes from relatives, friends, or organised private charity—to continue in a measure active soldiers of industry. The “subsidy,” it is said, brings it about that these persons work for less than the worth of their work to employers, thus underbidding independent workpeople and indirectly causing the market rate of wages to fall. This argument is chiefly based upon what is called experience.

Within this experience, however, it is necessary to distinguish sharply between fact and inference. It is a fact that many persons in receipt of a Poor Law subsidy are at present earning from private employers considerably less than the ordinary wage per hour current for the class of work on which they are engaged. It is also a fact, given

APPENDIX No. LXXX.—*Continued.*

in evidence before the 1834 Commission, that the refusal of guardians to grant relief in aid of wages “soon had the effect of making the farmer pay his labourers fairly.”* But it is an inference from these facts that, where a Poor Law subsidy exists, workpeople accept a wage lower than the worth of their work to their employers. There is an alternative explanation. In the case of old and infirm persons, may it not be that the low wage per hour is due to the circumstance that the work they can do in an hour is poor in quality or little in quantity? In the case of the old Poor Law, may it not be that the system of differential relief, so long as it prevailed, caused people to work slackly and badly, that when it was abolished they worked harder, and that this was the reason of the alteration in their wages? In sum, the facts are fully explicable without the theory that relieved persons work for less than they are worth to their employers, and thereby exercise a depressing influence upon wages. Consequently, the theory cannot be proved from experience.

Another line of argument is, however, open. It is a fact that a Poor Law subsidy enables a person to accept lower wages than it would be possible for him to accept otherwise without starvation or serious discomfort. From this fact it is inferred that, being enabled to do this, he does actually do it.

Two justifications of the inference may be offered. The first starts from the side of the employer. Thus, Mr. Davy, referring to certain industries in the Poplar Union, which are thought to yield less than a subsistence wage, writes :—

“If no outdoor relief were given, it seems evident that the employers would have to pay more wages and give more regular work.”†

All that is really evident, however, is that, if no out-door relief were given and *if the industries were continued in Poplar*, there would have to be a higher wage. I suggest that the employers are already paying all that those workpeople are worth to them, and that, if relief were stopped, the industries—very likely to the great advantage of the community—would not continue in Poplar.

The second justification is the *à priori* assertion that, if a person is *enabled* to work for less, he will be *willing* to work for less. In certain special cases, no doubt, when a workman, in receipt of a subsidy insufficient to enable him to live up to his accustomed standard of life, is confronted by an employer occupying towards him the position of a monopolist, this reasoning possesses force. In general, however, where competition exists among employers it is quite invalid. A person who, by saving in the past, has become possessed of a competence is *enabled* to work for less than one who has not. A millionaire is *enabled* to work for less even than a relieved pauper. So far from ability making it probable that a man will strike a worse bargain in the higgling of the market, it is likely in general to have the opposite effect.

The idea, therefore, that the concession of a subsidy to persons who would work to the same extent if there were no subsidy exerts a marked depressing effect upon the wages of independent workpeople cannot be sustained.

18. Though, however, Poor Law systems cannot affect distribution in the way that the foregoing popular argument contemplates, there is a way in which they can and do affect it. All practicable systems are sure to alter the quantity of one or more of the agents of production seeking employment. So far as they do this, they necessarily react upon distribution to some extent. The problem is to measure from the point of view of general welfare the importance of this reaction as compared with that of the change produced in the size of the national dividend.

19. The agent of production whose quantity the Poor Law is likely to affect most is ordinary manual work. It may make its influence felt either *mediately* through inducements or *immediately* through direct orders. I shall consider first changes brought about immediately. The kernel of the problem is: Are significant effects upon distribution involved if the Poor Law authorities forbid any class of persons (of course, in practice the only persons accessible to their control are relieved persons) to compete in the labour

* Evidence of Mr. Garrett of Downham Market, Norfolk, quoted in the *Report*, p. 144.

† [Cd. 3240] p. 9.

APPENDIX No. LXXX.—*Continued.*

market *? More concretely, would the real wages of independent workpeople be markedly bettered by the provisions embodied in certain two pension schemes submitted to the Royal Commission on the Aged Poor, one of which contained, as a condition for the receipt of a pension, "the abstention from all work of pensioners, male and female," while the other would have awarded pensions to everyone over sixty and prohibited work beyond that age? †

20. Some popular writers give to this problem a very simple solution. If one man, they say, does a piece of work, the amount of work open to other people is correspondingly diminished, the earnings of all the workers taken together are unaltered, and the new workpeople who have been introduced simply take over what would otherwise be given to those already employed. From the standpoint of a period too short to permit of industry adapting itself to changes, this conception is adequate enough. As an explanation of the *ultimate* effect of the introduction of new workpeople it is, however, erroneous. It depends, as Professor Marshall has pointed out, upon the assumption that there is a fund of work to be done whose amount is fixed independently of the work that actually is done. In fact, however, the work fund is not thus fixed. "On the contrary, the demand for work comes from the national dividend, that is, it comes from work; the less work there is of one kind the less demand there is for work of other kinds."‡ If one person does work, by that very fact he creates opportunities for work and earnings for other people. The idea that he does the opposite is at variance with the whole drift of modern economic science.

21. The correct solution of the problem is, I think, as follows. If the amount forthcoming of any particular kind of work is increased, when sufficient time has been allowed for adjustment, the aggregate amount of the national dividend will be increased, but the real wages per unit of the particular kind of work in question will be diminished. Speaking very broadly, this proposition can be extended from a particular kind of work to the work done by the labouring classes as a whole. An addition to the amount of this will increase the national dividend, but it will diminish real wages per unit of work, and therefore, also, if no change has come about in individual efficiency, real wages per head.

In the abstract it is easy to conceive a world in which the percentage fall in the real wages of independent workpeople brought about in this way would be large relatively to the percentage rise in the number of people at work. Under the actual conditions prevailing in England at the present time there is, however, reason to believe that it would be relatively very small indeed. There are three grounds for this conclusion. First, the wants of the people who consume the products of labour are exceedingly elastic; or, in other words, they would be willing with work of their own to buy the material and immaterial products of a greater quantity of labour at almost as high a real price per unit as they give for the products of a smaller quantity. Secondly, over a fairly wide field of industry labour is able to act as a substitute for capital, and this power makes the fall in real wages which comes about in consequence of an increase in quantity smaller than it would otherwise have been. Lastly, capital is exceedingly mobile between countries. Consequently, if the real wages of labour in England begin to fall, foreign capital is tempted to come over and take advantage of its cheapness. This is tantamount to an increase in the demand for labour here, and greatly reduces the magnitude of any fall that may occur in its price. In view of these considerations it is to be expected that the percentage diminution in real wages per unit of work, consequent upon any given

* Some writers consider that, if Workhouses or Labour Colonies are set up as "entirely self-supporting communities subsisting by their own work, their inhabitants are not competing in the labour market." (Evidence of Mr. Torr, quoted by the Vagrancy Committee Report, p. 83.) This, however, appears to be incorrect. In the long run their work does involve competition of this order, because all of it *could* be done by independent workmen. The "employment available" as the phrase is, for these workmen, is diminished just as effectively when the inhabitants of a Labour Colony erect their own buildings, as it would be if they erected somebody else's.

† The above schemes were advocated by Mr. Hardy and Mr. Lansbury respectively (*Report*, p. 72). It should be noted that the cessation of work by pensioners may be advocated from a more special point of view. The condition of the pension may be declining strength. This cannot be tested directly, but, if abstinence from work were made a condition for receiving, say, a 4s. pension, this condition would ensure that recipients were really incapable of earning much more than 4s. regularly. Hence, though it abolished work on the part of all persons below this line, it might nevertheless be desirable as a means of preventing many other persons from obtaining the pensions, and, in consequence of obtaining or expecting them, from slackening their industry. This policy seems to be pursued by certain friendly societies (Royal Commission on the Aged Poor, Minutes of Evidence, Q. 10880).

‡ *Principles of Economics*, p. 783.

APPENDIX No. LXXX.—*Continued.*

percentage increase in the quantity of work offered, is likely to be very small relatively to this latter percentage. Hence, the aggregate addition to the real earnings enjoyed by the new workpeople (or, if, as may be done in labour colonies, the proceeds of their labour are taken by the management as a contribution towards expenses, by the taxpayers) will be much greater than the aggregate diminution in the real earnings of the original workpeople *: there will also be a small gain to owners of capital. Hence, as regards Poor Law policies that operate *immediately* upon the quantity of work forthcoming, the effects produced upon economic welfare through changes in the magnitude of the national dividend are likely in general to be much more important than those produced through changes in its distribution.

As regards Poor Law systems that operate upon the quantity of work *mediately* through inducements, the same reasoning is in general applicable. The case of Poor Law systems of the pattern of that prevailing before 1834, under which an obvious and heavy premium was put upon large families, is indeed somewhat special. The large expansion of proletarian population, which systems of that kind threaten directly to promote, may under some conditions produce serious distributional consequences. Poor Law arrangements of this character, are, however, scarcely a present danger. Under any system that is at all likely to be introduced, large direct effects upon population need not be anticipated. We may conclude, therefore, that in this group of cases, as in that discussed in the preceding paragraph, the effect upon economic welfare consequent upon changes induced in distribution is likely to be relatively unimportant.

22. Hence, for broad purposes of approximate comparison, except in cases where special cause can be shown to the contrary, we are entitled to regard the effects that are likely to be produced upon the *magnitude* of the national dividend as constituting by themselves an adequate criterion for determining the relative merits of rival systems of Poor Law relief.

CHAPTER V.

The Economic effect of various lines of Poor Law policy.

23. I shall now employ the test thus determined upon for constructive ends. It has been shown (in the first chapter) that, to *justify* any such test, certain assumptions must be made which are not always in accordance with the facts. To render the test *applicable in practice*, yet another assumption of like character is required. This assumption is that the contribution in any year which a poor person makes to the national dividend by work can be measured by his earnings, and the contribution in any year, which the capital he has saved makes to it by the interest—if the investment is in his own skill or strength the interest is nominally wages—which this capital yields him. When this assumption is realised, to affect the provision of aggregate income by a defined amount is to affect the national dividend by the same amount. In reality, however, some contributions are made to the dividend that are not represented in income. All work put forth by a mother in the care of her children is such a contribution. So is the service of all saving which a man invests in the education or training of his children. These contributions are very large and important. The essential point, however, is not their magnitude, but the fact that they are in a measure alternative to other contributions. If, for instance, the Poor Law encourages a widow to earn more wages by offering some kind of bounty, the extra wages she earns mean a much less proportionate addition to the dividend, because a large part of the work she does for them is merely *diverted* from the non-wage-yielding occupation of tending her child. In the same way if the conditions of a pension scheme stimulate saving for old age, the addition to this class of saving in part represents a mere transference from one kind of investment (the training of children) to another kind. The general result of this circumstance is that aggregate contributions to the dividend are affected by Poor Law policy to a smaller extent than the aggregate incomes with which the poor provide themselves. Since, however, they are almost always affected in the same sense, they can often be treated as equivalent without injury to the argument. In what follows I propose, except when special reason to the contrary exists, provisionally to treat them in this way.

* In the case of pensions, since all workpeople are potential pensioners, it may be plausibly argued that, from a long period point of view, even the independent workpeople are interested in the earnings of independent workpeople *plus* pensioners rather than in those of independent workpeople alone.

APPENDIX No. LXXX.—*Continued.*

24. The poor are liable to fall into difficulties : (1) through lack of work when healthy and able-bodied ; (2) through slight sickness or accident ; (3) through grave sickness or accident ; (4) through impotency consequent upon disablement or old age ; (5) through impotency consequent upon tender years. Any system of poor relief to these persons acts upon the dividend in two ways. It affects it :

(1) Indirectly through the belief that help will be forthcoming in certain eventualities, which it implants in persons who regard themselves as potential recipients of help, whether they have actually received it or no :

(2) Directly through the influence it exerts on the capacity and character of the persons who are in fact helped.

These distinctions should be borne in mind throughout the argument of the following chapters.

CHAPTER VI.

The Minimum Guarantee System of Poor Relief.

25. The simplest system of Poor Law policy is that under which each person in any of the categories is guaranteed by the State a certain minimum condition of life, irrespective of his income, or of any contribution not represented in income that he may make to the national dividend. For practical reasons it is obvious that the minimum guaranteed to the different categories must be different. This system will now be examined.

26. The effects of the knowledge that the system exists have two sides. First, it is necessary to inquire how far the *differences* in the minima assigned to the different categories of poor make people pass from one category to another, and thus *indirectly* affect the national dividend ; secondly, how far the existence of a guaranteed minimum in any category affects the dividend directly.

In general, the dictates of humanity ensure that higher minima are guaranteed to the more helpless than to the less helpless categories of poor. To pass into a category with a higher minimum means, therefore, to qualify for greater helplessness and hence in general to contribute less towards the dividend. If, therefore, differences in the minima can induce the migration of many persons from one category to another, injury is generally inflicted on the dividend. *Prima facie*, there would seem to be little danger of voluntary migration between any of the objective categories that the administration of our Poor Law recognizes. A man cannot increase his age ; he will not become sick on purpose ; he will not commit suicide or desert his wife to obtain for her a Poor Law allowance. But the matter is not really so simple as this. Though the magnitude of the guaranteed minimum may be nominally conditional upon the *occurrence* of a physical fact, it is really conditional upon the *appearance* of this fact ; and there is danger that the appearance may be voluntarily induced. It is easy for a woman, in collusion with her husband, to pretend that he has deserted her, or for a man to falsify his age or to pretend that he is ill. He may be tempted to do this by the prospect of being placed in one of the categories of poor receiving the higher minima, and, if he yields to the temptation, he is likely to injure the national dividend to the same extent as he would do if he were really disabled from work by illness or old age. It is to be supposed, therefore, that the differences between the various minima are indirectly responsible for some injury to the dividend though, under careful administration, that injury need not be large.

27. The effect of the existence of a guaranteed minimum within any category is simple. The system is a particular case of differential relief in favour of small earnings. Such relief is often given and always with the same effect. It is given when, the less a person earns in his occupation or district, the more the Poor Law provides for him. The almost certain consequence is that people do *less work* than they would have done apart from the relief. This happened regularly under the old Poor Law. It has been suggested that it also happened recently under the lax system prevalent at Poplar : " Some of the women would not work more than one or two days a week, trusting to the rates for the rest of their maintenance."*

* Mr. Davy's *Report*, p. 10.

APPENDIX No. LXXX.—*Continued.*

Differential relief is also given when, the less well-paid the occupation or district that a person affects, the more the Poor Law provides for him. The almost certain consequence is that fewer persons press upward from worse to better paid occupations and districts, with the result that they do *less valuable work* than they would have done apart from the relief.* This happens whenever relief works are started for the benefit of the unemployed, and wages are paid in excess of the market value of the work done. It happened when doles of out-relief were given to the old hand-loom weavers during the period when their industry was decaying. It happens when out-relief is afforded to young women in the slack season of their trades in London with a view to keeping them together till the good seasons come round again.

In such cases the underlying principle is the same for all forms of differentiation; the real contribution of valuable service which the persons affected make to the national dividend is diminished. When, however, the differentiation takes the form of a guaranteed minimum to any category of poor, its depressing effect is peculiarly great. All those who think that, should they come into this category, their condition of life in independence will fall below the minimum accorded to paupers, will be tempted to make no provision for themselves. If, for instance, a man thinks he might manage to save £150 by the time he is sixty-five, but knows that, if he saves nothing at all, the Poor Law will make an equally good provision for him, the temptation not to save will be very strong.† Many persons are certain to yield to it. Apart then from such contribution as the guardians can compel them to make by labour while actually in receipt of relief—and the value of this is in general exceedingly small—the effect of the law is to cut off from the national dividend the whole of the contribution which, if no law had existed, these persons would have made with a view to protecting themselves from the contingency in respect of which the minimum is guaranteed.

The extent of the injury to the dividend depends upon the extent of the contribution thus destroyed. This depends upon the magnitude of the guaranteed minimum in relation to the number of persons who, in the absence of any law, would have been likely to provide something less than the minimum, and to the amount of provision which a typical representative of these persons would have been likely to make.

28. The 1834 Commissioners, discussing the category of able-bodied paupers, laid it down that their "situation on the whole should not be made really or apparently so eligible as the situation of the independent labourer of the lowest class," ‡ the term independent labourer of the lowest class being used somewhat ambiguously to signify the ordinary unskilled labourer. When the Commissioners wrote, this principle was exceedingly important because unskilled labourers were very numerous, and a typical member of the class was accustomed, when able-bodied, to make a considerable contribution to the dividend. The principle is not, however, either sacred or eternal, and it is necessary to guard against exaggerated applications of it that are often made in modern Poor Law literature.

29. First, it is sometimes thought that a mere reference to the principle is sufficient at the present time to condemn any objective treatment of the able-bodied poor superior to that which the 1834 Commissioners thought themselves justified in recommending. This is not the case. To begin with, the importance of the principle itself has diminished since that time. Economic progress has altered the distribution of population in favour of the more skilled and better paid occupations, and unskilled labourers are relatively less numerous than they were. Consequently, to make the guaranteed minimum superior to the situation enjoyed by these labourers would not now inflict so large a proportionate injury on the national dividend as it did seventy years ago. Though, however, I am anxious to say this, I agree that the principle in respect of the able-bodied is still of considerable importance and ought not to be violated. The practically significant consideration is that, since the situation of the unskilled labourer itself varies in different districts

* Furthermore, the value of a given amount of work by any other persons who may remain in the occupation or district is temporarily lessened by the fact that this particular class of work or work in this particular district has been rendered relatively redundant. This consideration slightly strengthens the argument of the text.

† Cf. Webb, *Contemporary Review*, July, 1890, p. 103.

‡ *Report*, p. 137.

APPENDIX No. LXXX.—*Continued.*

and at different times, the principle cannot require the minimum guaranteed by the State to be the same everywhere and always. It is not, therefore, incompatible with the suggestion that that minimum should be considerably higher now than it was in 1834. During the past half-century real wages all round have greatly advanced, those of unskilled labourers among the rest. We can, therefore, as Professor Marshall has observed, do a great deal more for paupers in 1907 without violating the principle than it was possible to do in 1834.*

30. Secondly, it is sometimes thought—whether with or without the authority of the Commissioners is disputable—that the principles of 1834 can be extended *unreservedly* to categories of poor other than the able-bodied. This is a mistake. It is true that to guarantee to relieved persons in slight sickness or accident a condition of life superior to that enjoyed by independent unskilled labourers in a like contingency would inflict a considerable injury upon the national dividend. For, in the absence of this guarantee, unskilled labourers as a body would probab'y save a large aggregate sum by way of sick insurance. To establish the guarantee, therefore, would involve loss to the national dividend of the fruits of a large contribution of saving. A similar objection holds good against a guarantee to children relieved by the Poor Law of education and general circumstances superior to what unskilled labourers can themselves afford their children. It has even been suggested that widows might deliberately make themselves destitute in order to secure for their children the training the Poor Law offers to those whom it takes under its care. But, *prima facie*, the case is different in regard to Poor Law provision for grave illness or accident involving prolonged treatment in a hospital, and, as some hold, for impotency or old age. Against contingencies of this order, it may be said, the provision made by unskilled labourers will, in any event, be practically *nil*. It is impossible, therefore, that any provision guaranteed by the Poor Law can appreciably diminish their contribution to the national dividend. Whether the very poor “ought” or could “reasonably be expected” to forearm themselves against these severer strokes of fortune has nothing to do with the matter. The ground is cut from under the principle of 1834 by the consideration that, as a matter of fact, they would not so forearm themselves.

In this *prima facie* reasoning there is a large element of truth. It does go to show that the bearing of the 1834 principle on the class of cases under review is much less than is supposed by some of the more rigid economists among Poor Law administrators. It is, however, itself subject to important qualifications.

On the one hand, a part of the deficiency of provision made by the very poor against disablement, old age, and so on, is due merely to the imperfect development of the *machinery* of insurance. The Royal Commission on the Aged Poor, for example, called attention to the fact that juvenile friendly societies in this country are rigidly separated from adult friendly societies, with the result that insurance for the earlier and later ages is dissociated, and a man cannot begin insuring against old age in a friendly society until he is twenty-one years old, a circumstance which, of course, greatly enhances the premiums that he has to pay.† There is no inherent reason why the machinery should not be improved and rendered more attractive in various ways—by the combination of old-age with sickness and life insurance, arrangements for permitting the pension, adjusted, of course, in amount, to begin whenever the insured person wishes, instead of at a fixed age,‡ the German plan for obviating forfeiture in consequence of lapsed payments, and other devices which experience might suggest. This class of considerations, coupled with the probability that the real wages of the poorer classes will continue to increase, suggests that the provision now made by unskilled labourers for old age—and similar considerations apply to disablement—by no means represents the provision that they would make in the near future if Poor Law policy did not intervene.

Secondly, to speak of provision against disablement or old age as something that is either made or not made is misleading. There are degrees of provision. Many persons, who

* Royal Commission on the Aged Poor, Minutes of Evidence, Q. 10379.

† *Report*, p. 63.

‡ Cf. Brabrook, Royal Commission on the Aged Poor, Minutes of Evidence, Q. 11084. Mr. Brabrook suggested that, not only the lessened amount of the pension, but also the fact that, after coming on the fund, a man could no longer draw more sick pay, would hinder him from applying unduly early. He also made the interesting suggestion that a man coming on the fund early would by that fact be proved a less good life, and that, therefore, the reduction in the amount of the pension would not have to be so great as would, *prima facie*, appear (*ibid.*, Q. 11312-4).

APPENDIX No. LXXX.—*Continued.*

do not overtly lay by against the chance of prolonged illness or permanent incapacity, lay by something against "a rainy day," in the conception of which the possibility of these eventualities is vaguely embraced. This kind of provision is probably made to some extent by unskilled labourers, and, by a departure from the principles of 1834 in respect of the said eventualities, would be *pro tanto* diminished.

Lastly, the aggregate contribution made to the national dividend in respect of any person's disablement or old age, when he remains independent, is not adequately represented by the provision which he himself has previously secured. For many purposes the family rather than the individual should be regarded as the economic unit. When a poor man is no longer able to support himself, his children or other relatives, often voluntarily, sometimes under legal compulsion, help to support him. In order to do this, it may be that they are driven to work harder than they would otherwise have had to work. So far as that result occurs, they are making a contribution to the national dividend which would not be made if the Poor Law were to take the care of the old off their hands. These three considerations go to show that the injury to the national dividend that would result from a disregard of the 1834 principle in respect of disabled or old paupers is in reality larger than *prima facie* reasoning suggests. Still, the force of that reasoning, though mitigated, is by no means destroyed.

31. In addition to its effects, exercised through expectation, upon *potential* recipients of relief, the Poor Law has important effects upon actual recipients. These effects are, as it were, the direct return yielded by the guardians' investment of public money in these persons. The subjects of relief may be regarded, from this point of view, as industrial machines which the Poor Law has undertaken to elaborate or repair. The return to investment in them is a function of the alteration made in the capacity of the machines. Relief to old and impotent persons can never greatly affect their capacity. Relief to able-bodied persons can affect capacity, if it either: (1) prevents injury to their health, which might otherwise follow from the privations of a long period of unemployment; or (2) enables them to acquire new forms of industrial skill, or to come into contact with employers through whose agency their existing skill can be utilised. Relief to sick and injured persons can affect capacity if it conduces to the restoration of their strength. Relief to children can greatly affect capacity by building up, in the most plastic period of life, strong bodies and minds trained, certainly in general intelligence, and perhaps also in some special form of technical skill.

So far the human resembles the inanimate machine. It differs from it in that its output is a function, not of capacity alone, but also of will. Other things equal, when willingness to exercise capacity is increased, output is increased. The physical objects given in relief to paupers can affect this willingness indirectly in cases where they intervene to prevent a fall in the standard of living, to which temporary misfortune might otherwise have led. The accompaniments with, and the conditions under which they are given, can affect it in all cases. If the conditions are such that persons hitherto respectable are compelled for any considerable time to associate with vagabonds and ne'er-do-wells, the industrial character of these persons is endangered. If, on the other hand, the material gift is accompanied by the interest, sympathy and counsel of friends, willingness to work and save may be largely and permanently encouraged. A system of Poor Law administration in which attention should be paid to classification by character, and in which, as in the Elberfeld and Bergen plans, the elements of personal care should be largely utilised, is thus likely to prove a better *monetary* investment than one dependent on mechanical rules. It is a matter for detailed enquiry how far the English system, whether as regards casual wards, or workhouses, or the administration of out-door relief, or the treatment of pauper children might, due regard being had to the relatively shifting character of our town population as compared with that of Elberfeld,* be improved in these respects.

32. The results so far attained may now be combined. In respect of the able-bodied, the indirect evils of a Poor Law provision superior to what an unskilled labourer could

* Cf. Henderson, *Modern Methods of Charity*, p. 9.

APPENDIX No. LXXX.—*Continued.*

expect to provide for himself, are very great; the direct benefit is, in general, small. In respect of the sick and injured, the indirect evil is considerable when the sickness or injury to which relief is guaranteed are slight, but less considerable when they are serious and prolonged; in both cases the direct benefit is considerable. In respect of the old, both the indirect evil and the direct benefit are small. In respect of children, the indirect evil is considerable, and the direct benefit may be large. The result is conclusive only in the case of the able-bodied—the genuine able-bodied, that is to say, not those returned as able-bodied in the British Statistics, where “able-bodied temporarily sick” are included. We are thus confronted with two problems. First, if it be granted that the principle of 1834 in respect of the able-bodied ought to be carried out, by what *means* ought it to be carried out? Secondly, in the case of the not-able-bodied, can any plan be devised by which the indirect evils of violating the principle would be avoided and, at the same time, the direct benefits secured?

CHAPTER VII.

The Application of the 1834 Principle to the Able-bodied.

33. The former of these problems may now be discussed. It is required to determine the appropriate constitution for a minimum situation inferior to that of the independent unskilled labourer. The crux of the matter is that a relieved person's situation is not something absolutely simple, but is dependent, partly upon the material provision of food, housing, and so on afforded to him, and partly upon the accompaniments, deterrent or otherwise, with which the provision of relief is associated. The minimum required can thus be constituted by a combination of poor material provision with easy conditions, or by a combination of good provision with hard conditions, while a given intensity of easiness or hardness of conditions can itself be constituted in a variety of ways. The principle of the Poor Law does not, therefore, necessarily carry with it the gloss which the Commissioners embodied in their circular of 1836, that “on no account must the dietary of the workhouse be superior or equal to the ordinary mode of subsistence of the labouring classes.” *

The detailed discussion of how best to constitute the minimum is a matter for practical administrators. The records of recent experience seem, however, to warrant the following general conclusions.

First, the minimum cannot in practice be made inferior to the situation enjoyed by the unskilled labourer by a *mere* limitation in the amount of material provision accorded to relieved persons. That this can be done does, indeed, appear to be believed by the author of the French law of 1905, where it is provided that each commune shall determine the minimum necessary for subsistence in it, and shall allow to every one in need the amount of this minimum minus such private income as he may possess.† It is scarcely possible, however, for guardians to ensure that a person relieved on these terms is not enjoying other sources of income, from charity or elsewhere, that, in conjunction with their provision, lift his situation above what the principles of 1834 would warrant.

This difficulty can be got over if relief is coupled with conditions of: (1) residence in a place where supervision is possible; and (2) the temporary surrender to the guardians of all possessions capable of yielding a money income. But the safeguard thus introduced is not sufficient. The extent to which the guardians' provision of food and so on can be contracted is in this country strictly limited by public opinion. Experience has shown that it is not possible, within these limits, to bring the paupers' situation below that of the unskilled labourer, without resort to definitely deterrent conditions.

Secondly, these deterrent conditions must include labour. The importance of this

* Six dietaries were published for selection according to the condition of the district. A footnote was appended to the effect that “old persons of sixty and upwards may have something more.”

† Under this law only one-half of income due to personal thrift and foresight is deducted.

APPENDIX No. LXXX.—*Continued.*

condition is well illustrated in some of the evidence given before the Royal Commission of 1834. Thus Mr. Henderson, in his Memorandum on Liverpool, stated :—

“The introduction of labour thinned the house very much ; it was sometimes difficult to procure a sufficient supply of junk, which was generally obtained from Plymouth ; when the supply was known to be scanty, paupers flocked in ; but the sight of a load of junk before the door would deter them for any length of time.”*

In the same spirit, Mr. Atkinson, Comptroller of the Accounts for the township of Salford, stated :—

“Finding work for those who apply for relief in consequence of being short or out of work, has had a very good effect, especially when the work has been of a *different kind* from that which they have been accustomed to. In Salford, employment to break stones on the highways has saved the township several hundred pounds within the last two years ; for very few indeed will remain at work more than a few days, while the bare mention of it is quite sufficient for others. They all manage to find employment for themselves, and cease for a time to be troublesome ; although it is a singular fact that, when the stock of stones on hand has been completely worked up before the arrival of others, they have, almost to a man, applied again for relief, and the overseers have been obliged to give them relief ; but, so soon as an arrival of stones is announced, they find work for themselves again.”†

The information given in Mr. Davy's recent Report on the Poplar Union points in the same direction. So also does the opinion sometimes expressed, to the effect that the prospect of freedom from work exercises so great an attraction that friendly societies ought to set their out-of-work benefit at no more than one-third of the amount of a member's ordinary wages.

Thirdly, insistence on a task of work is not by itself an adequate deterrent. The reason is that it is almost impossible to compel persons set to work by the guardians really to exert themselves. Administrative convenience requires that the work provided shall be of a general character practicable for everybody rather than strictly adapted to any body, and there are no means of knowing what output corresponds to a given effort on the part of a man working at a job to which he is not accustomed. Compulsion is, therefore, difficult to apply, while the alternative to compulsion, power of dismissal, is not available. Nor is this all. Even though the actual effort put out in an hour could be made as hard as it would have to be in the open market, Poor Law work still has advantages from the labourers' point of view. Its certainty and continuity absolve him from the risk, trouble and cost involved in occasional loss of employment and the need for finding a new job. Thus, to be equivalent to the total disadvantages of work in the open market, relief work would need to be much more, instead of, as is in fact the case, much less, severe than work for independent employers.

For this reason, some further deterrent condition must be imposed. Disfranchisement and the stigma of pauperism are, in the opinion of practical administrators, insufficient. Consequently, resort must be had to disciplinary measures, and this implies detention under control. It does not, however, appear to be essential that, whenever an able-bodied man is relieved, his home should be broken up, and his family, as well as himself, taken into the House. Some experienced administrators have expressed themselves satisfied with the deterrent influence of the Modified Workhouse Test Order.

CHAPTER VIII.

The Problem of the Not-able-bodied.

34. The problem presented by the not-able-bodied is to devise some plan that will at once obviate the indirect evils and secure the direct benefits of a departure from the principles of 1834. Several plans may be suggested. The keynote of the minimum guarantee system, so far discussed, is that the aggregate condition accorded to an individual in any category is irrespective of the contribution that he has made to the dividend. If this condition be not insisted upon the way is open for more elaborate schemes.

* Quoted in the *Report*, p. 161.

† *Report*, p. 162.

APPENDIX No. LXXX.—Continued.

In respect of most of them it is necessary to enter a *caveat* similar to that introduced at the beginning of Chapter VI. There it was noted that a given addition to income under the stimulus of Poor Law policy does not imply an equal addition to the national dividend, because a part of the contribution made to secure the enhanced income is merely *diverted* from non-income-yielding contributions. In the present case it should be observed that a given addition to *income on account of saving*, made under like circumstances, does not imply an equal addition to income-yielding contribution, because a part of it is merely diverted from *income on account of work*. If, for instance, people are encouraged, by compulsion or by a bonus, to save more with a view to old age, it is probable that, when old, they will work less. This qualification must be borne in mind throughout what follows. By reason of it, the effect of encouragement to saving in general is restricted by an adverse reaction upon work in general, just as the effect of encouragement to a particular kind of saving (in friendly societies, for instance) is checked by an adverse reaction upon other kinds of saving.

35. A system—called hereafter System A—which has found some favour, is the guarantee to everybody of a *Poor Law minimum*, coupled with the rule that, in regard to all persons who have provided for themselves less than a given *stipulated amount*, such provision as they have made shall be ignored when the relief required to make up that minimum is being fixed. A partial application of this plan is made in the Out-door Relief Friendly Societies Acts of 1894 and 1904. Under these Acts the guardians in granting relief are permitted not to take account of any income received from a friendly society of less amount than 5s., and are forbidden to take account of any income so received in the form of sick benefit. The same idea is embodied in more general form in the French law of 1905. When any person, whose name is on the list of the Communal Bureau de Bienfaisance, is relieved, only half of any income he may have secured as the fruit of his own foresight or thrift is deducted in estimating the sum to be allowed to him. It is desirable to compare this system with the minimum guarantee system. Its effect, when applied generally, is to contract below the stipulated amount the contribution of those who, if it had not been adopted, would have contributed more than the stipulated amount itself, and less than the stipulated amount *plus* the Poor Law minimum. Whether the reduction thus made in the contribution of better-to-do poor persons is greater than the reduction that would have been made in that of worse-to-do persons by a simple minimum guarantee cannot be decided *in abstracto*. It depends upon the way in which population is distributed about different levels of income.

This can be made clear geometrically. Construct a curve in respect of axes OX and OY. Along OX mark off successive persons, and let any ordinate to the curve represent the income that would have been earned by the person in respect of whom it is drawn if there had been no expectation of Poor Law relief. The curve thus constructed is called hereafter the income distribution curve.

Let P_1M_1 (Fig. 1) be the stipulated amount; P_2M_2 the minimum guaranteed by the Poor Law; and P_3M_3 this minimum together with the stipulated amount. Under the plan discussed in the present section the injury to the national dividend is measured by P_3HP_1 ; under the simple guarantee plan by P_2M_2T . Which of these two areas is the greater depends on the shape of the relevant parts of the distribution of income curve, and this is not at present known.

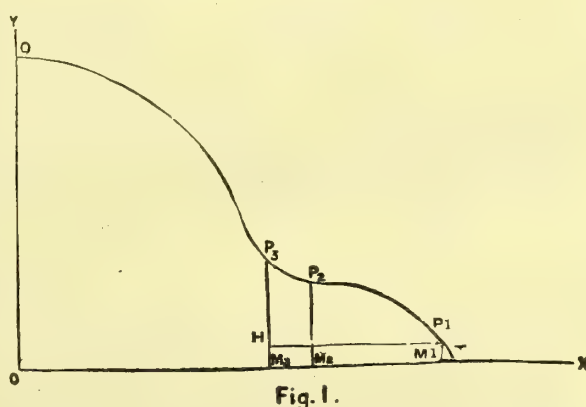


Fig. 1.

36. A second and more complicated system—called hereafter System B—is as follows. It is provided that a given minimum situation shall be ensured to everybody, but that the absolute relief given by the Poor Law shall be higher for those persons, who, while securing for themselves less than this minimum, secure more than a stipulated amount. This system may assume various forms. First, all relieved persons whose private provision exceeds the stipulated amount may have their aggregate situation raised to double the height of the Poor Law minimum. Secondly, all such persons may be accorded a defined

bonus which just exceeds the minimum. This idea is partially embodied in the pension laws of Denmark and New Zealand. Thirdly, they may be accorded a bonus which varies directly with the amount of their contribution, and the lowest value of which just exceeds the minimum.

Of these plans, the first seriously injures the national dividend by reducing to the stipulated amount the provision of all who would have provided anything between this amount and double the Poor Law minimum. The second is superior in that it only reduces to

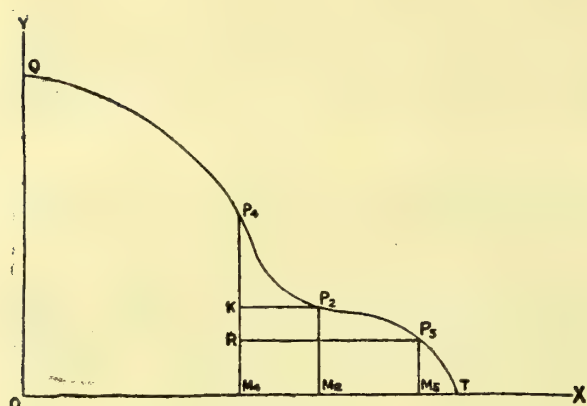


Fig. 2.

the Poor Law minimum the provision of those who would have provided anything between this and double the minimum. As before, the point can be elucidated geometrically. Let P_5M_5 (Fig. 2) be the stipulated amount; P_2M_2 the Poor Law minimum, and P_4M_4 double this minimum. There are other incidental effects, but the broad distinction between the first and second plans is that whereas the one subtracts from the dividend the area P_4RP_5 , the other subtracts the smaller area P_4KP_2 . The first plan may, therefore, be set aside as an inferior and undesirable form of System B.

37. The second and third plans cannot be compared with such decisive results. The second is superior in that it cuts down the provision of a smaller number of persons to the level of the Poor Law minimum, but superior in that it encourages extra exertion, not merely among those persons who could normally have provided a little less than the stipulated amount, but also among those who could have provided anything between this sum and the Poor Law minimum. Between these two forms of System B judgment must, therefore, be suspended.

For a comparison of System B, as a whole, with the minimum guarantee system, either of them may, therefore, be selected. What I have called the second plan lends itself more easily to discussion. It contracts the dividend by the area $P_4KP_2 + P_5M_5T$, but, on the other hand, it encourages those who would have provided a little less than the stipulated sum to make an effort to reach that sum: the minimum guarantee system contracts the dividend by the area P_2M_2T . System B, therefore, must be superior if the area P_4KP_2 is less than $P_2M_2M_5P_5$, but *may be* inferior if it is greater. In our present ignorance of the form of the income distribution sum, we have no means of knowing whether it is in fact superior or inferior.

38. Thus, either System A or System B may be superior to the minimum guarantee system. But both have disadvantages as well as advantages, and it is not possible to determine whether the former are greater or less than the latter. A direct comparison of System A with System B can be shown to have a like indecisive result; for the former is superior in respect of persons normally much below the stipulated amount, and the latter in respect of those normally near to it.

CHAPTER IX.

Classification by Opportunity.

39. One of the chief sources of disadvantage under Systems A and B is the restriction of relief to the poor, and the recognition, as a means to this, of some maximum condition of life to exceed which is to become ineligible for Poor Law aid. Is any modified system practicable by which the disadvantages due to these causes can be overcome?

A possible plan is to abandon the attempt to confine relief to the poor. In Mr. Booth's scheme of universal old-age pensions this is done. His scheme is thus freed from the great defect of other schemes. It does not differentiate in favour of small contributions to the dividend by making certain additions to the provision which a man may secure for himself of no advantage to his aggregate situation. No doubt, in the practical working of the plan

APPENDIX No. LXXX.—*Continued.*

differentiation would not be excluded altogether. For, though the only condition of a *legal title* to a pension were the attainment of a given age, it is probable that, *before a man could actually claim and receive his pension*, public opinion would also require a certain degree of poverty. Still, differentiation, though not abolished, would be greatly mitigated.

The difficulty of this solution of the problem is two-fold. First, a universal scheme, even if restricted to the category of old persons, and, still more, if intended to cover the needs of other not-able-bodied persons, would involve heavy expense and hence, on the side of *collecting* the money needed, would do more injury to the national dividend than less ambitious plans. Secondly, on the side of expenditure, though the dividend would not be injured by differentiation, it would be injured in other ways. Some persons would be estopped from providing for themselves by the general expectation of sufficiently comfortable circumstances to be attained from the State allowance. A complete solution of the problem is not, therefore, to be found in universality.

40. May it not be possible, however, while maintaining the restriction of relief to poor persons, to do away with the impeding influence of the *means* by which this restriction is generally secured? In Systems A and B alike these means consist in the recognition of a kind of general poverty line beyond which the Poor Law declines to intervene. It is possible, however, to effect the same object without resort to any such line, provided that poor persons within any category can be differentiated in accordance with their *capacity* for making provision, instead of with the amount of the provision that they have actually made. Instead of a rule that no allowance be made by the guardians to anyone whose income exceeds a stipulated amount, the provision might run, "to anyone whose income exceeds a stipulated amount unless he is a member of certain objectively defined classes." These classes might be so chosen as to embrace everyone whose income is, as a matter of fact, likely to fall below the stipulated amount. Under a plan of this kind, the more capable members of the specified classes would not be discouraged from making as large a provision as they could, and only a very small number of persons in the non-specified classes would be affected at all. It would, of course, be practically difficult to determine the classes, and care would have to be taken not to tempt people from a higher to a lower class. The classification would have to be based on opportunities which themselves might be in part inferred from occupation. The principle is already applied in some existing schemes by which employers offer a bonus upon savings to certain classes of their servants. By judicious selection of the classes to be favoured, they are enabled to make a *proportionate* addition to the interest earned without the risk of having to make a payment to persons earning *large* interest. A similar idea underlies the arrangements for sick relief instituted by the French Law of 1893. A list of persons who, if they become sick, will be entitled to assistance, is drawn up periodically in each Commune. There is, of course, the difficulty that persons not on the list cannot well be refused help in emergency. But, so far as practicable, the prospect of State aid is accorded to classes incapable of providing for themselves, and not accorded to other classes. Such evidence as is available seems to indicate that the plan has succeeded. It appears that since its inception, voluntary societies for workmen's insurance, so far from declining, have greatly increased in numbers and importance.

41. A second important source of disadvantage under systems A and B is in this wise. Both systems do, indeed, obviate that destruction of all contributions *less than the Poor Law minimum*, which was threatened by the minimum guarantee system. But they do not obviate the destruction of almost all contributions, in the one case *lying between the stipulated amount and this amount plus the Poor Law minimum*, in the other case *less than the stipulated amount*.

By a plan similar to that proposed in respect of the *Poor Law minimum* this element of injury to the national dividend might be avoided. Poor persons being distinguished into classes according to occupation or some other objective sign of opportunity, a *different stipulated amount* might be assigned to each class as the condition of differential treatment. By this plan discouragement could be avoided, or encouragement afforded, to many persons upon whom the simpler plan would operate either adversely or not at all. "If a man on 12s. a week," observes Professor Marshall, "has secured for himself an annuity of 1s., his thrift is a much more real thing than if a man on 50s. has got an annuity of 3s." By a multiple system thrift may be encouraged on the part of *both* these men.

42. Classification by opportunity thus removes the chief disadvantages, which, apart from it, have to be set against the advantages enjoyed by Systems A and B, and render it

APPENDIX No. LXXX.—*Continued.*

doubtful whether they are on the whole superior to the minimum guarantee system. Conjoined with classification they are certainly superior to it, in respect of all categories of the not-able-bodied poor.

43. In some important cases, classification can be applied through the device of recoverable loans. Under the existing law, relief given to parents is recoverable from children if they have the means to pay, medical relief is sometimes given in the form of a loan, and relief to underfed school children may, under the Relief (School Children) Order of 1905, and—though no longer by the guardians—under the new Act, be given in the same way. The practicability of recovery is thus already recognised. The difficulties connected with it are less than they appear to be at first sight, because, if guardians are known to be willing to prosecute at need, the need will seldom arise. I wish to suggest that the plan might be extended in the following manner. In the matter of treating the sick or educating or feeding children, the guardians should always give such form and amount of relief as will produce the best direct effects upon the relieved person, without any regard for the principle of 1834. But they should, at the same time, make an estimate of the provision which, apart from the expectation of their relief, would have been made by an average person in the class or grade of the person concerned against the eventuality in respect of which relief has been given. This sum they should demand, probably by instalments, from that person, and, if necessary, should recover by process of law. The “person concerned” is not, it will be noted, necessarily the relieved person himself. It may be the father or the widowed mother of a child which has been taken to a Poor Law school. It is, in short, the person or persons by whom, apart from the law, provision would have been made. If this plan were carried out with moderate skill, almost as much work and saving would be undergone with a view to the guardians’ demand as would have been undergone with a view to the contingencies for which relief is provided. There would be very little temptation to anybody to neglect any provision that he would, in any circumstances, have made. The indirect evil consequences to the dividend would, therefore, be exceedingly small,* while the relief could be so arranged that the direct beneficial consequences should be the largest that circumstances would allow.

44. This plan cannot be applied with much effect to the case of relief in old age. For old persons there are no better times in the future, where recovery of a loan can be looked for. If, therefore, the method of classification is to be used to promote provision for old age, some other device must be adopted. One practicable method is compulsory insurance. In Germany working men are classified according to the wage-level of their occupation, and are compelled to contribute some proportion of their weekly wage to a State-aided insurance fund. On this plan, the sum deemed reasonable in respect of each grade is *exact*ed from them. An alternative plan contents itself with the *persuasion* offered by differential treatment to those who have been “thrifty according to their opportunities and generally independent in early life.” †

45. Classification according to opportunity has so far been treated as a matter of grades and classes, and it is, no doubt, true that some kind of rough grouping can, at need, be made. But opportunity differs from man to man. A true classification would set up a different stipulated sum in respect not of classes but of individuals. That is the ideal, and, so far as practicable, the proper method. Not only is it more exact in respect of the things which the rougher grouping can attempt to estimate, but it is able to take account of contributions to the national dividend which are not represented in money income, and do not, therefore, enter into that grouping at all. Its principles will be in line with the conditions laid down by Professor Marshall in respect of out-relief, “that the applicant should have subscribed to a friendly society a sum standing in some reasonable relation to his wages, or have made provision in some other way for the future; (after due notice special attention would be paid to the question whether he had saved during the years in which his earnings were high and his family expenses not yet large”). ‡ This policy appears to me economically desirable, and it can scarcely be dismissed as impracticable. How far it could be successfully carried out by boards of guardians as at present constituted, and how far its general adoption would involve an enlarged expenditure upon relieving officers, and closer relations between guardians and the agencies of voluntary charity, are questions for the profitable discussion of which some acquaintance with the practice of Poor Law administration is essential.

* Of course there would be *some* injury to the dividend. For instance, such provision as poor parents might have made to protect their children from the contingency of both their deaths would be checked. But this is a small matter.

† Report of the Royal Commission on the Aged Poor, p. 83.

‡ *Economic Journal*, ii., p. 372.

APPENDIX No. LXXXI.

MEMORANDUM BY MR. J. D. STUART SIM, CHIEF REGISTRAR OF FRIENDLY SOCIETIES, AS TO THE PROVISION OF OUT-OF-EMPLOYMENT BENEFITS BY FRIENDLY SOCIETIES.

1. The provision of out-of-employment benefits is not one of the objects authorised by the Friendly Societies Act for an ordinary friendly society or branch. It is, however, competent for a society to include in its objects the relief of members "in distressed circumstances," a term capable of wide interpretation; and for the relief of members while on travel in search of employment. The former relief is usually restricted to small grants, and to the payment of the contributions of aged and necessitous members from a separate distress fund; while, in the latter case, the traveller is provided by his society or branch with a licence and cheques, of which one *per diem* may be cashed, and also a travelling pass-word by which his *bona-fides* may be proved by the society's relieving officer.

2. A special authority, as provided by Section 8 (5) of the Friendly Societies Act, was granted by the Lords of the Treasury, March 20th, 1877, for the purpose of enabling the registry of societies having for their object that of assisting members out of employment, and it is adapted to those trade societies which do not bring themselves within the definition of a trade union. Forty societies, composed principally of warehousemen and clerks, have availed themselves of registry under this authority.

At the close of the year 1906 the total membership of these societies amounted to 28,029 persons, distributed among the following counties :—

Cheshire	-	-	-	-	-	-	43
Hampshire	-	-	-	-	-	-	98
Kent	-	-	-	-	-	-	316
Lancashire	-	-	-	-	-	-	10,655
Leicestershire	-	-	-	-	-	-	67
London	-	-	-	-	-	-	13,209
Northumberland	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,115
Nottinghamshire	-	-	-	-	-	-	242
Warwickshire	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,395
Yorkshire	-	-	-	-	-	-	380
Glamorganshire	-	-	-	-	-	-	509
							28,029

From the Returns of thirty-one societies giving the information, it appears that £7,887 was paid during the year in unemployment benefits consequent upon trade depression. In addition to these benefits, the rules frequently provide for medical assistance and payments during sickness, in old age, and at death, while facilities are given to members of obtaining employment by means of the societies' labour agencies.

Of the £7,887 mentioned above nearly one-half was paid by the Provident Association of Warehousemen, Travellers and Clerks, of 98, Cheapside, E.C. This society, at the close of 1906, had a membership of 8,856 persons, and an income of £15,110; of which £12,391 was contributed by the members. The expenditure during the year was as follows :—

	£	Percentages.
Out-of-Employment Benefits - - - - -	3,357	36·45
Medical Fees - - - - -	2,442	26·51
Payments for Illness - - - - -	746	8·10
Death Payments - - - - -	365	3·96
Special Grants - - - - -	228	2·48
Special Grants in Old Age - - - - -	146	1·59
Management Expenses, including Salaries } Commission, Advertising, &c. }	1,926	20·91
		9,210
		100·00

The balance of funds at end of year amounted to £74,554.

APPENDIX No. LXXXII.

STATEMENT BY MISS EDITH SELLERS CONCERNING THE WORST FEATURES OF THE ENGLISH POOR RELIEF SYSTEM AND THE BEST FEATURES OF CERTAIN FOREIGN POOR RELIEF SYSTEMS.

1. The fundamental difference between the English Poor Relief system and the foreign systems with which I am acquainted is that, whereas under all these systems the local authorities are strictly subordinate to some higher authority, which can not only restrain them from acting, but can force them to act, under the English system the local authorities are in a great measure independent. They have a higher authority, of course, the Local Government Board; but this authority, although it can restrain them from acting, is in practice, if not

in theory, powerless to force them to act. It has no effective machinery, indeed, through which it can in ordinary circumstances force them to do anything they are determined not to do. It may issue mandates, but its mandates are easily set at naught. Of this we have proof in the fact that the workhouses at Cockermouth and Aysgarth are still in use; for it condemned them as unfit for human habitation years ago. It has auditors, but their business is to prevent Guardians from spending money unwisely, not to force them to spend it wisely;

APPENDIX No. LXXXII.—*Continued.*

all that they even try to do is to secure the ratepayers against gross extravagance and fraud. As for its inspectors, their function is to give advice rather than to issue orders; and the advice they give is more often than not simply ignored. Were it otherwise Guardians would not now be granting out-relief on a scale that spells semi-starvation, nor would thousands of children be found living in workhouses. Besides, in country districts the inspector's visits are few and far between; there are unions where he appears only once every two or three years, the local authorities being left meanwhile free to go their own way. The Local Government Board, it is true, publishes for their benefit exhortations, instructions, and warnings from time to time; but it cannot, of course, compel them to read them, and read them for the most part they certainly do not. Two years after Mr. Chaplin's famous "Circular on the Treatment of the Aged Deserving Poor" was issued, I made careful enquiries among a large number of Poor Law guardians, with a view to finding out to what extent they were acting on the recommendations it contains. Not one of all those to whom I applied had ever read the circular; and quite half of them confessed frankly that they had never seen it, never heard of its existence. Two years later the chairman of an important London Board was in precisely the same position: he too had never heard of it.

2. It is in this peculiarity of the English Poor Relief system, this absence of a higher authority able effectually to direct and control the local authorities, that its chief defects have their origin, or so at least it seems to me. This is at the root of that lack of uniformity in our Poor Law administration, that is so fraught with injustice alike to the poor and to those who must support them. As Poor Law Guardians are practically free to decide for themselves the lines on which they administer Poor Relief, there are hardly two Boards that administer it on the same lines. Every time a new Board is elected its members may, and sometimes do, completely reverse the policy their predecessors pursued. There is therefore neither fixity nor equality in the treatment of the poor. In Berlin, as in Copenhagen and every other foreign town I know where poor relief is organised, the poor, whether they fare badly or well, at any rate all fare alike, as how they fare is determined by the higher central authority. Thus there is none of that rankling sense of injustice there, which prevails so widely in London, owing to the measure meted out to the destitute varying according to locality—being quite different in Whitechapel, for instance, from what it is in Poplar; or in Southwark from what it is in Fulham. In the Southwark workhouse I once found some 200 poor old creatures living in a state of abject misery, such misery that one of them seized me by the arm as I passed and cried: "For God's sake get me out of this place or I shall go mad." At that very same time the old ladies in the Fulham workhouse were passing their days in great comfort, infinite trouble being taken to render their lives pleasant. They were almost as well cared for, indeed, as their neighbours at Southwark were neglected; and that is saying a great deal. Yet the Poor Law is, of course, the same at Fulham as at Southwark, it is only the administration of it that is different, is different because there is no central authority to control it, and thus secure its being the same throughout the city, as in common justice it ought to be, surely.

3. In rural districts the treatment of the poor in one union differs from that in another even more markedly than in large towns. Four years ago I visited a number of country workhouses. In several of them, as in that at Bedale and that at Knaresborough, I found that, from the material point of view, the inmates were extremely well cared for: the majority of them, indeed, were probably better housed, clothed and fed than they had ever been in their lives before. There were other workhouses, however, only a few miles away, where the inmates fared worse than they would have fared in prison, so comfortless was life there in every way. One of them, that at Aysgarth, had been condemned as uninhabitable years before; and two or three more might also have been condemned without injustice. The Helmsley workhouse served at that time—it probably serves still—as lunatic asylum for the district. Whoever went mad was taken there at once, and was left there more often than not, if he were poor,

as it cost less to keep him there than in the asylum. When I paid the place a visit I found a dozen old men simply cowering before one of the lunatics, a great strong fellow who had vowed that he would do for the lot. Nor is it only the indoor paupers who suffer from this inequality of treatment; there are districts where out-relief is granted to all comers, and there are districts where it is practically not granted at all. In some unions as much as 10s. a week is granted sometimes for the support of one person; while in others, as at Hendon was the case in 1904, the average out-relief allowance is only 1s. 8½d. a week. That this state of things is cruel and demoralising cannot be denied; nor can it be denied that it is the direct result of Boards of Guardians being left without a higher authority to control them and keep them in the right path.

4. Then, under the present system, it is not the poor alone who suffer, it must be noted; ratepayers are almost as much at the mercy of the Boards of Guardians as they are; for the Local Government Board auditors have no control whatever over the greater part of the money the Guardians spend, as it is impossible for them to know whether the spending of it was, or was not, necessary. I once devoted a considerable amount of time to sifting the accounts of the Hendon Board of Guardians; and I found that, although there were only some 52,000 inhabitants in their union, they had contrived in the year 1903-4 to spend on the relief of the poor no less a sum than £19,796. They had spent £4,807 on their officials and £679 on coal; while every inmate in their workhouse had cost them £43; and every child in their school, £50 10s. Yet the auditor had passed their accounts without a protest, just as he had passed the accounts of the Westbury-on-Severn Guardians, in whose workhouse the cost per head for adults and children alike was £15. 8s. 5d.; and as he passes year by year the accounts of the Guardians for Wolverhampton, where the poor rate was two years ago 2s. 11½d.; and of the Guardians for Cockermouth, where it was 4½d. Thus, evidently, within certain very wide limits, Poor Law Guardians are free to spend as much or as little on poor relief as they choose, are free, in fact, to be wastefully lavish to the detriment of the ratepayers, or to be niggardly mean to the detriment of the poor. For if the auditors have but little control over their expenditure, the average ratepayer has no control at all; he does not even know what they do with the money they spend, as the financial statements they issue are as a rule beyond all comprehension.

5. What renders the more disastrous, from the ratepayers' point of view, this freedom from control that is accorded to Boards of Guardians is the fact that the men and women who become Guardians have, as a rule, had no previous training for their work as administrators, no experience in dealing with money on a large scale. For there are none of those arrangements in force here by means of which in Berlin, for example, the services of business men, bankers, lawyers, great merchants, actuaries, etc., are secured for the local administration of poor relief; or by means of which elsewhere the presence of trained officials, or of experienced professional men, among the administrators is secured. In Berlin, every ratepayer, whether rich or poor, may by law be summoned to act as Poor Commissioner, as the town has a legal claim on the services of all its citizens. Whether he actually is summoned depends neither on his wishes nor yet on his convenience, but solely on whether, in the estimation of the community, as represented by the municipal council, he is or is not capable of doing the work well. He may, of course, refuse to act; but if he does he suffers in more ways than one, as he forfeits certain of his civic rights and must pay higher rates than his fellows, besides being looked on askance as a bad citizen both by the authorities and society. In Denmark, wherever there are honorary Poor Law administrators, they have a trained official, the burgomaster, as chairman; and in Vienna a trained official, who represents the central authority, is present at all the meetings of the honorary Poor Law officials; while elsewhere in Austria, notably in Steiermark, the parish priest, the parish doctor, and representatives of the chief philanthropic societies and societies for the prevention of pauperism, etc., are all *ex-officio* members of the Poor Board. Thus there is no danger there of the local administration of relief ever falling entirely into the hands of inexperienced amateurs.

Lack of uniformity in the English System, Evils resulting from it in towns.

Evils resulting from it in country districts.

No effective control over the expenditure of the Boards of Guardians.

Arrangements in force in foreign countries for securing the services of business men, bankers, lawyers, etc., as Poor administrators.

APPENDIX No. LXXXII.—*Continued.*

6. Here in England, however, it is otherwise; here a Board of Guardians may consist entirely of persons who know nothing whatever of administrative work, and have never before in their lives had the spending of more than perhaps two or three hundred a year. Yet one of their functions may be to direct the working of a huge establishment carried on at a cost of many thousands a year. Some little time ago I asked a Poor Law guardian, who had been on the Board's finance committee for several years, what was included under the heading "Necessaries" in his Board's financial statement. He had not the slightest idea, he replied, but he would enquire the next time he went to the workhouse. Whenever I come across a Guardian I ask what the cost per head in his workhouse is; but not one in twenty of those whom I ask is able to tell me. So far as my own experience of them goes, the average Guardian does not know what becomes of the greater part of the money he is supposed to spend; in financial matters he is, in fact, completely in the hands of the workhouse officials and the clerk to the Board whom he is supposed to control. This being the case, it is difficult to conceive how ratepayers can ever hope to obtain a fair return for the money the Guardians spend for them.

7. As it is manifestly impossible to insure that on every Board of Guardians as at present constituted there shall be sound financiers and clever administrators, as well as philanthropists with a keen sense of justice and robust common sense, there is no chance, so far as I can see, of securing fair treatment all round, either for ratepayers or paupers, so long as these Boards are allowed to decide what the treatment shall be. There will always be unions where the dictates of economy on the one hand, and of humanity on the other, will be set at naught, unless means be devised by which the worst sort among them can be forced to do what the better sort do of their own free will. How these means can be devised is a hard problem; for although it would be easy enough to create—or strengthen—a higher Poor Law authority, to do so without weakening the sense of responsibility of the local authorities, or their interest in their work, would be far otherwise. Still it is a problem for which, so far as it concerns rural districts, Denmark and the Swiss Cantons Zürich and Bern have already found satisfactory solutions; while so far as it concerns towns, Berlin and Vienna have both found solutions of a kind. Copenhagen, on the other hand, has pronounced the problem insoluble in the case of large cities; and, having made a clean sweep of its amateur Poor Law administrators it has installed trained experts in their place. If we wish to mend our Poor Law administration here in London, we might, I am inclined to think, obtain from the systems of administration in force in Copenhagen, Berlin, and Vienna many useful hints as to how the mending could best be done. From Denmark especially there is much to be learnt not only in the way of Poor Law administration, but of Poor Law making. What renders her experience in those matters more valuable to us than those of any other nation is the fact that her institutions, as ours, are democratic, and that she recognises, as we do, the right of the destitute to relief. Until 1892 her Poor Law was identical with our own, and for centuries it was administered by Boards of Guardians.

Vide App. LXXXII. (A) I., Poor Relief Administration in Denmark; *App. LXXXII. (B)*, Poor Relief Administration in Berlin; *App. LXXXII. (C)*, Poor Relief Administration in Vienna.

8. If our Poor Law as it stands was administered as it might be administered, our Poor Law system would no doubt be infinitely better than it is. Still there are defects in the law itself, for which remedies must be found, if justice is to be done both to the poor and the ratepayers who support them. One of these, and a grave one, is the right the law confers on workhouse inmates to take their own discharge. Anything more demoralising, alike to workhouse inmates and workhouse officials, than the in-and-out game which the worst class of paupers are able to play, under the present law, it would be difficult to conceive. Whenever in a union there is work to be done which an inmate does not care to do, he can take his discharge, go on a walking tour and then return. When any punishment is awarded to him, in nineteen cases out of twenty he can evade it by simply leaving the workhouse; as, even though he remains outside only a

week, on his return by-gones are reckoned as by-gones. I was once at the Southwark workhouse when a woman had just taken her discharge, because she had been told she would not be allowed to go for a walk for the four following Sundays; as, on the previous Sunday, she had returned to the house drunk. If she came back, as she probably would in the course of a few days, she would have her usual Sunday walk, the Master told me. He would not have the power to deprive her of it; as, on re-entering the union, she would start with a fresh record. This state of things is bad enough when men and women are concerned, but it is infinitely worse when they who are concerned are young girls. Some years ago I found, in the York Union, nearly fifty girls all sitting together in one room, each with a baby in her arms. The oldest among them did not look twenty, and a good third seemed more or less feeble-minded. Never a year passes but hundreds, nay thousands, of poor helpless young women plunge themselves into great misery—the ratepayers too into great expense—simply because the law in its cruelty allows them to quit the workhouse when they choose—at the prompting of any passing whim.

9. In Denmark such scandals as these are impossible; as, under the Danish relief system, whoever crosses the threshold of a workhouse remains there until the Poor Law authorities decide that it would be well not only for him—or her—but for the community at large, that he should depart. He cannot take his own discharge, and to abscond is a crime which may be punished with six months' imprisonment in a penal workhouse. Thus not only can the helpless and heedless be kept from harm, but the idle and worthless can be forced to mend their ways; for the length of an inmate's stay in a workhouse depends on how he conducts himself and the amount of work he does. And if he does not conduct himself well, nor do as much work as the authorities think he ought to do, they have the right to send him to a penal workhouse. He may, it is true, appeal to their higher authority, the chairman of the County Council, if he thinks he is being detained unjustly; but, for the chairman to interfere on his behalf, he must be able to prove that he is in a position to support, without help, himself and his family, if he has one, *i.e.*, that he has regular work to go to, or else that he has money enough to tide over the time until he finds work.

10. Of all the various powers the Danish Poor Law officials possess, this power of detaining workhouse inmates is the one to which they themselves attach most importance. They look upon it as by far the most valuable weapon they have wherewith to battle against pauperism. Were they without it it would be impossible, they maintain, to cope effectually with paupers of the worst sort. Danish workhouse officials go even further: a workhouse, they hold, loses all value either as a destitution test, an educational force, or as a punishment, if they who resort there are free to betake themselves off the day the fancy seizes them.

11. So long as Poor Law Guardians have a free hand as administrators, there could be no question, of course, of according to them this power to detain which renders such good service to Danish Poor Law authorities; but were they placed under the surveillance of a higher authority, or were the whole administration handed over to expert officials, it would be otherwise. Then we might find in this feature of the Danish law a remedy for one at any rate of the defects in our own law. In this case, however, fairness would require that we should also adopt another feature of the Danish system, *i.e.*, that we should give workhouse inmates the chance of earning money for themselves. Any workhouse inmate in Denmark—the arrangement is the same in Austria and Germany—who does work over and above his allotted task is paid for this work, one half of what he earns being given to him at the end of every week, and the other half when he leaves. He is able, therefore, if he chooses to be industrious, to earn enough to tide over the time until he can obtain regular employment; and this done he can always obtain his release by applying to the higher authority.

12. One of the most demoralising features of our Poor Relief system is that, no matter how hard a man works while in the Union, or how long he stays there, he is as destitute when he leaves as when he entered. Let him do what he will he cannot earn the wherewithal to buy for himself even a new pair of shoes.

The Danish Poor Law Authorities Right to detain. The great importance attached to this right.

Necessity of rendering Higher Authority effective before conferring on Poor Law Guardians Right to Detain. Necessity also of enabling workhouse inmates to earn money

Demoralising feature of the English System.

APPENDIX No. LXXXII.—Continued.

Defect II.
Children
ranking as
paupers.

13. Another defect in our Poor Law is that under it children rank as paupers, as they are placed in the hands of the same authorities and may be confided to the care of the same officials. There is not a word in it, indeed, to indicate that they who framed it recognised that children differ in any way from paupers, or were alive to the necessity of taking precautions to guard against their being pauperised. So far as the law is concerned, there is nothing to prevent every Board of Guardians in the kingdom from keeping the children for whom they provide shut up in the workhouse. As a point of fact there actually are at the present time some 21,000 children in workhouses and workhouse infirmaries, and some thousands more living in schools, many of which differ from workhouses only in name. And this although it has been proved to the hilt again and again, that to bring up a child in a workhouse is to handicap it almost hopelessly in the battle of life. In theory, it is true, the children in workhouses are kept quite apart from the other inmates, but only in theory in many cases. Even in some comparatively large unions young and old have their meals together; while in small unions I have found little girls sleeping in the same rooms as disreputable women; and boys acting as general workhouse attendants. Nay, I have even found a boy playing with the casuals, and a girl of fourteen passing the whole of her time with a woman of the very worst class who was supposed to be teaching her how to cook. Even to expect these unfortunate little beings to grow up into decent men and women is unreasonable. Then the children who are being supported together with their mothers on out-relief are all pauperised more or less; as they are under the surveillance of the relieving officer, and go to him, together with the other paupers, to fetch the family relief. Besides they, in addition to being pauperised, are as a rule half-starved. In the Hendon Union a mother was expected to maintain a child on 1½d. a day out-relief, even when the Guardians were spending £50 a year each on the children whom they themselves maintained in their workhouse school.

Berlin the
model town
in what
concerns
children.

14. So far as the young are concerned both Germans and Hungarians show more wisdom and more humanity than we do. Berlin does not regard the children it supports as paupers; and, being determined that they shall be under no temptation to develop into paupers, it takes care that they are not associated in any way with paupers or pauper officials; just as it takes care that they shall not be associated with criminals or jailers. No starving little street urchin is ever sent to a workhouse or any pauper resort in Berlin; nor is any child who is accused of crime, or who is even caught red-handed, ever sent to prison. They, as all destitute children, are taken, at once when they are found, to the Orphans' Dépôt, the headquarters of the Orphans' Board (*Vide Appendix No. LXXXII. (B)*, Poor Relief in Berlin). There they remain under the close surveillance of experts, until the director, as the representative of the Board, can decide what shall be done with them to ensure their developing into useful self-supporting citizens. Whether they are boarded out or lodged in institutions, they are always under the guardianship of their own special officials; for when the municipal council appoints Poor Commissioners to take care of the adult poor, it appoints also Orphans' Fathers and Mothers to take care of the children. From first to last they are never under the control of the ordinary Poor Law authorities, never in the keeping of anyone who has any connection whatever with Poor Law administration. The result is there is no touch of the pauper about them; they take their places side by side with their fellows on terms of perfect equality, when the time comes for them to go into the world—the boys at fifteen, the girls at sixteen—and it is an almost unheard-of thing for any one of them to be found later in life in a workhouse. And Budapest is every whit as determined as Berlin to do the very best that can be done for its children (*Vide Appendix No. LXXXII. (E)*). State Children in Hungary).

Defect III.
Guardians
being the
dispensers
of relief to
Casuals,
Work-seek-
ers, and
Work-
shirkers.

15. Children are not the only section of the destitute who might with advantage be removed from the care of the Poor Law Guardians. It is almost as great a defect in the law, it seems to me, to make them, as it does, the dispensers of the relief given to casuals, as it is to make them the dispensers of that given to boys and girls. A

casual is, as a rule, either a work-seeker or a work-shirker; if he is a work seeker, he merits better treatment than they can give him; while if a work-shirker, he deserves punishment of a kind they cannot award. Besides, they are practically without the means of deciding to which category he belongs. Surely it smacks not only of cruelty but of sheer folly to force a man who is able to work, and eager to work, and who is striving his hardest to find work to do, to waste a whole day breaking stones, to the detriment, perhaps, of his skill in his craft, if he asks for a night's shelter and a meal to help him on in his search. When a well-known foreign Poor Law administrator saw the iron cages in which the Fulham Guardians confine their casuals, he looked quite horrified. "Why, you treat these people as if they were wild beasts," he exclaimed. "If you shut up a decent man there, even for one day, what do you suppose is the result?" And hundreds of men, some of them decent men, are shut up there every year. Then the work-shirker is dealt with every whit as unwisely as the work-seeker; for he is allowed to tramp about the countryside with his family at his heels, extorting or cajoling alms from his fellows, and using casual wards and workhouses as temporary resting places when the weather is bad. There is no breaking of stones for him; for he is always more or less of an invalid, or so at least he is clever enough to make it appear. It is not Poor Law guardians who are the proper persons to deal with him, but the police; and practically everywhere, outside England, it is the police who do deal with him, to the great advantage of the community.

16. So far as the treatment of casuals is concerned, the model countries are undoubtedly Austria and Denmark; they are the only countries where a serious attempt is made to differentiate between the genuine work-seeker and the professional loafer, with a view to securing that the one, as the other, shall be dealt with according to his merits. They are the only countries, in fact, where care is taken to give a helping hand to men who are temporarily out of work, and thus keep them from drifting into pauperism; the only countries, too, where loafers are not only punished and forced to work, but are taught how to work, and are, so far as possible, imbued with the wish to work.

17. If a respectable working man, being out of employment, goes on the tramp in Lower Austria, he may not only sleep every night for forty-three nights in Relief-in-Kind stations, but he may have his dinner there every day for forty-three days. These stations, which are within half a day's walking distance of one another throughout the province, are practically casual wards organised on philanthropic lines. They are maintained at the cost of the whole province for the benefit of work-seekers, and loafers are not allowed to cross their threshold. In order to be admitted a man must be able to prove that he has been in regular employment within the previous forty-three days, and must have a clean record so far as the police are concerned. If he arrives at night he is provided with a bath, supper—soup, vegetables with sauce, and bread—and with a comfortable bed. The next morning before 7 a.m. he must turn out; but before he goes he is given his breakfast—soup and bread—and is told exactly where his best chance of finding work lies; for attached to every station is a labour bureau, and one of the duties of the officials is to keep in close touch with all the employers in the district. Between 11 a.m. and 1 p.m. he may go to another station and there have dinner. When he has once been to a station, however, he may not return there for at least forty-three days; and, if after being on the tramp for forty-three days, he has not found regular employment, he forfeits his right to go to any station. He may forfeit it, indeed, before, if it can be proved that he has refused work offered him under reasonable conditions, or that he is not turning to good account the opportunities given him of finding employment.

18. While the work-seeker is thus helped on in his way, the loafer is dealt with in a totally different fashion. By Austrian law any person found begging, or allowing those dependent on him to beg, or who is found wandering about without visible means of support, may be sent to a penal workhouse, although precautions are taken to guard against his being sent there if he deserves a better fate. A penal workhouse in Austria is not only a prison where rigid discipline is maintained, but also a reformatory

Austria a
Denmark
model countries in w
concerns
casuals.

Austrian
Relief-in-
Kind
Stations.

Austrian
penal
workhouses

APPENDIX No. LXXXII.—Continued.

where the idle are given an opportunity of overcoming their evil propensity. All who go there are taught how to work, are forced to work, and are punished if they try to shirk working; at the same time they are given a strong motive for working well, as the fact is brought home to them that their one chance either of shortening their stay there, or of rendering it fairly comfortable, lies in working with their whole heart and soul. An inmate must remain there three full years unless, in the meantime, he can convince the director and the board of managers that he has turned over a new leaf and may be trusted to try to earn an honest livelihood. And the only way he can convince them is by working hard and behaving well, so as to secure promotion from the third class, in which all new arrivals are put, to the second; and from the second, to the first. Until he is in the first class there is no hope of their deeming it advisable to release him.

19. Denmark goes a step further than Austria; for, not content with trying to keep casuals from becoming paupers, she aims also at keeping the unemployed from becoming casuals. In England hundreds of men and women drift into pauperism every year, just because there is no one to give them a helping hand when misfortune befalls them. Illness comes, or they are out of work; they fall behindhand with their rent; their landlord seizes their goods and chattels, and they betake themselves to the casual wards. Thence to the workhouse is but a step, and once in the workhouse they are pauperised. Meanwhile the Poor Law officials, however willing to help, are powerless: it is no business of theirs to interfere. In Denmark, however, the fact is recognised that it is better to spend money on warding off pauperism than on relieving paupers. There the special duty of a Poor Law officer is to help the poor in all ways, but above all to help them not to become paupers. Part of his regular business is to act as general adviser to those who are just hovering on the brink of pauperism, especially to such of them as would work gladly but have no work to do. One of his recognised functions, indeed, is to put them in the way of finding work, by telling them where there is most chance of its being found. Another of his functions is to provide housing, at a reasonable rent, for men and women who, although they have the money wherewith to pay for it, cannot find it for themselves. He must even provide a shelter, and not in a workhouse, for tramps, if they can prove that they are bona fide working men in search of work.

20. But if it is counted the duty of the Poor Law official in Denmark to help the deserving poor, it is counted his duty too to wage war against the whole loafer tribe; and this the Danish law enables him to do in a singularly effective fashion; as it enacts that vagrants, leggars, and all destitute persons who, being without work, leave undone the work the authorities give them to do, may be sent to a penal workhouse. And there they may have to stay, earning every meal before they eat it, not for a few days, or even a few weeks, but for six long weary months, with the prospect always before them of being, at the end of that time, not set at liberty, but merely transferred to a workhouse. There they may be detained until, by dint of sheer custom, they have overcome their old dislike of work and are prepared to make an effort to earn their own living. Every town or commune in Denmark is the owner, or part owner, of a penal workhouse, where insubordination is put down with military sternness, and laziness is punished with solitary confinement.

21. One more defect in our Poor Law, and this the most grievous of all, is that, although it does not ordain it tacitly sanctions that clubbing together of the poor of all degrees which entails such untold misery on the more respectable among them. It makes no attempt to discriminate between the poor old man who has worked hard all his days, and pinched and saved, and the drunken wastrel who has spent all his time when not in prison preying on his fellows. It does not even recognise that there is any difference, in point of merit, between the lazy self-indulgent gadabout, who is a disgrace to her sex, and the widow whose life has been a long fight to bring up her children respectably. It allows exactly the same treatment to be meted out to the one as to the other; nay, it even allows them to be shut up in the same building, and forced to spend their days and nights together. And this

is directly opposed to the teaching of sound economy as well as of humanity; for practically it places a premium on idleness and vice. In many of our unions the worst class of inmates are quite content and happy—they find the place, as one of them told me, “a real home”—while the more respectable among them are unutterably miserable. In this respect the Danish Poor Law is infinitely better than ours, as it recognises the fact that paupers must be sorted and classified, as otherwise great injustice is done. The relief system now in force in Denmark was organised, indeed, for the express purpose of ensuring that every destitute person in the kingdom should, so far as possible, be dealt with according to his merits.

22. In London, if a man—or woman—between fifty and sixty applies for relief, he is as a rule sent off straight to the workhouse, no matter whether he is a scoundrel of the lowest type, a lazy ne’er-do-weel, or a respectable artisan. As often as not the relieving officer does not take the trouble to inquire what his past life has been; for no matter how deserving the applicant may be, he must send him to the workhouse, as there is no other place where he can send him, and he is not allowed to give him out-relief. In Denmark, however, the relieving officer, with the help of the police if necessary, is bound to make a searching inquiry into the character and past life of everyone who applies to him for relief. Then, if a man’s record is thoroughly good, and he can show that it is only temporarily he requires help, he receives a grant out of the Free Fund which carries with it neither the stigma nor the disabilities entailed by Poor Relief. If, however, although his record is good, it seems probable that he will require help not for weeks but for months, out-relief is given to him. Applicants who belong to the doubtful class, who are lazy and thriftless, but not vicious, are sent to the workhouse, unless they be old and feeble, in which case they are sent to a poorhouse; while applicants of the worst sort of all are sent to a penal workhouse.

23. Then in England if a respectable old woman—or man—applies for relief, she too must as a rule be sent off to the workhouse, just as if she were the veriest drunken old tramp, ex-criminal, or worse. In the eyes of the law, indeed, she is not one whit better than the old tramp; and this in itself is enough to stamp the law as unjust, inhuman, and stupid. To her, it is true, out-relief may be granted; but when it is granted it is almost invariably so small in amount that she cannot possibly exist on it. Besides the chances are she is not strong enough to live alone, and has no relatives able and willing to let her live with them. *I once took a census in a number of workhouses with a view to finding out how many of the inmates above sixty-five had relatives with whom they could live, if they were provided with old-age pensions of 5s. a week each. Out of 2,200 inmates I found only 1,200 who were strong enough mentally and physically to leave the workhouse, even if they had relations with whom they could live, and among the 1,200, only 23 who actually had relations with whom they could live, if they did leave it. The overwhelming majority of respectable old people who are destitute must go to the workhouse, unless they choose to starve, as there is nowhere else where they can go.

24. In Denmark it is otherwise: there no respectable old man or woman is ever sent to a workhouse, or has anything whatever to do with the Poor Law or its officials. For the poor who are above sixty are divided into two distinct classes, pensioners and paupers, i.e., the deserving and the undeserving, and the two classes are kept entirely apart. “We need never even see a pauper now unless we wish,” an old pensioner once assured me, with infinite pride. The pensioners are either provided with money allowances, or are lodged in old-age homes, where they are made extremely comfortable, and retain not only their full liberty, but their votes and other rights as citizens. The paupers on the other hand, whether living on out-relief or in poorhouses, are practically in bondage; and while it is regarded as a terrible disgrace to be a pauper, no discredit whatever is attached to being a pensioner. For rightly or wrongly among all classes in Denmark the feeling is strong, that a man who has worked hard in the days of his strength, and has led a decent honest life, has the right to be supported in his old age.

*Vide Appendix No. LXXXII. (F).

The English relief system contrasted with the Danish.

The hard case of the deserving aged poor.

The Danish old-age relief system. Old-age homes.

APPENDIX No. LXXXII.—*Continued.*

Old-age homes in Roumania, Holland, Germany, and Russia

25. Denmark is not the only country where the aged respectable poor are treated more humanely than in England. In Austria men and women above sixty are not regarded as paupers, no matter how much relief they may require. Old-age homes are provided for them, and there they live in great comfort, being treated not only with kindness but with infinite consideration and respect. There are old-age homes, too, of much the same kind in Roumania, Holland, Switzerland, some parts of Germany, and in Russia.

Treatment of the poor in London compared with the treatment of the poor in Berlin, Copenhagen and Vienna.

26. So far as I can judge, in Berlin destitute children are better cared for than in London; while both in Copenhagen and in Vienna destitute old people are treated more humanely, and the able-bodied are dealt with more wisely. Yet the cost of Poor Relief per head of the population is considerably lower in these three cities than in London. I have watched the working of the Poor Relief systems in force in ten European capitals in my time; but I know no capital, excepting St. Petersburg, and perhaps Belgrade, where, so far as the respectable poor are concerned, so small a return is obtained for the money spent on Poor Relief as in London; and no city where so large a return is obtained as in Copenhagen. Objections may be urged of course not only against the Danish Poor Law, but against the system on which it is administered in Copenhagen; still this system certainly works admirably: it works better, from the ratepayer's standpoint as well as that of the poor, than either the Berlin system or the Vienna, both of which are perhaps, in theory, superior to it in some respects. More

is done for the poor in Copenhagen than in any other city, yet the cost of poor relief together with old-age relief was in the year 1905-06, only 10s. 7½d. per head of the population, or 6s. per head less than the cost of poor relief alone in London. Although the administration is entirely in the hands of paid officials, the working expenses, salaries, etc., of the whole Poor Relief and Old-Age Relief department amounted that year only to £14,582.

27. The full cost per head in the Copenhagen workhouse is 1s. a day; and in the penal workhouse it is 11½d. Even in the beautiful old-age homes where the inmates are surrounded with comforts, the cost per head is only 1s. 8d. a day; whereas in our London workhouses it averages 2s. 0d. And the cost of living is now quite as high in Copenhagen as in London.

28. If I might venture to make a suggestion, the one I would make is that the Royal Commissioners should send an official representative to Copenhagen to report on the working of the Poor Relief system in force there; and that, on his way, there he should pay a visit to the Orphans' Department in Berlin; and on his way home, to a Hungarian Children's Dépôt, and a Vienna old-age home. I would suggest also that he should go to Elberfeld, were it not that the experience of Berlin where an attempt was made some years ago to give the Elberfeld relief system a trial proves conclusively that that system cannot be worked successfully in very large towns.

EDITH SELLERS.

Sudbury, Harrow.

APPENDIX No. LXXXII.—(A.)

Handed in by Miss Edith Sellers.

POOR RELIEF ADMINISTRATION IN DENMARK.

In Denmark there are two kinds of Poor Relief, old-age relief, which is reserved exclusively for the aged, deserving poor, and pauper relief; and the administration of the one kind as of the other throughout the kingdom, excepting in Copenhagen, is vested in the local authorities, i.e., in rural districts in a committee of the Communal Council, and in towns in a committee of the Municipal Council. These committees, each of which is under the chairmanship of the Burgomaster, correspond roughly, so far as their functions are concerned, to English Boards of Guardians. Although in theory the responsibility for the relief of the poor rests not on them, but on the council of which they form part, and which provides them with the money they spend, they are the local Poor Law authorities; and in no other country, with the exception of Switzerland, do these authorities wield so much power over those whom they relieve as in Denmark. All applications for relief must be made to them, and it is they who decide whether the relief shall, or shall not, be granted. They must, it is true, grant relief to all who require it; on that point Danish law is explicit; but in the case of pauper relief—not old-age relief—they are free to determine the form it shall assume and to attach to it what conditions they choose, subject to the approval, of course of their higher authority, the County Council. Nor is this all. "In order that the burden entailed by the universal right to support shall not become altogether too heavy to be borne, the law secures to them, i.e., the Poor Law authorities, the right to exercise very great power over all who receive support." A man who accepts relief forfeits not only his right to vote, but his right to get married, or to do what he likes either with himself or his time. The authorities decide where he shall live, whether in the workhouse or outside, decide too how he shall live, how he shall demean himself towards his wife and children, and how much work he must do. If he fails to do what

they give him to do, or disobeys them in any way, they can send him to a penal workhouse. So long as he is a pauper, in fact, he is their bondsman; but infinite precautions are taken to prevent anyone who deserves a better fate ever becoming a pauper owing to misfortune, temporary distress, illness, or accident.

It is only over the paupers that the authorities wield this great power, it must be noted; they have no right to interfere with the recipients of old-age relief, and are expressly forbidden to send them to the workhouse.

If on the one hand the local Poor Law authorities have more power in Denmark than elsewhere, on the other, more precautions are taken to guard against their misusing their power. In rural districts they are under the close surveillance of their Amtraad, or County Council, which consists of from seven to thirteen members, the majority by one of whom are elected by the communal councils, and the minority, by the landowners. The chairman of the County Council, who is a State-appointed, State-paid official, is the higher authority to whom all appeals against the decisions of the local authorities must be made. Any ratepayer who considers that these local authorities are wasting the money yielded by the communal rates, may appeal to him, as the representative of the County Council, to restrain them; and any pauper who has a grievance against them—to whom they have refused relief or whom they are detaining in the workhouse against his will—may appeal to him for redress. And the chairman's decision is binding; the local authorities must accept it, unless they choose to appeal against it to the Minister of the Interior.

Then the chairman audits the accounts of all the local authorities in his county; and, through a committee of his council, watches over and controls the working of their institutions. No Poor Law institution can be used until it has been certified by the County Council of the

APPENDIX No. LXXXII. (A).—*Continued.*

county in which it stands ; nor can any rules or regulations be in force there, until they have received the council's sanction. Thus the County Council is able to determine in a great measure the treatment of the poor throughout the county, and to prevent the local authorities playing havoc either with the interests of the ratepayers or those of the poor.

In provincial towns the local Poor Law authorities are under the supervision of the Minister of the Interior, who stands to them in the same relation as the chairman of the County Council stands to the local authorities in rural districts. He is for towns the higher authority, and for towns and rural districts alike, the supreme authority, in all that relates to the administration of poor relief.

In Copenhagen the administration of Poor Relief is entirely in the hands of paid officials, highly trained experts for the most part. This administration, as well as that of old-age relief and the control of all the public charities and charitable institutions in the city, is vested in a department presided over by the 3rd section Burgomaster who is appointed to his office by the Municipal Council, subject to the veto of the King, and holds office practically for life ; for, although the Council may dismiss him, if they do so without the consent of the King, they must continue to pay his salary. This Burgomaster is directly responsible to the Municipal Council, as the representatives of the ratepayers, and to the City President, as the representative of the State, for the right-doing of the work of his department. He is the caretaker of the poor of all degrees ; all who are in need of relief must apply to him—through his deputies of course ; and he is answerable alike to the town and to the State for the measure meted out to them.

For Poor Law purposes the city is now divided into fifteen districts ; and these fifteen districts are arranged in three groups, each group containing five districts. A district is under the care of a district superintendent, and a group

is under that of a group inspector. Both the superintendents and the group inspectors are specially trained for their work, and devote to it the whole of their time. A superintendent is responsible to his group inspector, and through him to the Burgomaster, for the administration of the relief granted in his own district. He and his assistant officials are in close touch with the poor of this district ; they go about among them in much the same way as the Charity Organisation Society's officials go about among the poor in London, investigating the causes of poverty as well as relieving distress. As they act in concert with the police, they know the past histories of the people with whom they have to deal ; they know, too, the lives they lead and the amount of their earnings. Thus it is difficult for even professional beggars to impose on them ; and when they help they can adapt what they give to the real necessities of the case. A district superintendent has nothing whatever to do with either old-age relief or the public charities ; it is only pauper relief that he distributes. His work, therefore, lies for the most part among the lazy, the thriftless, and the worthless ; and when he comes across any of the respectable poor in need, instead of relieving them himself, he places them under the care of the special officials whose duty it is to look after them.

A group inspector is directly responsible to the Burgomaster for the Poor Law administration of the five districts that form his group. He watches over the superintendents, sees that they do their work properly, and revises their accounts. At the same time he is the chief of the special bureau that administers the old-age relief law in these five districts. It is to him that all claims for this form of relief must be sent ; and it is he who decides primarily whether they are, or are not, admissible. The three group inspectors are the special guardians of all the respectable aged poor in the city, just as the fifteen district superintendents are the guardians of all the paupers.

APPENDIX No. LXXXII. (B.)

Handed in by Miss Edith Sellers.

"POOR RELIEF IN BERLIN."

From the "Contemporary Review" for December, 1905.

One reason why the system of Poor Relief administration in force in Berlin is fraught with interest for us, as a nation, is that it differs fundamentally from the system in force in London. Berlin, it is true, has its Poor Commissioners just as London has its Poor Law Guardians ; but, although both Commissioners and Guardians are honorary officials, they have not much else in common. In London the Guardians are the Poor Law authorities : it is they who decide what shall be done for the poor and who superintend the doing of it ; they are the controllers of the administration of relief, the actual work of relieving the destitute and investigating the causes of their destitution being in the hands of paid officials. The guardians play the master, in fact, and carry the purse, the paid officials being their servants. In Berlin it is otherwise. There it is the paid officials who control the honorary, not the honorary who control the paid ; there the paid official does, in part at any rate, the work done here by the Guardian ; while the Poor Commissioner does the work done here by the paid official—he sifts and sorts the poverty-stricken and deals out among them food and clothing, or the means wherewith to obtain these things.

* * * * *

Berlin is divided into 326 districts, and in each district a list is kept of the ratepayers living there, who are liable to be called upon to act as the town's honorary officials. Men of all classes are on this list, they work with their hands, they who work with their heads, and they who work not at all ; for every ratepayer, no matter how rich or how poor, may by law be summoned to join the Municipality's honorary staff, as the town has a legal claim on the services of all its citizens. There would be no need for a list at all, therefore, were it not that Berlin, being alive to the fact that the services of some of its citizens are better worth having than those of others, chooses to discriminate among them with a view to

securing the best. A man must be at any rate fairly respectable and law-abiding for his name to appear in the district list, although, on the other hand, he may be as democratic as he chooses, or as reactionary. Whether it does or does not appear there, however, depend neither on his own wishes nor yet on his own convenience, but solely on whether, in the estimation of the community, as represented by the Municipality and its officials, he is or is not capable of rendering useful service to the town.

Municipal Councillors are the only honorary officials in Berlin who are elected directly by the ratepayers ; all the rest are appointed to their various offices by these Councillors, who select them from among the persons whose names are on the district lists. Thus Poor Commissioners, instead of being chosen, as English guardians are, by the ratepayers in response to their own request, are nominated by the Municipal Council without any regard whatever even to their protests. No matter how much they may dislike the work of a Commissioner, or how difficult it may be for them to spare the time in which to do it, they must, the law ordains, accept the office when it is given to them, unless they can prove that they are unable to fulfil the duties it entails owing to physical weakness, or frequent absence from the city on business. A man who already holds an honorary office cannot, however, be nominated Poor Commissioner against his will, nor can any paid functionary of the town or State. The appointment is for six years. Still a Commissioner may, if he chooses, resign office when he has served for three years.

Although the Municipal council has the right to appoint practically anyone whom it chooses as Poor Commissioner, it cannot, of course, compel him to act ; for after all a horse may be taken to the water, but a horse cannot be forced to drink. Still, if he refuses to act, it can and does punish him by inflicting on him social penalties as well

APPENDIX No. LXXXII (B).—*Continued.*

as pecuniary loss. Whoever, when nominated as Commissioner, refuses to act without legitimate excuse, forfeits certain of his rights as a citizen. During the six years he ought to hold office he cannot vote at any election nor take any part whatever in public affairs; and he must pay higher rates than his fellows, higher by from one-eighth to one-fourth. In other ways, too, things are made uncomfortable for him; for he is looked upon as a bad citizen, one who shirks the duty he owes to his town; and in Berlin society and the authorities are at one in taking care not to encourage bad citizenship by showing to it undue toleration. Thus, although many men try to evade acting as Poor Commissioners, very few actually refuse to act.

As the Commissioners are nominated by the Municipal council, they are, of course, subordinate to it; not on them, therefore, but on the council, as the direct representative of the ratepayers, rests primarily the responsibility for the relief of the poor, as for the management of all the business of the town. This council, however, as a council, has nothing whatever to do with the administration of relief, nor even with the control of the administration, as it delegates to another council, the Magistrat, its duties as an executive body together with its authority as a controlling body. The Magistrat is, in reality, the executive committee of the Municipal Council, although its members are not themselves members of that council; and the chief business of the council is to appoint the members of the committee, *i.e.*, the Magistrat, to provide them with the money wherewith to do the work it entrusts to them, to provide them also with subordinate honorary officials—Poor Commissioners among others—to help them to do it, and to keep watch that the money is not wasted and the work is well done. It contents itself, in fact, with safeguarding the interests of the ratepayers, and leaves to the Magistrat the task of carrying on the business of the town.

The Magistrat consists of thirty-four members—*Stadträthe* is the name they bear—seventeen of whom are paid and hold office for twelve years, while seventeen are unpaid and hold office for six years. Every member, however, whether paid or unpaid, is an expert in some branch of Municipal work, and as such is attached to the department most concerned with that branch. Practically the unpaid *Stadträthe* are the expert advisers of the various departments, and the paid *Stadträthe* are the managing directors. Every department is under the control of a paid *Stadtrath*, who is directly responsible for the work it does to the chairman of the Magistrat, the chief Burgomaster, himself a paid official, who, in his turn, is responsible for the work of all the departments on the one hand to the Municipal council, as the representative of the town, and on the other to the City President, as the representative of the State.

Although the responsibility for the work of each department rests on the *Stadtrath* who is at its head, the work itself is done under the direction and supervision, of a Board of managers, of which he is chairman. In the case of the Poor Law Department this board is known as the *Armen-direktion* or Poor Board. It consists of three paid and six unpaid *Stadträthe*, thirteen other paid officials, Magistrats-assessors, etc., eighteen Municipal Councillors and ten *Bürger's* Deputies.

The Municipal councillors and the Deputies, who are also honorary officials, merely attend the monthly meetings of the Board to receive reports as to what it is doing. It is by the other members that the actual work of the department is done, that is by the *Stadträthe* and their paid assistants, with the help, of course, of a staff of subordinate officials. It is these members who, for executive purposes, constitute the *Armen-direktion*; and they are, one and all, trained officials as well as experts in all that concerns the poor.

The *Armen-direktion* is the Poor Law authority for the whole of Berlin; it has full control of the administration of relief in every part of the city. Each district has its Poor Commission, but all the Commissioners are under the immediate surveillance of the *Direktion*. It stands to them in the same relation as that in which the Local Government Board stands to Guardians here, but with this all-important difference, that whereas the Local Government Board can practically only restrain Guardians from acting, it can both restrain Commissioners from acting and force

them to act. Thus it is able to secure uniformity of treatment for the poor throughout the city.

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The *Direktion* is able also to secure comparative uniformity of expenditure on the part of the various Poor Commissions, as they are dependent on it for the money they spend. In Berlin, instead of each district supporting its own poor, the town as a whole supports all the poor, the necessary money being obtained from the yield of the Municipal rates. The burden being thus a burden on the whole community, the control of the expenditure it entails is vested, of course, in the central authority—*i.e.*, in the *Armen-direktion* acting for the Municipal council. And the control is certainly effective. The *Direktion* fixes for each district the minimum amount required there for the relief of the poor; and at the beginning of every month this is sent to the chairman of the Poor Commission, who, at the end of the month, must render an exact account, signed by all his colleagues, of how he has spent it. If, as almost always happens, he spends more than is sent to him, the *Direktion* makes good the deficit, but not until it has sifted his accounts and decided that the extra expenditure was necessary.

Then not only does the *Direktion* watch over and control the administration of the whole Poor-Relief system, but it actually administers it for the greater part; for it keeps in its own hands the relief of all children, excepting those who are relieved together with their parents, and the relief of all the indoor poor. It is only the outdoor poor—*i.e.*, the recipients of and applicants for out-relief, whom it leaves to be dealt with by the Commissioners.

The *Armen-direktion* is divided into three Boards, the General, the Workhouse and Refuge, and the Orphans'. The Orphans' Board, although under the same control as the other two, is kept quite apart from them, being housed in a separate building, and having its own staff of paid and honorary officials. The reason for this arrangement is that Berlin does not regard the children it supports as paupers, and being determined that they shall be under no temptation to develop into paupers, it takes care that they are not associated in any way with paupers or pauper officials, just as it takes care that they are not associated with criminals or jailers. No starving little street urchin is ever sent to the workhouse or any other pauper resort in Berlin; nor is any child who is accused of crime, or who is even caught red-handed, ever sent to prison. They and all their youthful kith and kin are taken at once, when they are found, to the Orphans' *Dépôt*, in *Alte Jakobstrasse*, where they are handed over to the safe-keeping of its director, the Orphans' Father, who, as the personal representative of the Orphans' Board, is responsible for the well-being of every orphan the town supports; that is, of all the children it supports, excepting those who are with their own relatives. For in Berlin it is not only the children who are motherless or fatherless who rank as orphans; but all those whose parents are in prison, or who are suffering from chronic disease and therefore cannot maintain them; or whose parents neglect them, ill-treat them, set them a bad example, or have deserted them. All these children are under the guardianship of the Orphans' Board, as by German law their parents forfeit their rights over them, although they remain responsible for their maintenance.

The Berliners have many institutions of which they are proud, but of none of them are they so proud, or with such good reason, as of the Orphans' *Dépôt*, the refuge they provide for their destitute children. It is a wonderful place, a perfect model of skilful organisation combined with careful management; and the good that is done there is untold. Its doors stand open night and day so that any child whom misfortune befalls, or to whom wrong is done, may go there at once. Young apprentices who are ill-treated by their masters, little maids-of-all-work who are turned adrift by their mistresses, wend their way instinctively to the *Dépôt*. If the police pick up a stray baby, or find one whose "father" is starving it, they transport it there at once; just as they transport there the lost children they meet with, the homeless and friendless. But although all the town's orphans go to the *Dépôt*, they none of them go to stay, they are there only as sojourners, just waiting until the director decides what can best be done with them. The average length of a visit is only six days, and no visit can last longer than six months.

APPENDIX No. LXXXII (B).—*Continued.*

The Dépôt is a huge place, for not only is it the general receiving house for all the destitute children in Berlin, and a refuge for them later in life, but it is the headquarters of the Orphans' Board. The whole administration of the Poor Law, indeed, so far as it concerns children, is carried on under its roof, is carried on, too, in all that regards personal relations with the children, through one man, the Dépôt director, acting of course as the representative of the Board, and under its close supervision. It is the director who decides what shall be done with every child who enters the Dépôt to ensure his developing, so far as in him, lies, into a useful, self-supporting citizen. Not only does he find homes for all these children, but, unless the home be an institution, he watches over them in these homes, sees that they are well fed, well clothed, and properly cared for; and brings his personal influence to bear on them at every turn. He actually does, in fact, what, were it not that he does it, one would say no man could do, for he is as a father to all Berlin's orphans, and their name is of course legion.

The Dépôt director has many officials both honorary and paid to help him in his work. Every orphan, indeed, is under the care of no fewer than three honorary officials, a Waisenrath, a Pflegerin and a Vormund. When the Municipal Council appoints Poor Commissioners to help to take care of the adult poor, it appoints also Waisenrathen, or orphans' councillors, to help to take care of the children. There are three or more councillors in every district, and their business is to watch over all the children there, excepting those who are living with their parents. They are the agents through whom the Orphans' Board pay the foster-mothers, and they are required to see the boarded-out children and report on them every month. The Pflegerinnen are the lady-assistants of the councillors and act as their deputies. The Vormünder, who are appointed not by the Municipal Council but by the legal authorities, on the recommendation of the Councillors, are the children's guardians before the law. A Vormund has only one child under his care, and he is expected to interest himself personally in all his concerns. Then every child who is boarded out elsewhere than in Berlin is given a special guardian who lives near his home, and who also has, as a rule, a lady-assistant. All these honorary officials act under the Orphans' Board and in co-operation with the Dépôt director. There is also a paid inspector who spends all his time going round among the orphans to see that they are being properly educated and are given the chance of cultivating any talent they may have. A foster-mother who allows a child to remain away from school unnecessarily for a single day, forfeits her month's allowance; and a master who has an orphan apprentice, and does not send him to a night school, is liable to punishment.

I once spent a morning with the director at the Dépôt when I was amazed at the amount of work he did, and the ease with which he did it, thanks to the lines on which the place is organised. The receiving house part of the building is divided into wards: there are separate wards for babies, for young children, for boys and for girls—both for those who have been respectably brought up and for those who have "just growned." Then there are hospital wards, wards for convalescents, and wards that are reserved for the little criminals whom the State hands over to the Dépôt. There are school wards, too; for however short be the time a child is at the Dépôt he has regular lessons every day in reading and writing, incidentally, too, in good manners and the importance of being truthful and honest. In another part of the building there is a Housewifery School, where the elder girls who are boarded-out in Berlin go every morning to learn how to cook, clean and wash, that they may become trained servants. Here also is a Servants' Home where these girls may go later if out of place, or in need of rest. All the town's orphans, boys and girls alike, who are earning their living in Berlin, are encouraged to spend their Sunday evenings at the Dépôt.

A child who enters the Dépôt is seen at once by two officials, a doctor and an expert in dealing with the young. It is then lodged in the ward most suitable for it, where it is kept under close observation until the director decides what can best be done with it. If it is found to be free from marked physical, mental or moral defect, it is boarded out at once, provided it be a girl; for Berlin boards out all its normal girls until they are sixteen. Its

normal boys it boards out only if they are under six, otherwise it sends them to Rummelsburg, a school organised on the cottage-home system. Still the boys who are once boarded out are left with their foster-parents, if all goes well, until they are fifteen, when they are apprenticed. The boys, it must be noted, are turned out into the world a full year earlier than the girls.

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Great as are the advantages of the Berlin system in dealing with children sound in body and mind, they are infinitely greater in dealing with the feeble and diseased. As all the town's orphans are under one administration, the authorities there are not tempted, as our Poor Law Guardians are, to club together unsuitable cases, the half-witted with the whole-witted, or even the no-witted at all, to the detriment of the whole community. They can sift, and sort, and classify the afflicted according to their individual defects; and thus are able to secure for them, one and all, the treatment necessary to enable them to turn to good account any talent they may have; and they most of them have a talent of some sort in their fingers, if not in their heads.

If a child at the Dépôt seems below the average in intelligence, he is carefully watched, and if it is found that he is merely stupid, he is boarded out near some school where there are "special classes." In a special class there are never more than twelve children, and these work with their heads only two hours a day, devoting the rest of their school time to learning how to use their hands. If it is found, however, that he is too deficient mentally to benefit even by the simple lessons given in a special class, he is sent to Dalldorf, the colony the town provides for its feeble-minded children. There any little brain power he may have is carefully cultivated, while infinite trouble is taken to render him dexterous enough to earn his own living by the work of his hands, without much help from his head. If he is epileptic he is sent to the town's colony for epileptic children, where experts at once set to work to battle against his disease. Meanwhile he is carefully educated and fitted to earn his own living. The result is that hundreds of the very sort of children, who in England grow up to be a curse to themselves and all around them, a heavy burden on the ratepayers to boot, are in Berlin put in the way of leading fairly happy useful lives, and are rendered self-supporting.

Then, if the child's defect is not mental, but physical, he is taken in hand by doctors without a moment's delay. If he shows signs of consumption he is sent to a sanatorium. If he is deaf and dumb, or blind, he is boarded out in Berlin, and is educated at the Deaf and Dumb—or the Blind—Institute, where a Housewifery School student, who lives near him, takes him every morning on her way to the Dépôt. It is the same if he has lost a limb, or is deformed; some arrangement is always made by which a good education is secured for him, and such technical training as fits him to earn at least the wherewithal to pay for board and lodging.

The "problematische" children, they whom the law classes as demoralised or criminal, are under observation day and night while at the Dépôt; and a careful study is made of them with a view to finding out how far their depravity is due to their past circumstances. If their expert observers decide that they have no innate evil propensities, they are boarded out in country districts with foster parents who can be trusted to treat them kindly, while keeping a sharp watch on them. They go to the ordinary Volksschule, where they are, although neither they nor their companions know it, under the close surveillance of the teachers. A Dépôt inspector visits them frequently, and at the first sign of back-sliding on their part, transfers them to one of the reformatories the Orphans' Board has organised for such of its children as seem to turn from good to evil by instinct.

The Orphans' Board certainly does its work well; all that it can do it tries to do to keep its charges from harm and fit them to fight their own battles. And in the overwhelming majority of cases it succeeds; a finer set of children, mentally and physically, than the orphans of Berlin it would be hard to find, or a set with a better chance of developing into useful citizens. There is no touch of the pauper about them; on the contrary, they take their places side by side with their fellows on terms of perfect equality, when the time comes for them to go

APPENDIX No. LXXXII (B).—*Continued.*

out into the world; and it is an almost unheard-of thing for one of them to be found later in life in a workhouse.

Then not only does the board do its work well, but it does it most economically; it is a perfect adept, indeed, in the art of making one penny do the work of two. In addition to the multitude of young apprentices and servant maids over whom it keeps watch, it had in the year 1903-4, directly under its care 7,958 boys and girls. Yet its full expenditure was only £78,413, and of this sum £11,031 was refunded to it, partly by the relatives of its charges, and partly by the State, which pays half the expenses of the criminal children. Thus the cost to the town of its orphans was only £67,382. If London could obtain as good a return for the money it spends on its destitute children as Berlin obtains for this £67,382, it would be able, I am inclined to think, to reduce this branch of its expenditure by more than one-half, and yet provide for its little *protégés* better than it provides for them now.

If the whole administration worked as well as this Orphans' Board, Berlin would be a model for all Europe, so far as its treatment of the poor is concerned; but this, unfortunately, is by no means the case, as the results prove. For strangely enough, in this town where the youthful section of the destitute are dealt with both so wisely and so generously, another section of them are dealt with unwisely, and another again ungenerously. The blame for this state of things does not, however, rest on the Workhouse and Refuge Board; it does its work both economically and well.

Berlin has only one workhouse,* and this, although under the management of the Poor Law Authorities and paid for out of the grant for the poor, is in reality a prison. Its inmates are not sent there by the Armen-direktion, but are taken there by the police, and must stay there from six months to two years as the judge who condemns them may decide. Any man found wandering about without visible means of support may be sent to the workhouse; and so may any man found begging or allowing those dependent on him to beg, if during the previous two years he has been convicted of the same offence more than once. This punishment is also meted out to men who, owing to laziness, drunkenness, or gambling, instead of maintaining their families, leave them to be maintained by the authorities; or who, being without work refuse to do the work given them by the authorities; or who, within a given time of their arrival in Berlin, fail to provide themselves with shelter. On April 1st, 1903, there were 1,479 men at the workhouse, and in the course of the following year 2,036 more were sent there—1,039 for begging and 703 for vagrancy. 1,263 out of the 2,036 had previously been in prison; and 1,124 in the workhouse—343 of these latter, indeed, had not been out of the workhouse a year when they returned. This is a fairly strong proof that as a reformatory the place is a failure, a fact, however, that does not prevent its being an extremely useful institution.

A worse-looking gang than the men at Rummelsburg I have never seen—even the better among them have sturdy beggar stamped on their faces. The workhouse is therefore, well worth far more than it costs, if for nothing but that it provides a place where these men can be kept from preying on their fellows and forced to work. And it does not cost much, only 9d. per head a day, administration and everything else included.

Attached to the workhouse is a hospice where some 600 decrepit old men and women, belonging for the most part to the disreputable class, are housed. This, too, is a useful institution, in that it keeps together all in one place persons who, wherever they are, demoralise and degrade those around them.

The Armen-direktion, in dealing with vagrants, distinguishes between work-seekers and work-shirkers: the latter it regards as criminals to be punished, the former as persons to be helped. The refuge it has organised for the benefit of the genuine work-seeker is a casual ward worked on philanthropic lines. Any respectable man may, if destitute, go there for five days, and be provided every day with a bed, breakfast and supper, if he devotes his time to seeking work. If he shows a lack of zeal in his search, however, if instead of going where the labour bureau tells him there is most chance of work

being found, he loiters about in the streets, he is handed over to the police; and the same fate befalls him if he presents himself at the refuge a second time within three months. Part of the refuge is reserved as a home for married men, who may leave their wives and children there while they themselves go off in search of work. Each family has a separate room, and there is a school attached to the block; as the Board would shudder at the thought of allowing children to go untaught even for a day. 1,316 families stayed in the refuge home in 1902-03, and no fewer than 586,863 men and women in the refuge itself.

Whereas the Orphans' Board and the Workhouse and Refuge Board have each clearly defined duties to fulfil, and actually do the work for which they are responsible, the General Board, which is popularly known as the Armen-direktion, fulfils so many duties that it is almost impossible to define them; and what is still more trying, does its work through others for the most part. On this Board rests the responsibility for the administration of out-relief, although it is the Poor Commissioners who administer the relief; and one of its chief functions is to supervise and control the Commissioners in their work. Not only does it provide them with money to distribute among the poor, but with soup tickets, fuel, clothes and even potato fields, *i.e.*, allotments, to let out gratis. Through a council of doctors it controls the sick relief administration, and through two deputations and a curatorium, manages five hospitals and colonies for epileptics, lunatics and the feeble-minded. If a man in Berlin is too ill to be properly treated in his own home, he is transported at once to one of the town's hospitals, if there is a vacant bed; if not, to a private hospital where the Armen-direktion pays for him. If it is a case covered by one of the insurance laws, it recovers what it has spent from the insurance bureau; otherwise it tries to recover it, by small weekly instalments, from the man himself or his responsible relatives. Nor is it only the cost of sick relief that it tries to recover. Every year it saves Berlin thousands of pounds by hunting up the responsible relatives of those who receive relief—brothers and sisters, as well as parents and children—and forcing them to contribute to its cost.

Then the Direktion manages a sort of pawnbroking business for the benefit of the respectable poor; it lends them money, and even makes them presents out of its charity fund, but only if they have had no pauper relief for at least two years. It also advances the money wherewith to pay a month's rent sometimes to families leaving the Refuge; and it not only gives away clothes, but lends out cooking utensils and furniture. There is no limit indeed to its functions, for its business is to help the poor, and the ways of helping the poor are as the sands on the seashore. And it does its work admirably on the whole, that part of it at least in which it acts as administrator. Where it fails is when it acts as controller of the administration of others; and this being the case it may fairly claim, perhaps, that the fault lies with these others. Be this as it may, the one section of the relief system which does not yield satisfactory results is the out-relief section which is worked by the Poor Commissioners, under the supervision of the Direktion.

There are no fewer than 357 Poor Commissions in Berlin, each consisting of from six to twenty appointed members and certain ex-officio members, *viz.*, the district Municipal Councillors, Municipal overseer, medical officer and clergyman, and the chairman of the local Anti-Pauperisation Society. Until quite recently all the Commissioners were men, and even now, out of some 4,000, only thirty are women.

* * * * *

The members of each Commission are required to elect a chairman and a vice-chairman. If, however, they cannot induce anyone to act as chairman—and this sometimes happens—the Direktion steps in and appoints one. The office of chairman is not an enviable one; whoever accepts it must be prepared to devote nearly two hours a day to his work, and to face much worry. He, as the representative of the Commission, which meets only once a month, has all the poor in the district under his care. At a fixed hour every day he must be at his bureau, as all applications for relief must be made to him personally. If he grants relief, he must prove to his colleagues later

* *Vide* Appendix No. LXXXII. (D).

APPENDIX No. LXXXII. (B).—*Continued.*

that it was needed ; if he refuses to grant it, he must justify his refusal to the Armendirektion ; as every applicant to whom relief is refused has the right of appeal to the Direktion. If a case of destitution is reported to him, he must, at once, either go himself or send one of his colleagues to investigate it ; and if help is needed he must provide it. If what he provides costs more than 6s. he must obtain the sanction of one of his colleagues before he gives it ; and he can grant no permanent relief without the sanction of the whole commission.

As a rule the chairman does not himself investigate cases of distress, but deposes his colleagues to investigate them for him. It is his colleagues, too, who watch over the recipients of relief to see that they lead orderly lives, and do not waste what is given them. Out-relief is supposed to be given only to the fairly respectable, and the Armendirektion sends round from time to time a Paupers' Black List, *i.e.*, a list of the persons who are unworthy of help. If a Black Lister applies for relief he may be handed over to the police. Special Commissioners are told off to watch over the paupers who have children to see that they bring them up properly and send them regularly to school. Parents who fail in their duty in this respect speedily forfeit their relief.

Even for the work done by his colleagues the chairman of the Commission is responsible ; he must see that it is done. He cannot absent himself from his office, even for a day, without arranging with the vice-chairman to be there in his place ; as otherwise, if things go wrong, any expense entailed by setting them right would fall on him. Then it is one of his duties to keep down the cost of relief in his district by persuading those who live there to subscribe to charities ; and he is expected to act in co-operation with the local philanthropic societies, especially with the Anti-Pauperisation Society. And all this he has to do gratis, besides keeping the Commission's accounts and writing the diaries of the persons it supports. The rent of his office is paid for him, it is true ; what account books he needs are given to him ; and a policeman is placed at his service to deliver for him his official notices, etc. ; but any other expense he may incur he must defray out of his own pocket.

* * * * *

One day I accompanied the chairman of one of the commissions when he went to pay the permanent list paupers their allowances. We found about 150 men, women and children waiting for us ; and a motley crowd they were. One half of them, I feel sure, would have received no relief at all in England ; while of the rest the majority would have been packed off straight to the workhouse. The blind, the halt, the maimed, were there of course ; lazy ne'er-do-wells of every type mingled with the unfortunate ; decent old folk, standing side by side with folk whom it would be straining charity to dub "shady." And in the midst of them all were children there in the place of their parents. Some of the old men and women were quite pitiable objects ; they seemed half-starved and most wretched and neglected. Little wonder either ; for the town, beyond granting them out-relief, does nothing for them at all, just leaving them to fend for themselves, and that always spells misery. In Berlin there are no refuges to which the poor have the right to betake themselves when too old to work.* The few old age homes there are reserved practically for the afflicted, excepting the one that is reserved for the disreputable ; and even were it otherwise, there is not room in them for a tithe of those who ought to be there.

Alike from the humanitarian and the economic point of view, the administration of out-relief in Berlin is far from satisfactory ; at least so it seemed to me when I was there ; and if the blame for this rests on the Poor Commissioners, it rests also, and in a still greater degree, on the system. The chairmen of these Commissions are expected to do more than the average honorary official can, or will do ; and the result is that much of the sifting and sorting of the poverty-stricken is done only in a

perfunctory fashion. Besides, the Commissions themselves have great difficulties to contend against, it must be remembered, not only because there is nowhere where the more respectable of their old pensioners, who are alone in the world, can be sent ; but also because there is nowhere where the average applicant for relief can be put to the test, as it were. Every year out-relief is granted to hundreds of men and women for no other reason than that they have children ; and there is no institution to which they, together with their children, can be sent for longer than a fortnight.

During the year 1903-4 there were on an average 34,370 men and women, together with 11,060 children, on the permanent out-relief list, in addition to the host in receipt of temporary relief. The population of Berlin at that time, it must be noted, was only 1,917,609. The allowances for the adults ranged in amount from 9d. a week to 7s. 6d. ; and for the children from 9d. to 6s. 3d. Still, although out-relief is administered on wasteful lines the relief system as a whole is administered economically. The full expenditure on the poor in 1903-4, including the expenditure on the Orphans' Depot, the workhouse, hospitals, colonies, etc., was £1,128,949 ; and of this sum no less than £534,870 went in out-relief and its administration. The Armendirektion succeeded in recovering £189,074 of the money it spent. Thus the cost to the town of its poor was £939,875—that is, 9s. 9½d. per head of the population, or 5s. 10½d. less than in London that same year.

It must not be forgotten, however, that throughout Germany there is in force an Old-Age Pension Law, as well as an Invalidity Law ; but if these laws were passed with a view to reducing either the number of paupers, or the expense they entail, in Berlin, they have certainly failed. In 1889, the year they came into force, there were 18,668 men and women on the permanent relief list ; by 1899 the number had increased to 27,771 ; and by 1904, as we have seen, to 34,370. Meanwhile the population had increased from 1,315,412 to 1,917,609. In 1885 the expenditure on poor relief was £405,000 ; by 1899 it had risen to £718,679 ; and by 1903-4 to £939,875. The truth of the matter is that the Old-Age Pension Law is practically a dead letter in Berlin, for no one can claim a pension until he is seventy, and there hardly one working man in a thousand lives to be seventy. At the end of 1904 there were only 2,530 old-age pensioners in the town. As for the invalidity allowances, they are so small that in the great majority of cases they have to be supplemented by pauper relief.

So far as the young are concerned, Berlin has good reason to be proud of its poor-relief administration, for in no other city are destitute children quite so well cared for. So far as the diseased are concerned, too, it has good reason to be proud of it ; for the poor who are ill are cared for there certainly more promptly than elsewhere, if not more humanely. Then the town may fairly claim that if its administrators have failed to devise an ideal system of dealing with vagrants and loafers, they have at least succeeded in devising one that is better—less costly and more just—than the system in force in London. The really worthless among its paupers are at any rate kept on short commons and forced to work. There are many useful lessons in Poor Relief administration to be learnt at the Rummelsburg workhouse, as well as at the colonies for epileptics, etc., and the orphans' Depot.

On the other hand, Berlin cannot plume itself on the way in which its feckless poor are treated ; and among the poor the feckless are always in the majority. The fashion in which its Commissioners lavish doles around is a source of wholesale demoralisation : it pauperises irredeemably men and women alike. As for the way in which the more worthy of its aged poor are treated, that ought to be a subject of heart-searching to the city, for they are certainly neglected most woefully. Nowhere, surely, is the worn-out worker made to realise quite so painfully as in Berlin, that he is a mere cumberer of the ground, a burden on his fellows.

* *Vide* Appendix No. LXXXII. (D).

APPENDIX No. LXXXII. (C.)

Handed in by Miss Edith Sellers.

POOR RELIEF ADMINISTRATION IN VIENNA.

In Vienna the responsibility for the relief of the poor rests on the Gemeinderath, or Municipal Council, the members of which are elected directly by the rate-payers. The Burgomaster, as their representative, is responsible on the one hand to the ratepayers, and on the other to the Statthalter, and through him to the Minister of the Interior, for the whole poor relief administration; and if mistakes are made, is it he who is called to account. Practically, however, the Municipal Council, as a council, has nothing whatever to do with the administration of Poor Relief; as its members delegate both their duties as an executive body, and their authority as a controlling body, to their executive committee, the Stadtrath, of which the Burgomaster is the chairman. This committee consists of twenty-nine members—including the chairman, thirty—of the Municipal Council, who are appointed by their fellow members to direct and control the business of the town. Each member of the Stadtrath receives a salary of 3,000 kronas a year, and is responsible personally to the Municipal Council for some part of this business; while the members are responsible collectively for the whole of it. The Stadtrath have under their surveillance and control the Magistrat, *i.e.*, the paid officials, experts for the most part, who together with certain honorary officials, actually carry on the business of the town. The Magistrat, a regularly organised department, is divided into as many sections as this business has branches, and each section carries on one branch under the surveillance of the members of the Stadtrath for this branch. One of these sections, the XI., is charged with the administration of the relief of the poor, so far as it is not administered by honorary officials; while another, the XII., is charged within the same limits with the administration of the relief of the orphans. For Vienna, realising the importance of keeping children free from pauperising associations, does not allow the orphans it supports to be under the care of the same section as the adult poor.

The honorary officials who share with the Magistrat officials the actual work of relieving the poor, are the members of the Armeninstitute, or Boards of Guardians. Vienna is divided into twenty-one districts, and each district has at least one Armeninstitut, the members of which are elected not directly by the rate-payers, but by the District Representatives, that is members of the District Council, who are themselves elected by the district rate-payers to manage for them their purely local affairs. Before an election, the chairman of the existing Institut draws up a list of the persons who are willing to act as Guardians, and who possess the necessary qualifications for acting, *i.e.*, are thirty or more years old, of good repute, ratepayers and residents in the district. This he sends to the District Representatives who elect from among them a certain number, proportionate to the size of the district, to act as Guardians of the poor, a certain number also to act as Guardians of the orphans. The Guardians of the poor must be men, but the Guardians of the orphans may be either men or women. Last year there were 2,069 Guardians, and of these ninety were women.

No Guardian may act until his election has been confirmed by the Stadtrath; and the Stadtrath have the right at any time to deprive him of his office without assigning any reason; they have the right, too, to dissolve any Board if, in the interests of the community, such a course seems advisable. Each Board elects its own chairman, treasurer, book-keeper, and secretary; but each of these officials must be confirmed in his office by the Stadtrath before he can act. Thus the Stadtrath have full control over the election both of the members of the Board and the Board's honorary officials; and can prevent unsuitable persons from being installed in office. They cannot, however, force suitable persons to be installed in office, or to remain there when installed; and therein lies their weakness and the strength of the Boards; for the Stadtrath have to think not once but many times before refusing

to confirm an election, especially the election of a chairman, as otherwise the whole Board might resign and leave the district without any Guardians at all. There is no danger, therefore, of their using their power arbitrarily. Besides, in this matter they always act on the advice of their Magistrat officials, who are in close touch with the Guardians, and whose business it is to help, not to hinder, them as well as the Stadtrath in their work. At every meeting of a Board one of these officials is present as an expert to tender advice.

It is the Stadtrath who decide how many Guardians shall be elected for each district; and each district is divided into as many wards as it has Guardians, each Guardian being responsible for the poor living in one ward. If the district is a large one, the wards are arranged in groups containing not more than eighteen wards each. The Guardians belonging to the same group form practically a subordinate Board, as they act together in all that concerns their own division of the district, while acting with the Board in what concerns the district as a whole.

In addition to the Boards of Guardians and the Section Boards, there is another, higher, board, the Zentralrath, of which the chairmen of all the Boards of Guardians are *ex-officio* members. Certain representatives of the Poor Law paid officials are also members, as well as the chairmen of the Anti-Pauperisation Society, and other philanthropic associations. The chief function of the Zentralrath which meets at the invitation of the Burgomaster and under his presidency, is to bring about improvements in the Poor Relief system. Its members aim at securing uniformity in the administration of the Poor Law, and co-operation between the administrators of Poor Relief and those of private charity. Thus, in theory, its rôle is an extremely important one; and were it to meet fairly frequently, instead of very rarely, it would no doubt be as useful in practice as it is in theory important. Even as it is, it is a notable feature of the Vienna system. Another notable feature is the Zentral Kataster. This Kataster is practically the diary of all the poor whom Vienna supports. The name of every man, woman, or child, who, since 1900 has received relief stands recorded there, each on its own special page, together with the amount he—or she—has received, and the chief events of his life. Whoever applies for relief must fill in a form containing certain questions concerning himself; and he is under no temptation to fill it in untruthfully, as his statements can at once be tested by reference to his papers, and, if necessary, to the police. If relief is granted, this form, annotated by the Guardian for his ward, is sent to the Magistrat by whom it is entered in the Kataster. Whenever a fresh grant is made, the fact is noted. Thus the Zentral Kataster is a complete record, which can be referred to at any time, of all who are in the receipt of relief and of all they have received.

Roughly speaking the administration of indoor relief, including the administration of Poor Law institutions, is in the hands of the Magistrat, while the administration of outdoor relief is in those of the Guardians. The Guardians, however, cannot grant permanent relief without the consent of the Magistrat, and in all that they do they must act in co-operation with them, and under their surveillance; while both they and the Magistrat act under the surveillance of the Stadtrath. The Guardians have, of course, no power of levying rates. They are expected to raise a certain portion of the money they require by persuading the charitable to give it to them, and the rest is supplied to them by the financial section of the Magistrat. Every tenth day the chairman of a Board receives a certain sum wherewith to defray the cost of the relief of the poor in his district; and every tenth day he must render an account, signed by his colleagues, of what he has done with the money received on the previous tenth day. In Vienna there are no relieving officers it must be noted; the relief granted is paid either by the chairman of the Board that grants it, or his deputy. The amount of the relief a Board may grant is strictly

APPENDIX No. LXXXII. (C.)—Continued.

limited, the maximum allowance for an adult being 30 kronas a month, and for a child 36.

Each Guardian of the poor is responsible to his Board for the relief of the poor in his ward. He is expected to be personally acquainted with them all and to pay frequent visits to such of them as are in the receipt of relief. If trouble comes upon them, they have the right to turn to him, no matter whether what they need be material help or advice. All their applications for poor relief must be addressed to him, and be by him presented to the Board, or, if the case be pressing, to the chairman of the Board, who between its meetings represents it. It is for the adult poor alone, however, that he is responsible, as the children are under the care of the Orphan's Guardians whose special business it is to interest themselves personally in the town's children. They must visit them

frequently, see that they are well housed, well fed, and above all, that they are being well brought up, and sent to school regularly. If an Orphan's Guardian is not satisfied with the conditions under which his protégés live, he can insist on their being changed; and if he disapproves of the persons who have charge of them, he may remove them from their care. Not only must he keep his own Board informed concerning them, but every six months he must send a special report concerning each of them to the Magistrat, by whom it is entered in the Kataster. It is only for the children living in the district that the Guardians for the district are responsible. They have nothing to do with those boarded out in the country, or placed in institutions. These are under the care of the orphan's section of the Magistrat, who have their own official inspectors.

APPENDIX No. LXXXII. (D.)

Hanted in by Miss Edith Sellers.

ADDENDUM TO APPENDIX BY MISS EDITH SELLERS AS TO POOR RELIEF IN BERLIN.

NOTE IN REPLY TO DR. MUNSTERBERG

From the "Contemporary Review."

In the November number of the *Contemporary Review*, for 1906, Dr. Münsterberg, the President of the Berlin Poor Law Board, published a detailed criticism of an article of mine, "Poor Relief in Berlin," which appeared in the same Review eleven months before. Dr. Münsterberg is kind enough to note with satisfaction that I have "been very successful" in my endeavour to acquire an intimate knowledge of the conditions in Berlin. Everything in my paper "about the management of municipal affairs and especially about the administration of poor relief is entirely correct," he remarks; "the nature and form of the relief were likewise correctly described." He frankly admits, in fact, that upon all points but one every statement I made is perfectly accurate. The admiration I lavished on the arrangements for destitute children in Berlin was well merited, it seems; and so was the approval I expressed of the arrangements for casuals. Significantly enough, it was only when I ceased praising and ventured to blame, when I ventured to hint, in fact, that, although Berlin deals both more wisely and more generously with its children than any other town, it neglects its aged poor more woefully even than we here in London neglect ours, that, according to Dr. Münsterberg, I went astray. That I did in this actually go astray, I, however, cannot admit; I should be only too glad if I could.

I know Berlin well; I have spent months there again and again studying carefully the condition of the poor, especially the aged poor. I was writing, therefore, of what I had seen with my own eyes and heard with my own ears when I stated, in my article, to Dr. Münsterberg's evident wrath, that "the way in which the more worthy of its aged poor are treated ought to be a subject of heart-searching to the city . . . and that the fashion in which its Commissioners lavish doles around pauperises irredeemably men and women alike." When I made these statements I was fully conscious, of course, that their accuracy would probably be called in question. It was not, therefore, without due consideration that I did make them. Practically, however, I had no alternative if my report were to be a fair one; for I certainly found many signs of great misery among the aged poor in Berlin. That there must indeed necessarily be great misery among them Dr. Münsterberg himself incidentally affords strong proof; for he tells us that in 1905 there were 33,734 persons—they were all adults—in the receipt of permanent out-relief in the city; and a glance at the *Statistisches Jahrbuch* shows that the overwhelming majority of them must have been almost within hailing distance of starvation, unless indeed, they one and all had some private source of income—an absurd supposition.

5 of them received 9d. a week.

1,017	"	"	from 9d. to 1s. 6d. a week
2,090	"	"	" 1s. 6d. .. 2s. 3d. "
7,591	"	"	" 2s. 3d. .. 3s. 0d. "
6,443	"	"	" 3s. 0d. .. 3s. 9d. "
5,476	"	"	" 3s. 9d. .. 4s. 6d. "
6,750	"	"	" 4s. 6d. .. 5s. 3d. "

Out of the whole 33,734 only 4,362 received more than 5s. 3d. a week. As for the 6,065 adults who were receiving out-relief temporarily at the beginning of 1905, their grants were even smaller than those of the 33,734 who were receiving it permanently, 2s. 9d. a week being the average amount. These figures tell their own tale. Then, as to my remark that the Commissioners' dole-giving tends to pauperise, that surely is proved to the hilt by the mere fact of there being in a town of the size of Berlin, all these men and women in the receipt of out-relief—33,734 on the permanent list and 6,065 on the temporary—in addition to thousands of children. In the year 1904, 2·3 per cent. of the population were in the receipt of permanent out-relief. Yet the Old Age Pension Law, the Invalidity Law, and the Insurance against Accident Law were all in full working order.

Dr. Münsterberg takes exception to my remark that the Old Age Pension Law is practically a dead letter in Berlin; yet, according to his own statistics, there were in 1905 only 2,530 old age pensioners there out of a population of more than 2,000,000. A law that benefits only 1·2 per 1,000 inhabitants may, I think, without unfairness, be ranked as a dead letter.

He also takes exception to my statement that in Berlin hardly one working man in 1,000 lives to be seventy. The exact number of working men who actually do live to be seventy there is, of course, a moot point; still as only 1·3 per cent. of the male population of all classes reach that age, and only ·12 per cent. of the whole population male and female obtain old age pension, my statement cannot be very far out.

Curious as it may seem, it is on the strength of the fact that Berlin is now building an old age home, and has recently added to the Friedrich Wilhelm Hospital quarters for thirty-three married couples, that Dr. Münsterberg controverts my remark as to there being in Berlin no refuges to which the poor have the right to betake themselves when too old to work. As a point of fact, not only are there no refuges to which they have the right to betake themselves, but there are none to which they can betake themselves, unless, indeed, they be either very

APPENDIX No. LXXXII. (D.)—*Continued.*

disreputable or sorely afflicted. The only Poor Law institutions which could possibly be regarded as refuges for the aged are the Rummelsburg Hospital, which is reserved exclusively for the degraded, and the Friedrich Wilhelm Hospital, which, apart from its recent addition, is simply a hospital combined with a home for incurables. All the inmates, both in the A building and the B, when I was there were either very infirm or ill; and many of them were young. As for the other asylums to which Dr. Münsterberg draws attention, they have nothing to do with the Poor Law, and their inmates do not as a rule belong to the destitute class.

There is certainly one slip in my article. I said that the expenses both of the Rummelsburg Workhouse and the Rummelsburg Hospital were paid out of the poor relief grant, whereas the expenses of the workhouse are

really paid out of the police grant. With this trifling exception on a point of no importance whatever, every statement I made in my article is, so far as I can see—my eyes may of course be holden—perfectly accurate. Berlin has every reason to be proud of the care that is taken of the children for whom it provides; but, as for the way in which the more worthy of its aged poor are treated, this ought certainly to be the subject of heart-searching to the city: such at least is, and has been for years, my firm belief. Had Dr. Münsterberg, for whose own work as an administrator I have the greatest admiration, ever been present while his 4,000 Commissioners were distributing their doles, I very much doubt whether he would have published the article that bore his name in the *Contemporary Review* for November.

EDITH SELLERS.

APPENDIX No. LXXXII. (E).

Handed in by Miss Edith Sellers.

THE STATE CHILDREN OF HUNGARY.

From the "Contemporary Review," March, 1907.

In 1871 the Hungarian Parliament passed a law by which each town or commune in the kingdom was rendered responsible for its own poor. Municipalities and Communal Councils were charged with the duty of providing for the destitute; and that they might have the means wherewith to provide, they were allowed to appropriate for their poor funds the fines levied in the local courts. Probably the local authorities did not find these means sufficient to enable them to do their work well; possibly they resented being called upon to do it at all; be this as it may, they certainly did it badly. The result was disastrous, especially for foundlings and all their youthful kindred, among whom the death-rate, which had always been high, became still higher. The Government tried to arouse the local authorities to a sense of the duty they owed to the State in the matter; but the said authorities turned a deaf ear alike to admonitions and threats, holding that their first duty was to the ratepayers. In 1876 a law was passed to facilitate the boarding-out of children; and in 1886 another law dealing indirectly with the same object. It was all in vain, however; the old state of things continued, and babies that might have lived and thriven were allowed to die.

At length, as the number of deaths among children showed no sign of decreasing, the nation became alarmed; and in 1895 the Government announced their intention of organising a special Department of the Home Office to watch over foundlings and see that local authorities did their duty to them. By 1898, however, they seem to have arrived at the conclusion that if the State wished its children to be properly provided for, it would have to provide for them itself. For, when the law which secures for the hospital fund 5 per cent. of the yield of all direct taxes was before Parliament, the Home Minister proposed that the cost of the maintenance of all deserted children under seven should be made a charge on that fund. He proposed, in fact, that the cost of the maintenance of these children should be removed from the local rates to the national taxes; and that the children themselves should be taken out of the keeping of the local authorities and placed under the care of the State. He went further, for he insisted that an extended meaning should be given to the words "deserted children," so as to include among them not only children whose parents actually have deserted them, but also children who have no parents, or whose parents neglect them, ill-treat them, or are unable or unwilling to support them, and who therefore have been pronounced deserted by the civil authorities

Orphans who cannot be placed in orphanages; children temporarily under care of the authorities owing to the illness of their parents, or to their parents being in hospital, in prison, or in a lunatic asylum; and all children whose parents, or grandparents, cannot support them without depriving themselves of the necessities of life, must rank with foundlings as deserted children, he declared.

The Minister's proposals were greeted with enthusiasm and speedily became law. Already in 1898 the State assumed the guardianship of all its deserted boys and girls under seven years old, and undertook to provide for them. Then a difficulty arose: the Home Minister soon found himself with so many children that he did not know what to do. As something had to be done at once, he decided to farm them out with two philanthropic associations, the Children's Refuge Society and the White Cross, the societies pledging themselves to take good care of them, the Government defraying the expense. Unfortunately, the White Cross, in its eagerness to fulfil its mission, waxed quite reckless in its expenditure; and M. Koloman Szell, who was at the time Minister President as well as Home Minister, was not the man to tolerate havoc-playing with the nation's money. He promptly made up his mind that for economy's sake the State must itself do what the societies were doing for it; and began devising ways and means. In February, 1901, he propounded a scheme under which the State was not merely to see that its children were properly taken care of, but was itself actually to take care of them, to house, feed, clothe and tend them. Parliament passed with acclamation his State Refuges Bill, and provided him with the money to defray the initial expenses of the experiment he proposed trying.

M. Szell then took a bold step. No sooner had the State Refuges Bill received the Royal Assent, than he announced in Parliament that it was sheer folly to take care of children under seven if when they were seven they were to be turned adrift; and that to hand them over to the local authorities at that age was to turn them adrift. So long as this was done, although the mortality among those under seven would decrease, among those over seven it would increase; and if children must die, better let them die as babies than later, he maintained. Besides, even if they lived, as the local authorities could not be trusted to bring them up properly, the chances were they would take to evil ways; and the State would have to spend money on building reformatories for them which it might have spent more profitably on keeping

APPENDIX No. LXXXII. (E).—*Continued.*

them from needing reformation. From the national standpoint it was no good at all saving the babies, he argued, unless the babies could be made to grow up into useful citizens. He wound up by proposing that the State should take into its own keeping all deserted children under fifteen, unless they were in orphanages or other institutions; and that it should continue to defray the cost of maintaining such of them as were under seven, while requiring the local authorities to defray the cost of maintaining such as were over that age. His Bill for the protection of deserted children over seven was passed at once, and the Szell experiment was started.

Under the Children's Protection system, now that it is in full working order, the State is the guardian-in-chief of all the children in Hungary, rich and poor alike. The kingdom is divided into eighteen districts, and in each district there is a State Children's Refuge, *i.e.*, a refuge to which every child in the district who has no home has a legal right to go. Then in every district there is also at least one Guardianship Tribunal, or Children's Law Court, organised for the express purpose of safeguarding the interests of every child there by seeing that it is either under the care of a guardian who does his duty to it, or in the keeping of the State. This court must at once hold an enquiry if it receives notice from municipal or communal authorities, members of philanthropic societies, or other responsible persons that anyone, no matter whether prince or beggar, is ill-treating or neglecting his children or wards; is not providing them with proper food, lodging and education; is setting them a bad example, or in any way exposing them to demoralising influences. Then if the charges against him are proved, the court may either warn him that unless he changes his ways speedily he will be deprived of his rights as a father—or guardian—or it may deprive him of them at once by declaring the children deserted. In this case it appoints for them another guardian, who, unless the court sanctions some other arrangement, must hand them over to the representative of the State, *i.e.*, the refuge director. The children may be lodged in the refuge temporarily while the enquiry is being held.

If a parent is found in the act of ill-treating his offspring, it is taken from him at once and is sent by the authorities of the place where he lives to the nearest refuge. If the police pick up babies in the street they transport them to a refuge; just as they transport there the little waifs and strays they come across, the luckless mites who are left uncared for because their parents are ill, in prison, or perchance on journeys. All neglected, ill-treated or deserted children, in fact, are packed off at once when found to a refuge; and an account of the circumstances in each individual case is sent to the Guardianship Tribunal, so that the wrongs done may be righted, and the wrong-doers be punished.

The children who are sent to the State refuges because of the cruelty or negligence of their parents form but a small section, of course, of those who go there: the overwhelming majority are sent either because they have no parents, or because their parents have nothing wherewith to feed them. Any man—or woman—who cannot support his children because he is unable to work, or can find no work to do, has the right to hand them over to the authorities of his town or commune to be sent to a refuge. And the authorities cannot refuse to take charge of them unless there is clear proof (the duty of producing it rests with them) that he has misrepresented his circumstances, and has in reality the means of providing for them himself. In the case of illegitimate children, the State goes even further in its zeal to do its best for them than in the case of the legitimate; for not only does it take charge of them, but it also, for their sakes, takes charge of their mothers for a time. Local authorities are required, when the birth of an illegitimate child is registered, to make enquiries at once as to whether its mother has the means of providing for it; and if she has not, they must send her, together with her baby, to the nearest refuge. In the case of orphans, too, the State does not wait for them to be handed over to it, it seeks them out that it may take them into its keeping before evil can befall them. Whenever the death of a widower—or widow—is registered, the law requires local authorities to find

out whether he has left children behind him unprovided for; and, if he has, to send them without delay to a refuge and inform the Tribunal that they have done so.

This willingness on the part of the State to take charge of all comers, provided only they be young, seems, of course, from the financial standpoint, reckless in the extreme. In reality, however, it is by no means so reckless as it seems; for although the State does actually provide for such of its children as have no relatives, or only relatives who could not be trusted to bring them up properly, excepting in cases of necessity, it does not provide for them at its own expense. On the contrary, it takes very good care that the money it spends on them shall so far as possible be refunded to it. Responsible relatives, *i.e.*, parents and grandparents, must either maintain those dependent on them or defray the cost of their maintenance, if they can do so without depriving themselves of the necessities of life. On this point Hungarian law is clear. And if, being able to maintain them, they refuse to do so, or seek to evade doing so, they commit a crime for which they may be severely punished. The only case in which a child is actually supported at the cost of the community is when both the child itself and its responsible relatives are destitute.

The very day a foundling is placed in a refuge, the authorities begin a regular hunt for its mother, and also for its father, no matter whether it is legitimate or not, and if they find them, a careful examination is made into their circumstances with a view to forcing them to defray the cost of its maintenance. The same steps are taken in the case of every deserted child. When a father hands over his own child to the State, or allows its mother to hand it over, account is taken not only of his means at the time, but of his ability to add to them. So long as his child is in a refuge, he himself is under the surveillance of his local authorities, who are bound to report to the refuge director any change in his circumstances—if being out of work he finds work, or if his wages are raised—so that he may be forced to contribute to its support according to his increased means. When the State relieves worthless parents of the care of their children against their will, it does not relieve them of the expense the care entails. On the contrary, its officials say to them practically: "We cannot trust you to bring up your children properly, we will therefore bring them up for you; but, as this is work you yourself ought to do, you shall pay the cost—we will do the spending, in fact, but you must provide the funds." So far as money is concerned, therefore, a man is under no temptation to part with his child; for unless he is destitute, he loses rather than gains by so doing. For he must defray the full cost of its maintenance if he can; and if he cannot, he must contribute towards the cost of its maintenance every penny he has after providing himself with bare necessities. And that cost is, of course, higher if the child is in the keeping of the State than if in his own keeping; for the State provides for its children liberally, whereas needy parents can put them on short commons.

Besides, and this is an important point, children who are once in the keeping of the State remain there until it can be proved that to restore them to their families would be an advantage both to the community and themselves. A parent cannot deposit his son in a refuge one day and return for him a few days later; for, by depositing him there, he has forfeited his rights as a father. And until he has recovered these rights—and the only way he can recover them is by convincing the Guardianship Tribunal that he has the means, ability and will, to do his duty as a father—he has no claim on the boy whatever, and cannot interfere with him in any way, although he must support him if he can. Even from selfish motives, therefore, a parent thinks twice before giving up his children; for, although they are a burden to him in their early days, they may be a valuable help when his own strength fails.

The administration of the Children's Protection Laws is vested in the refuge authorities, under the control of a Home Office department, each refuge being the head quarters of the administration for the district in which it stands. The refuge director, who is always a doctor, is personally responsible to the Home Minister for the

APPENDIX No. LXXXII. (E).—Continued.

well-being of the children in his own district; while the manager is responsible for the financial and household affairs of the refuge. They, like the inspectress, assistant doctors and other officials, are under the surveillance of the Inspector General, M. de Ruffy, who, as the representative of the Home Office, practically directs and controls the whole working of the system. He goes about from refuge to refuge revising the accounts of the officials, and bringing his influence to bear not only on them, but on all whom he meets, especially local authorities, to stir them up to interest themselves in the State's new venture.

Although all the State's children go to a refuge, most of them—some 95 per cent.—go there only as sojourners; the law, indeed, expressly ordains that no child who is even fairly strong in body and mind shall remain there. For a refuge is not a home, but a receiving house, or place to which children are sent to be sorted, sifted and kept under observation until the director decides what can best be done with them. Attached to every refuge there is, however, a sanatorium, where those requiring special care may remain for years if necessary; and there are also isolation wards for those suffering from infectious diseases. Besides, the director is in close relation with all the children's institutions in the kingdom, state and private alike; with the homes for incurables, for cripples, for the feeble-minded or idiots; and can draft into them many of his sorely tried little charges; just as he can draft off into discipline schools such of them as are unruly, and into reformatories such as are demoralised. Then, as soon as the great hospital which is now being built in Budapest is finished, he will be able to send there the children who need the advice of the specialist, or the skill of the expert surgeon. For this hospital is to serve as central hospital for the eighteen refuges: all the little inmates who are deformed, paralysed, or in any way afflicted will be sent there that they may, if possible, be delivered from their infirmities.

Happily, however, it is only a small percentage even among deserted children who are afflicted; the overwhelming majority of those who go to the refuges have their fair share of wits and physical strength. The all-important point, therefore, with regard to the new system, is how it provides for these, the State's normal children. This is the test by which it must stand or fall.

M. Szell holds strongly that to bring up children in institutions is bad both for the children and the community. It is bad for the children, because the life they lead there is unnatural, and they are therefore unhappy. As they have no one to care for them, or to make much of them, the best in them, instead of being fostered, is stifled, and they are turned into little machines. Then it is bad for the community, because what is needed is sturdy, self-reliant boys and girls, not machines; and also because institutions entail great expense. From the first, therefore, he was determined that, whatever else was done with the State's *protégés*, they—such of them at any rate as are fairly strong—should not be shut up in institutions. They must live as other children of their class, in cottages, not in huge mansions, he said, and be brought up as other children, going share and share alike with them in life's buffetings as in its pleasures. They must be boarded-out, in fact, for in no other way could this going share and share alike be secured for them. M. Szell was alive to the fact, however, that boarding-out is fraught with dangers if done, as it sometimes is, in a happy-go-lucky fashion. To guard against all risk, therefore, he devised a boarding-out method of his own, one which is the most interesting and suggestive feature of his whole system.

Every director has in his own district a number of villages to which he stands in a somewhat peculiar relationship. In all that concerns sanitation they are under his close surveillance; he keeps watch, too, over their schools, and he brings pressure to bear sometimes on their local authorities. And even the authorities must pay heed to his warnings and act on his advice, as otherwise he would strike their village from off his list, and it would cease to be one of his children's colonies. Then, if this were to happen, the whole community would rise up against them; for it is a great honour for a village to be

a children's colony, an honour, too, that brings money; for it is only in villages that are colonies that the State allows its children to be boarded out.

For a village to be selected as a colony it must have a good climate, as good at any rate as can be had in the district; and it must have open spaces for playgrounds around it. There must be a primary school there, of course; and if there is also a kindergarten, so much the better. Then it must be a well-to-do village: there must be nothing of the poverty-stricken about it, no grim wolves prowling around. On the contrary, it must be a place where those who work hard can live in comfort, and where most people do work hard. It is essential that there should be a good resident doctor, one willing to become the paid servant of the State, and, acting as the refuge director's deputy, watch over its children for it. It is essential, too—a *sine qua non* indeed—that there should be there at least thirty women well fitted to act as foster mothers.

No woman may become foster mother to a State child unless she is strong, healthy, good tempered, and without "nerves." Both she and her husband, if she has one, must be sober, hard-working, and in all ways respectable. They must live in a home of their own—not one room—and must belong to the peasant or artisan class, not that of the unskilled labourer. They must prove that they are earning enough to live on, apart from what they would receive with the child; and, although the possession of a cow is not insisted on, it is a great recommendation. If it is a baby that is given to her, the woman must nurse it herself; and whatever be its age, she must promise to treat it as if it were her own. If she does not do her best for it, she is punished; while if she does, and the child thrives, at the end of three years the director gives her a certificate, and the Home Minister sends her a present. She is in close touch with the doctor, who is responsible both for her and her charge; and is under the surveillance of the director and his inspectress, who pay her surprise visits from time to time; while both she and the doctor are under the surveillance of a committee, consisting of the chief official personages in the neighbourhood and an equal number of ladies and gentlemen chosen by the local authorities. The members of this committee must not interfere either with the doctor or the mothers, however, but must content themselves with reporting to the director when they notice things going wrong. There is a similar committee attached to the refuge itself, the members of which report to the Home Minister.

The number of State children sent to any one village is strictly limited, and varies according to the number of other children there; for great importance is attached to there never being more of them in one village than can be absorbed by the rest of the population. Otherwise they might form a class apart, it is feared, and that would be disastrous. As soon as one village is well supplied with children, the director organises a colony in another village; and this entails no expense at all, it must be noted, although it does entail a considerable amount of trouble.

The largest of the refuges is that at Budapest; but as this was labouring under difficulties, when I was in Hungary, owing to its new buildings not being finished, I went down to Szeged to see how the system was working. The Szeged Refuge, which stands in the prettiest of the town's suburbs, consists of a central building and two pavilions, one of which is the sanatorium. In the central building the basement serves as kitchens, store rooms and laundry; the ground floor as offices, consulting rooms, etc., for the director and his assistants; while on the first floor the children and their nurses are housed in bright, prettily-furnished rooms. Near the director's office are the reception wards. Every child brought there is taken in hand at once, first by the doctor and then by the nurse, who washes, clothes and feeds it. There is no waiting about while questions are being asked, no time lost considering whether it shall, or shall not, be admitted. Within half an hour of its arrival, it is, as a rule, comfortably in bed. Meanwhile, whoever has brought it, unless provided with a destitution certificate, is called upon by the director to give full information with regard to its responsible relatives. If it is a baby, and the bringer is its own mother, she may be detained to act as nurse. The director may either

APPENDIX No. LXXXII. (E).—*Continued.*

keep her in the refuge, or board out her and her baby in a colony; or even board out her child and keep her in the refuge for two months, to nurse another child.

One morning I found quite a little crowd of women in the Szeged Refuge waiting room. Some were there by the director's request to receive children; others, on the chance of his having children to give to them; while one woman had come to try to persuade him to put her on his foster-mothers' list. Her, however, he soon dismissed, as he had already two hundred mothers waiting for foster children, he said. They who remained were all kindly, motherly-looking women, and they were all dressed not only neatly but warmly and well. They were the wives of better class peasants, the director told me, and he seemed to know them all personally.

They watched the door with manifest anxiety; and there was quite a little flutter among them when voices were heard in the corridor, and the first of the children was brought in. It was a poor, weakly, little creature, that looked as if it had the cares of the world on its shoulder. None the less there was not a woman in the room but was eager to have it; for, as one of them said: "A bit of trouble with a baby does not matter, for it is always like one's own." It was given, however, to a woman for whom the director had sent, as she had special skill in rearing the delicate; and she bore it off in triumph. Tears came into one woman's eyes when she heard there were no more babies that morning; and she would fain have gone off without a child at all, if the director had let her. But he allows no picking or choosing; each mother must take what he gives her, or be struck off his list. To her he gave a sturdy little fellow of two; and, although she would rather, as she confessed, have had a girl, within a very few minutes she had him on her knee and was fondling him as tenderly as if she were his mother. Then two little things came toddling in together; for, as they were brother and sister, they must be boarded out with the same mother. The competition for them was almost as eager as for the baby; and the woman to whom they were allotted beamed with delight as she led them off. There was one boy, however, for whom there was no competition at all; evidently, from the glances the women exchanged, none of them wished to have him at any price. He was about ten, one of the vagrant tribe; and to judge by the way he was crying, he did not relish the prospect of being forced to go to school every day and learn the meaning of law and order. His spirits revived, however, when the mother to whom he was assigned showed him some rosy apples she had; and by the time they trudged off together, he and she were already the best of friends.

Another day I paid a visit to Sandorfalva, the largest of Szeged's thirty-one children's colonies, that I might see how the State's *protégés* fare when boarded out, and the sort of homes in which they live. In England Sandorfalva would rank as a country town, for it has some 4,000 inhabitants; in Hungary, however, it is counted as a village, as the chief calling there is corn-growing. It has only two streets, and they straggle about in the most unconventional fashion around a great village green on which fruit trees grow. The cottages—houses are few and far between—are of stone and well built, with gardens around them. Many of them are quite charming inside and out, while they all seem neat and clean. Woe betide the Sandorfalvian, indeed, who is a slattern—who forgets to polish her windows and wash her blinds. Her neighbours soon make life a burden to her, just as they would make life a burden to any woman who let her children run about dirty, thus exposing the State's wards to the risk of contamination.

Most of the foster-mothers were married to peasants, I found; still, the husband of one was a blacksmith; of another, a carpenter; of another, again, a master chimney-sweep. They nearly all owned the cottages in which they lived, and several of them had deposits in the bank, I was informed. Money seemed so plentiful with some of them, indeed, that I was puzzled as to why they should care to be troubled with other people's children, and I told them so. One woman replied with a laugh that that was just what her own people were always saying. "But the place seems so dull," she added, "if there are no little trots about." A husband had a

very significant tale to tell. His wife had broken down completely when their only child had married and left them; and had the director not sent two little boys to cheer her up, he did not know what would have become of her. The boys had evidently served their purpose; for the woman seemed quite happy, and her face glowed with pride as she presented them to me, and told me she was trying to persuade her husband to adopt them.

These villagers often do adopt their foster-children, it seems. According to the director, indeed, a woman who keeps a child two years is rarely willing to part with it; and rather than do so, she will keep it at her own cost, if she possibly can. One of the mothers turned quite white when he told her he had come to fetch a little girl whom she had brought up from babyhood; and when we tried to tempt some boys to leave their foster-parents and come away with us, they straightway made a scene. So far as an outsider could judge, all the mothers treat their charges as if they were their own children; while most of them regard them as their own, and are as keenly interested in them as if they were their own. On one point foster-fathers and mothers alike seemed to have made up their mind: they all wished their charges to settle in the village, under their own eyes—there must be no transplanting of them later into towns. And the doctor agreed with them cordially.

There are 130 children boarded out at Sandorfalva; yet so completely are they assimilated to the other children that no one would ever suspect there were any there at all. Even in the schools the teachers did not seem to know which were the State's children and which were not. It was impossible, indeed, that they should know; for the former are dressed the same as the latter, they look the same, and practically they are the same in all respects. And as it is in Sandorfalva, so it is in all the children's colonies—so the Inspector-General assured me. Even the little Ishmaels who arrive there soon have their corners knocked off and feel themselves so completely at home that they adopt the relations of those with whom they live, and talk of their uncles, aunts and cousins. They become members of the family, in fact, and members of the community to which the family belongs. Thus they must—they have no choice in the matter—go share and share alike with their fellows, luckily both for them and the community, for therein lies their best chance of developing into useful citizens.

As the protection system did not come into force until 1903, it is too early days, of course, to weigh it in the balance. All that can be said of it with any certainty is that so far there is nothing in the results it has yielded to justify the apprehensions with which it was at first regarded. Even the ne'er-do-well class show none of that eagerness it was feared they might show to hand over their children to the State. At the present time the State's wards number only 28,000, and Hungary, exclusive of Croatia and Slavonia, where the new system has not yet been introduced, has a population of more than 17,000,000. Then, instead of more illegitimate children being born under the new system, as it was almost taken for granted there would be, there are fewer by 7 per cent. compared with the legitimate, than under the old system, if we may judge by the refuge statistics. That many babies are now alive who would be dead had the new system not come into force we have proof in the fact that, whereas in 1900, 22·2 per cent. of the children born living died before they were one year old, by 1904 the percentage had sunk to 19·67, and is now lower. What is more significant, and more conclusive, is that while the death-rate among infants under one year of all classes was in 1904, 19·67 per cent., among those under the care of the State it was in 1905 only 15·39. Among children of all ages under the care of the State, the mortality was in 1904 only 7·87, and in 1905, 9·30 per cent., although these children belong for the most part to the lowest class, and therefore the most unfit. This fact in itself is enough to give pause to those inclined to sing a Tekel over the Szell experiment.

Whatever one may think of the policy of the Magyar State in taking charge of its children at all, that, having taken charge of them, it deals with them wisely, economically, and most humanely, is beyond dispute. Not only have many babies' lives been saved since the

APPENDIX No. LXXXII. (E.)—*Continued.*

new system came into force, but the lives of many boys and girls that were a heavy burden to them have been rendered well worth living. Centralisation has its defects; still, where children are concerned, especially pain-stricken children, its defects are of little account compared with its merits, if for nothing but that it enables the best that can be done to be done, for each one of them. Let local authorities take as much trouble as they will, and spend as much money, they can never deal satisfactorily with afflicted or abnormal children; for, as the number with which they have to deal is small, they must club together unsuitable cases, epileptics with idiots, the unruly with the demoralised, to the detriment of their charges and the great expense of the community. With the refuge directors, however, it is different; as they have hundreds of these children to provide for, they can classify them and secure for them individually the precise treatment they each require. The result is, many a poor little sufferer is restored to health and strength, and many a boy who would otherwise have gone through life a worry and expense to his fellows, is put in the way of earning an honest livelihood.

As for the fashion in which the State's normal children are now dealt with in Hungary, it is certainly admirable. Of all the methods of providing for waifs, strays, and their little kith and kin, this boarding-out on the Szell system is by far the best, so far as I can judge, and I have watched the working of it carefully. Children are as safe from neglect and ill-treatment in colonies as in the most costly and best regulated of institutions; and yet they lead there lives of the sort children ought to lead, free, natural lives, full of work, play and bustle, each with his own little nest by a fireside, and with someone at hand to mother him. Thus they "take root" in the villages where they spend their early days, and the chances are they will live and die there, instead of drifting into towns.

Then the Szell system of providing for children is as cheap as it is good, for under it not only is the cost of administration reduced to a minimum, but also the cost of building. One refuge is all that is required for each district, even though the district be as large as London; and in Hungary the average cost of building a refuge is £8,333. In 1905 the full expenditure on the State's children, although the number of them ranged from 20,960 to 25,900, was only £143,089. Of this sum £127,140 was spent on the children themselves, while the directors, officials and servants received in salaries, rations, etc., £15,949. The full average cost per child was only £6 9s. for the year. The State, it must be remembered, maintains at its own cost only the children who are

under seven, those between seven and fifteen being maintained at the cost of the towns or communes to which they belong.

Now those little Magyars who are costing their fellows only £6 9s. a year each, are just as well fed, clothed, housed and taught as English Poor Law children who are costing £20, £30, £40, and some of them even £50 a year each, and they are just as carefully kept out of harm's way, just as skilfully tended when ill. If they are not treated more kindly than our children, they are at any rate treated in a more natural, motherly fashion, a fashion that makes them happier, and fits them better to live on equal terms with their fellows and fight their own battles. Thus were this refuge and colony system established here, the State's children would certainly fare better than now; while, as for the ratepayers, the heavy burden they bear would be lightened. How much the 239,903 children who are supported by the community in England and Wales really cost has never yet been discovered; all that is known with any certainty on the subject is that they, together with their "belongings," cost some £14,000,000 a year. Supposing the 60,000 children who are living in workhouses, schools, homes and other institutions, could be dealt with on the Szell system, a considerable saving would certainly be effected. For, although the cost per head under this system would be higher in England than in Hungary, it would not amount to one-half of what it is under the present system. Then, too, a solution would be found for the little in-an-other problem. These children, the most luckless of all children, as things are, could be kept in the refuges.

It may be argued that the Szell system is out of the question in England owing to the difficulty there would be in finding suitable foster-mothers for the State's charges. So long as a foster-mother is paid only 4s. 6d. a week, or at most 5s., for taking care of a child, and is required for that not only to board and lodge the child, but to provide it with clothes and shoes, this difficulty will exist, of course; but let the terms be raised even by 1s. 6d. a week, and it would speedily vanish. Were refuges established in such places as Lewes, Keswick, Aylesbury, Chichester and Whitby, each one of them would have within easy reach a dozen villages where children's colonies could be organised. If the local Government Board would relax their boarding-out rules, and guardians could be induced to combine so that one refuge might serve for a whole county, or even in some cases for two or three counties, the experiment might be given a trial in a very short space of time.

EDITH SELLERS.

APPENDIX No. LXXXII. (F.)

Handed in by Miss Edith Sellers.

AN INQUIRY AS TO WHAT PERCENTAGE OF WORKHOUSE INMATES HAVE RELATIONS WITH WHOM THEY COULD LIVE, IF THEY EACH HAD A PENSION OF 5s. A WEEK.

During the last six years I have visited a number of typical workhouses for the purpose of finding out what percentage of the inmates, above sixty-five, have relations with whom they could live, were a law to come into force securing to each one of them a pension of 5s. a week. For if workhouse inmates are to derive any benefit from the passing of such a law, they must each have someone with whom they can live, as the overwhelming majority of them are too infirm to live alone; and even those who are not, could not live alone, in any degree of comfort, on 5s. a week. In these workhouses I passed by unquestioned such of the inmates as manifestly required special nursing and must, therefore, whether they had pensions or not, remain in institutions. Such of the rest as were above sixty-five, I not only questioned, but sifted and sorted, trying to get into touch with them: for I was bent on finding out, not

only exactly what each one of them had in the way of relations, but also what sort of relations they were; whether they were or were not of the sort who, in return for 5s. a week, would be likely to welcome an old man or woman as housemate. The inmates who claimed to have relations with whom they could live, I, of course, questioned with special care; I also obtained from them the addresses of these relations, that I might test their claims and learn whether they were, or were not, well-founded.

After visiting the Kensington Workhouse, I myself went to see all the relations whose addresses were given to me by the inmates, excepting two who lived at a distance. To these two I wrote, and received replies to my letters. In every case in which I could trace the relations I asked them each personally if they could, and would, make a home for the old man—or woman—

APPENDIX No. LXXXII. (F).—*Continued.*

who had referred me to them, provided he had 5s. a week. In other unions the testing was sometimes done in a more rough and ready fashion than at Kensington; still, in all of them it was done, thanks to the help given by guardians, workhouse officials, and relieving officers. In two unions a practical test was applied. The Willesden Guardians were kind enough to offer to grant 5s. a week each out-relief at once, without waiting for the passing of any pension law, to any respectable old men or women I found in their workhouse who had suitable homes to go to. The Southwark Guardians made the same offer with regard to the old women in their house. The following are the results of my inquiry:—

In the Kensington Workhouse there were, the day I began my inquiry, 1,053 adult inmates, of whom 685 were above sixty-five. 157 of these I did not question, as they were very infirm. Of the remaining 528 (252 men and 276 women):—

- 171 (67 men and 104 women) had no relations.
- 94 (46 men and 48 women) more had practically no relations.
- 221 (118 men and 103 women) had at least one son or one daughter.
- 61 (24 men and 37 women) claimed to have relations with whom they could live.
- 22 (8 men and 14 women) out of the 61 withdrew their claims after consulting their relations.
- 39 (16 men and 23 women) persisted in declaring that they had relations with whom they could live.

Of these thirty-nine, one woman left the workhouse before I had completed my enquiry, and two other women were found to be too old to leave it. In six cases the relations could not be traced; and in twenty-one cases the relations declared that they could not—some few that they would not—take the old people in. Out of the whole 528 inmates whom I questioned, there were only nine (one man and eight women) whose relations would undertake to make a home for them if they each had 5s. a week.

In the Southwark Workhouse I found 725 inmates above sixty-five, but 427 of them were too infirm to leave. Of the 298 (100 men and 198 women) whom I questioned:—

- 86 (24 men and 62 women) had no relations.
- 51 (17 men and 34 women) more had practically no relations.
- 50 (10 men and 40 women) claimed to have relations with whom they could live.
- 25 (women) withdrew their claims after consulting their relations.
- 25 (10 men and 15 women) persisted in declaring that they had relations with whom they could live.

The claims of the ten men were not tested. Those of the fifteen women were, with the result that it was found that only three women really had relations with whom they could live; and they actually went to live with them, on being granted 5s. a week out-relief.

In the Willesden Workhouse I found 424 inmates. 189 of them were above sixty-five, and 111 of the 189 were very infirm. Of the seventy-eight whom I questioned:—

- 18 (8 men and 10 women) had no relations.
- 10 (3 men and 7 women) more had practically no relations.
- 50 (20 men and 30 women) had at least one son or one daughter.
- 9 (6 men and 3 women) claimed to have relations with whom they could live.

Of the six men, one was an ex-habitual criminal, another an ex-habitual drinker. The relations of the third would not take him in unless he could be kept from drinking, and those of the fourth would not take him in under any conditions. Of the three women, one had only

a son who was out of work; and another, only a son who was lost. Thus, out of the seventy-eight inmates, there were only two men and one woman who really had relations to go to, if they each had 5s. a week.

In the Eastbourne Workhouse there were, when I was there, seventy-two inmates above sixty-five, exclusive of the very infirm; and twenty-nine of them were quite without relations; while only three even thought that they had relations with whom they could live.

At Thirsk, out of sixteen inmates above sixty-five, five were entirely without relations, and none of the rest had relations with whom they could live.

In the large provincial workhouses, the old people, so far as I can judge, are neither richer nor poorer in relations than those in the London. In the little rural houses, however, they are as a rule decidedly richer. Still even there the more respectable of the inmates are almost always either alone in the world, or sorely afflicted. I questioned carefully the inmates of eight rural workhouses; and in each of them, such of the old people as were respectable almost invariably either had no relations, or were too infirm to live with them; while such as were not respectable had no relations who would take them in on such profitless terms as 5s. a week.

In the workhouses I visited from first to last there were roughly speaking 2,200 inmates above sixty-five. Quite 1,000 of them, however, were very infirm, so infirm that they must live in institutions of some sort; while a good 400 more were so feeble in body or mind as to require more care than even a devoted daughter could bestow on them, if she had work to do outside her own home. Among the whole 2,200 there were, so far as I could judge, only about 800 who did not require more care than the chances are they would receive, were they to quit the workhouse and go to live with their own relations, even supposing they had relations.

What relations the 1,000 very infirm inmates had, I do not know, as I did not inquire. Of the remaining 1,200, 360 had actually no relations at all, and 208 more had practically no relations. 147 claimed to have relations with whom they could live, if they each had 5s. a week; but sixty-four of them, after consulting these relations, withdrew their claims; and the claims of sixty more proved on investigation to be unfounded. Thus out of the 1,200 only twenty-three, so far as I could ascertain, really had relations with whom they could, and probably would, be able to live if they each had 5s. a week. Among all these 2,200 old men and women whom I came across in the course of my inquiry, I could find only twenty-three of whom I could feel quite sure that, if 5s. a week each were given to them, they would be able to leave the workhouse. Only twenty-three out of 2,200, practically 1 per cent.

In all the workhouses in England and Wales there are, it is calculated, about 76,000 inmates above sixty-five. If, therefore, the unions I visited are fairly typical, only about 760 out of the whole 76,000 have relations with whom they would be able to live, were a law to come into force securing a pension for everyone above sixty-five. Not but that ten times that number and more would assuredly quit the workhouse were such a law actually to come into force. Again and again I was told, by one after another of these old people, that they would not remain there a single day if they had 5s. a week to depend on. That there will be a great exodus from workhouses if ever old-age pensions are to be had by the inmates, may be regarded as a foregone conclusion. The more worthy of the old men and women who are physically able will, certainly, for the most part, turn out, whether they have relations or not; and so, I am inclined to think, will the really worthless. And the result, so far as the former are concerned, will be great misery for themselves; and, so far as the latter, trouble, anxiety and expense for the community.

EDITH SELLERS.

APPENDIX No. LXXXIII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE OF MISS L. TWINING.

1. I should like to say what reasons and qualifications I have for offering this evidence. Forty-five years ago, in 1861, I did the same (in person) for the House of Commons Committee on the Poor Laws, and it is printed in the Blue-book.
2. I first began to visit workhouses in 1853—the Strand Union, then in Cleveland Street; afterwards also, the Holborn, St. Giles', and numerous others in the country.
3. I have been twice a guardian—for six years in Kensington and three years at Tonbridge. I have also written books and pamphlets on the subject during many years.
4. I have always considered that the method of election and choice of guardians is wrong.
5. They are too often chosen from motives of friendship or politics—not for their knowledge of, or interest in, the Poor Law, or any of its problems; sometimes the obtaining out-relief for some of the poor is a motive. Some change is, I am convinced, necessary.
6. The Local Government Board should be made more efficient by the addition of two or three women advisers—as in the Army Nursing Service—the whole question of relief being mainly concerned with the sick, women and children.
7. For this reason there should certainly be some women inspectors of workhouses, where the duties of inspecting the state of the sick now devolve on non-medical men, who usually visit the wards in company with the master—thus, the nurses have no encouragement nor opportunity of making remarks. (There are only two medical inspectors for all the country and the Metropolitan district.)
8. There should be at least six women inspectors for the country workhouses, the only one at present being for the Metropolitan district. Then I should like to see a higher class of masters and matrons appointed to these important posts.
9. For prisons we have highly educated men and women, and surely the Poor Law institutions require as much power and discretion, with their far more varied classes of inmates.
10. Very often on a vacancy occurring, a former porter is appointed to the post—I have known many such cases.
11. I would have beer abolished for all the inmates, the great majority of whom have been brought to pauperism through drink, as our inspectors acknowledge; and most *certainly* forbidden at Christmas. This was done by the Kensington Board when I was guardian, (1883–90), and was so successful that we were thanked by the master and porter for the change, which gave them the most peaceful Christmas Day they ever had—no quarrelling or intoxication, which was often caused by bartering the drink and some getting too much.
12. Visitors from the outside should be allowed—not only for the sake of the inmates, but for a knowledge of what is going on. This was only discovered when I began to visit at the Strand Union, and made my revelations known through *The Times* and *The Guardian* newspapers. The Workhouse Visiting Society was then started, and the workhouses through England became known to outsiders.
13. Many more *women* should be employed as relieving officers; they are far more fitted than men for investigating the homes of the poor.

APPENDIX No. LXXXIV.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY MR. WILLIAM VALLANCE, LATE CLERK TO THE GUARDIANS, WHITECHAPEL UNION.

1. I held the office of clerk to the guardians of the Whitechapel Union for thirty-four years—from 1868 to 1902—having previously been clerk of a country union, Braintree.
2. Adopting Mr. Charles Booth's analysis of population in Whitechapel, the district may be said to be largely inhabited by the "poor" and "very poor," including a common lodging-house population of some 7,000 or 8,000. There is also a large Jewish community. The population of the Whitechapel Union according to the census of 1871 was 76,573; and of 1901, 78,768.
3. My experience of Poor Law administration leads me to make submission as follows:—
4. That the policy of administration which has been unvaryingly carried out in practice in the Whitechapel Union during the last thirty-seven years has been justified in its results, both statistical and moral; that it is based upon the principle—broadly laid down by the Royal Commission of 1834—that relief out of compulsory taxation should be strict, uniform and well understood; that an indispensable condition to an efficient system of legal relief is that, whilst adequately and humanely meeting the needs of the destitute poor, it does not injuriously affect the character of the working population for manly independence and provident habits; that the Poor Law is powerless to do the work of Christian charity in personally befriending the poor and distressed; and that any attempt to invade the province of voluntary charity must, as a result, work injury to the poor.
5. That the present policy of administration in the Whitechapel Union dates from the winter of 1869–70 when it was sought, by stricter methods and by a close co-operation with organised charity, to reform a system which it was felt was fostering pauperism and in no true sense helping the poor.
6. That the guardians were especially mindful to guard the entrance to the outdoor relief list and, where circumstances seemed to justify relief in the home of the applicant, it was sought to make it adequate in amount, temporary in duration and conditional upon some personal effort to avoid future recourse to the rates.
7. That the guardians aimed at restricting rather than abolishing outdoor relief, and yet they felt that, in such a district as Whitechapel, the organisation of voluntary effort on behalf of the suffering poor ought to render abolition actually possible.
8. That organised charity was found to be quite abreast of the guardians and in cordial sympathy with their aims; and so it has since been made virtually possible to abolish outdoor relief within the Whitechapel Union.
9. That the statistical results are exemplified in the following figures:—
 - (a) The highest number of paupers which was reached was in the sixth week of the Ladyday Quarter 1870, viz., 6,758; being 1,419 indoor and 5,339 outdoor.
 - (b) The corresponding figures in 1902 were 1,659 indoor and thirty-four outdoor (the latter including twenty-three boarded-out children classified as outdoor); total, 1,693.

APPENDIX No. LXXXIV.—*Continued.*

- (c) The largest amount given in outdoor relief was in 1869, when it reached £7,458.
- (d) In 1902 the corresponding figure was £39.
- (e) Between 1870 and 1902 the indoor poor in Whitechapel—taking the mean number for the year—increased 24·8 per cent., as against an increase of 83·6 per cent. in the Metropolis and of 42·6 per cent. in England and Wales.
- (f) Between 1870 and 1902 the outdoor poor in Whitechapel—taking the mean number for the year and including lunatics in asylums and paupers receiving medical relief only—decreased 88·2 per cent., as against a decrease of 50·5 per cent. in the Metropolis and 34·0 per cent. in England and Wales. (Excluding lunatics in asylums and paupers receiving medical relief only, the mean number of outdoor paupers in Whitechapel in 1902 was but four.)
- (g) Between 1870 and 1902 the expenditure upon indoor relief increased in Whitechapel 60·1 per cent.; in the Metropolis 134·0 per cent.; and in England and Wales 87·3 per cent.
- (h) Between 1870 and 1902 the expenditure upon outdoor relief decreased, in Whitechapel 90·1 per cent.; in the Metropolis 40·1 per cent.; and in England and Wales 21·8 per cent. (or, excluding the cost of boarded-out children, the decrease of expenditure in outdoor relief in Whitechapel was 94·0 per cent.)
- (i) Included in the Outdoor Relief List of 1870 were 418 able-bodied widows, with 1,030 dependent children. This class has disappeared: there being neither widows receiving outdoor relief, nor children of widows in child institutions.
- (j) On January 1st, 1870, there were 2,279 children chargeable to the Whitechapel Union. On the corresponding date of 1900, there were 296. No fewer than 1,861 children had disappeared from outdoor relief lists, whilst the number of children in the workhouse, Poor Law school, or other child institution had decreased from 397 to 278.
10. That, as exemplified above, the policy of administration in the Whitechapel Union has resulted in a diminution both of pauperism and expenditure proportionally beyond either that of the Metropolis, or of the entire country.
11. That there is reason to believe that the policy which has been consistently pursued during the last thirty-seven years has resulted in an improvement in the general condition of the poor; there being, too, evidence of a greater spirit of independence and self-respect among the poor than formerly. (I shall hope to be able to submit some figures brought down to date, to exemplify the nature and extent of the work of voluntary and organised charity in dealing with the more deserving aged poor in the district.)
12. That an examination of the last Parliamentary Return of deaths accelerated by privation in the Metropolis shows that, whilst Whitechapel is made chargeable with seven out of forty-eight, in no case can it be said that the policy of relief administration was a factor; that the number of such cases in the year 1870—the last year of what may be termed the unreformed administration—was thirteen; and that deaths from privation have a greater relation to the number of free and cheap nightly shelters and lodging houses than to the strictness of the Poor Law methods.
13. That side by side with a strict administration of outdoor relief, much has been done to improve the indoor administration.
14. That the sick poor are provided for in a well-equipped infirmary, the healthy aged and infirm and the able-bodied in a separate workhouse, the insane in Metropolitan asylums and the children in a reception home, cottage homes at Grays, in county "boarding-out" homes, or in institutions under the Metropolitan Asylums Board.
15. That the aged indoor poor are provided for in bright and cheerful surroundings and, in the case of females, are under the kindly supervision of paid officers; and that their day-rooms are so broken up by glass partitions, screens and recesses, as to enable them to form their own companionships, thus affording an automatic classification.
16. That the able bodied inmates (who are relatively few in number) are employed, for the most part, in various useful trades and occupations; the guardians relying upon dissociation and continuous occupation for discipline and the absence of extra diet for work, however skilled, as a deterrent.
17. That, during the last twenty-five years, male and female "mental instructors" have been employed at the workhouse; their duty being so to occupy the able-bodied inmates each evening between supper and going to bed as to exercise a salutary restraint upon conduct and conversation, to afford them useful information and to inspire and assist them to renewed efforts to achieve an independent livelihood.
18. That a large measure of co-operation is afforded by lady visitors, who assist in introducing the element of hope into the lives of young women and assisting them to obtain respectable employment; and that considerable numbers have thus become dispauperised.
19. I further submit, as the result of a long experience of Poor Law work in town and country:—
20. That, whatever may be the future of Poor Law administration in England, the boards of guardians have in the past deserved well of the country; and that they have brought to bear upon their work a large amount of intelligence and expert knowledge of social questions.
21. That no fundamental change, either in the constitution of the bodies at present charged with the administration of the Poor Law in England, or in the administration itself, is necessary in the interest of sound and good administration.
22. That the question of Poor Law administration in the Metropolis should be dealt with exceptionally, so as—
- (a) To leave to boards of guardians the administration of outdoor relief out of local funds as at present.
- (b) To provide for the constitution of a Central Poor Law Authority for the financial supervision of all expenditure at present, or in the future, made chargeable upon the Metropolis.
- (c) To provide for the repayment to the guardians out of the funds of the Central Poor Law authority—in addition to the charges already placed upon the common poor fund—of all expenses incurred, with the approval of such authority, in the purchase of sites for Poor Law institutions and in the erection and equipment of such institutions.
- (d) To provide for the classification, as and when found expedient, of Metropolitan Poor Law institutions.
- (e) To provide for all contracts entered into on behalf of the several unions and parishes in the Metropolis being made and entered into by the Central Body; and also for the frequent expert inspection of stores.
- (f) To repeal the law of settlement and removal, as between inter-metropolitan unions and parishes.
23. That provision should be made whereby orders of justices for the maintenance of poor persons under 43 Eliz., cap. 2., sec. 6, may issue upon the information of such poor persons without chargeability to the rates.
24. That justices should be empowered, upon the information of a relieving officer, to order the removal to the workhouse of any person who may be adjudged by such justices to be destitute, to be living under insanitary conditions, or to be in such a state of mind or body as to render such removal desirable.

APPENDIX No. LXXXV.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY THE WOMEN'S LOCAL GOVERNMENT SOCIETY.

1. The Executive Committee of the Women's Local Government Society desire to draw the attention of the Royal Commission on the Poor Law to some grave defects in the administration of the Poor Law; and further, they beg leave most respectfully to suggest means for improvement.

Appendix No. LXXXV. (A). Society sent out a circular letter and have obtained from guardians of the poor in various parts of the country information in support of the statements herein set forth and opinions on the suggested remedies.

3. The unions from which answers to the circular letter have been received are designated by numbers assigned to them in the order in which their answers were received; where more than one guardian in a union replied the several replies are identified by small Roman numerals following the number assigned to the union.

4. Extracts from the letters are given in *Appendix No. LXXXV. (B).*

5. An analysis of the answers is given in *Appendix No. LXXXV. (C).*

6. The Committee of the Women's Local Government Society have divided the inquiry into two parts:—

I.—Applications for relief and the treatment of applicants; having regard to duties of Relieving Officers which can only fitly be performed by Women.

II.—Arrangements for persons under the charge of the Guardians in Workhouses, Institutions and Homes.

PART I.

APPLICATIONS FOR RELIEF AND THE TREATMENT OF APPLICANTS; HAVING REGARD TO DUTIES OF RELIEVING OFFICERS WHICH CAN ONLY FITLY BE PERFORMED BY WOMEN.

7. Since the year 1897 efforts have been made from time to time to secure the appointment of Women as Relieving Officers, but such appointments have not become general, owing mainly to fear on the part of guardians lest the salaries should be surcharged by the Local Government Board.

8. Where women have not been appointed as Relieving Officers, the Committee of the Women's Local Government Society consider that the following arrangements are objectionable:—

(i.) Women and girls applying for admission to maternity wards have to state their cases to a male Relieving Officer.

(ii.) Women requiring midwifery orders in their own homes have to apply for them to a man, to discuss particulars with him, and in many cases to suffer from his ignorance of their special needs.

(iii.) In affiliation cases young mothers have to give all particulars to a man who may or may not see them alone for this purpose. It is not compulsory that a woman be with the girl.

(iv.) When a girl has to appear before a board on which there are no women guardians, no woman is required to accompany her or to be present in the room.

(v.) When the guardians take an affiliation case into court there is sometimes no woman to accompany the girl. For this reason many girls refuse to have their cases taken into court.

(vi.) Application for admission into the Lock Wards has to be made to the male Relieving Officer.

(vii.) Women lunatics who are also paupers are sometimes prepared for removal and are removed from their homes to the asylum by the male Relieving Officer. The fact that Relieving Officers are bound to employ women as assistants when removing female paupers shows that precautions are necessary. It would be an advantage if the

women deputed to accompany Relieving Officers in removing cases were officials known to and under the control of the guardians. At present the women employed owe their position and pay to the Relieving Officer.

(viii.) For pauper women going into infirmaries and hospitals and removing from one union to another similar arrangements should be made.

(ix.) Women must under all circumstances make their application for outdoor relief to a male official; (iii), they are often suffering from internal complaints, the symptoms of which they should not have to describe to a non-medical man.

(x.) Bedridden, sick and aged persons receiving outdoor relief are visited by the male Relieving Officer, who is obviously unfitted to examine the bedroom sanitary arrangements and the state of the patients and their bedding.

(xi.) Working women, widows and all children receiving outdoor relief are visited by the male Relieving Officer. These visits have in some cases to be made at night, which is unsuitable when the visitor is a man.

(xii.) Apprenticing girls and visiting girls under the age of sixteen years of age in service is a duty of the Relieving Officer.

(xiii.) The Relieving Officers are generally appointed to the post of Inspector under the Infant Life Protection Act. For this post special and technical knowledge is required.

9. The Committee of the Women's Local Government Society consider that the above cited methods furnish sufficient proofs of the defective administration of the Poor Law, and beg leave most respectfully to submit that the PROPER AND SOLE REMEDY IS THE APPOINTMENT OF AN ADDITIONAL NUMBER OF WOMEN AS RELIEVING OFFICERS.

10. So far as this Society is at present informed, two Unions, St. Asaph and Mutford-and-Lothingland, have appointed Women as Relieving Officers. The Clerks to these Boards of Guardians write:—

St. Asaph.—"The guardians on the death, in 1900, of Mr. Henry Williams, the relieving officer of the Abergele district, appointed his widow to succeed him. For some few years prior to his death, his health being very unsatisfactory, his wife did the greater portion of the relieving officer's work during this time, as well as that of registrar of births and deaths, she being his deputy. The guardians have not experienced any difficulty, and are satisfied with the arrangement."

Mutford-and-Lothingland.—"Re Mrs. Arrowsmith, the widow of the late relieving officer, vaccination officer, collector to the guardians, and registrar of births and deaths for the Belton district of this union. This district is a small one as regards population, but comprises eight rural parishes. The board have never had occasion to regret the appointment of Mrs. Arrowsmith. In the event of a lunatic being removed from the Belton district, one of the other relieving officers is always willing to give her assistance."

11. Eight unions have appointed Women as Assistant Relieving officers, viz:—Southwark (1898), Bradford (1903), King's Norton (1904), Camberwell (1905), Leicester January (1906), Derby (1906), Kensington (1907), and Paddington (1907).

12. The board of the King's Norton Union has given evidence before the Royal Commission.

13. The Clerk to the Southwark Union writes:—

"Early in 1898 the guardians found the duties set out in the accompanying list (practically the same as in the circular letter) could not be carried out except with the assistance of a female officer, and they thereupon

See
Appendix
No. LXXXV.
(B).

Letters 33 (ii).
37 (i), 85, 104,
112, 132.

Letter 12 (ii).

Letters
1, 14 (iv).
20, 24, 55,
68, 85, 112,
120, 122, 154,
156.

Letters,
24, 33 (iii),
120.

Letters 12 (ii).

Letters 14 (iv),
21, 55, 85, 86,
104, 120, 132,
155.

APPENDIX No. LXXXV.—*Continued.*

appointed one, the office being assigned at the request of the Local Government Board as Assistant Relieving Officer. The assistance rendered by the officer has been of considerable value to the guardians."

14. The Clerk to the Bradford Union writes:—

"In reply to your inquiry of the 4th inst. as to our female Assistant Relieving Officer, she is employed as Cross-Visitor, and her duties include visiting and reporting upon every case in receipt of out-relief; also upon the homes of children and widows employed at the workhouse as scrubbers, and as to the character and antecedents of inmates of the 'House' for classification purposes.

"The Superintendent Relieving Officer prepares a list of the out-relief cases for her weekly visitation and her reports are made upon prescribed forms. The reports are read by the clerk every Thursday evening to the board sitting as the revision committee, with power to discontinue or amend any order made previously by a relief committee. Such weekly revision leads to greater uniformity in administration, and prevents any case being dealt with as a 'special' or 'pet' case. The reports are afterwards indexed and bound and form 'case-papers' . . . on the relief list. After our three years' experience of the system I have no hesitation in stating that the advantages of such an appointment are many and definite. There cannot be a doubt that a refining influence is introduced wherever a lady officer visits a home. She sees the wives and children, examines every room and bed, and gives a timely hint where necessary as to ventilation, cleanliness, food, clothing, and bedding; and insanitary homes are subsequently reported to the proper authorities.

"From careful observation of the results of a lady Cross-Visitor we find there is a greater personal cleanliness of applicants, children, and homes, and I can therefore confidently say that the appointment has fully justified our action in making such a new departure.

"I have not referred to the financial aspect of cross visiting, but will say this. We found a great reduction in out-relief (in weeding out the unworthy recipients) has followed our methodical system. Our officer holds the Certificate of the Sanitary Institute, and is much interested in her work. Her present salary is £65 per annum, with car fares extra."

15. The Chairman of the Board writes:—

"We have in this Union a very competent officer as superintendent of out-relief, and so far as the first section of your printed circular is concerned, I thought he would be better able than I to express an opinion on the pros and cons of this question. I sent him the circular and enclose copy of his reply.

"While I very much agree with most of what Mr. ——— has expressed, and the practical difficulties that he raises cannot be ignored, my own impression is that in a large Union like this it would be a very good thing to have a woman as Assistant Relieving Officer to visit in all districts as she may be directed by the Superintendent, dealing with some of the special classes of cases that you mention, and making such enquiries as a woman is more suited to undertake, especially in reference to your (a), (b), (c). Indeed she might undertake (c) altogether."

16. A Woman Assistant Relieving Officer writes:—

"The numerous observations made in the discharge of my duties during the past eighteen months, justify me in stating that the appointment of women as Assistant Relieving Officers is necessary.

"In connection with widows with families, in receipt of Out-relief, a woman can, by exercising tact, usually discover where Out-relief would be beneficial or misapplied; and can also give advice in the management of their homes and children.

"It is also very advisable that a woman should investigate all applications for admission to the maternity wards, and also make the necessary enquiries into the affiliation cases. The reasons are obvious. Again, in dealing with the Infant Life Protection Act, who would be more fitted to give advice in the feeding, clothing, and general management of young children than a woman who has had some such practical experience . . . Also in certain cases I have discovered men's clothing where there is supposed to be no man living, thus ascertaining

that the real circumstances of the case differed from that already stated to the guardians.

"In other cases I found that certain women were in the habit of selling their relief grocery, thus depriving the children of the relief granted for their benefit. This I discovered by making a visit to the house on the day on which they received their allowance. On asking to see it I found that it had been disposed of.

"I have also repeatedly pointed out to the women the necessity of properly cleansing and ventilating their dwellings, and after frequent visits I found that the condition of their homes and families was much improved."

17. It is hardly necessary in face of all this testimony to state and rebut the objection brought, by persons without experience, against the appointment of Women as Relieving Officers that they are unable to perform all the duties of the position.

18. The Committee of the Women's Local Government Society therefore pray the Royal Commission TO URGE THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT BOARD NOT ONLY TO RATIFY BUT TO ENCOURAGE TO THE UTMOST SUCH APPOINTMENTS IN THE FUTURE.

INFANT LIFE PROTECTION ACT.

19. With regard to Par. (xiii.) of Part I. of the Memorandum, the Committee of the Women's Local Government Society desire to point out that an Inspector under this Act requires special technical knowledge of the needs of infants.

20. It is not necessary that a woman Relieving Officer should have this special knowledge, and it is improbable that a woman appointed as Relieving Officer would have time to visit adequately any considerable number of infants.

21. The opinion of the guardians, based on practical experience, seems to be that a special officer is required for this work, and that that officer should be a woman.

22. The following extracts from letters support this statement:—

"Here the board refuse the offer of the ladies (guardians) Letter 4. to visit nurse children."

"I am strongly in favour of women being appointed Letter 7. as Inspectors under the Infant Life Protection Act. I have known of two cases of children with unattended broken arms, one a baby who, after its death, at the inquest was found to have had a broken arm of long standing. In the other case the child was left for three weeks with its arm broken. . . . The home in which the baby died was under the care of a very good relieving officer, but he has no time, or proper knowledge, to attend to children."

"I have felt very strongly the great need of women Letter 18 Inspectors under the Infant Life Protection Act. I have been agitating for this during the two years I have been on the board of guardians. It struck me at once as most unsuitable work for men; indeed, so sorry did I feel for the babies that I got myself appointed honorary inspector in conjunction with the relieving officer till some permanent arrangement could be made, though I could ill spare the time needed, and cannot give near so much as I should like to do. Our three relieving officers are paid £10 a year each for this work extra to their salary; so there is some difficulty in arranging the work differently, but I hope it will soon be done. When first I visited I found that the relieving officers paid little attention to the kind of woman who had charge of the babies, or of the care they received, as long as the house was in a sanitary condition."

"We have a first-rate lady Inspector for the Infant Life Letter 37 Protection Act. She has now twenty-eight houses containing forty-three infants to visit, but though she works well and gives splendid reports, many of the men guardians think £100 a year, which includes travelling expenses, too heavy a salary. She visits in her own time and has to give only a monthly report, whereas Miss ——— (name of an infant life inspector in another union) keeps office hours and gives her whole time."

"We have appointed a lady to act as Inspector under Letter 85. this Act; she has no salary, but latterly her travelling expenses have been paid by the guardians. I feel that a paid woman inspector would be able to give more time to look up the cases in our widely scattered union, and

APPENDIX No. LXXXV.—Continued.

that we could demand more from her than from a voluntary worker. The Act would be much better enforced by a paid official, and carried out with greater regularity than is possible with voluntary work."

Letter 100.

"It is highly desirable that women should be appointed to act as inspectors under the Infant Life Protection Act. This is obvious, and needs no demonstrating, but in the case of one of our Relieving Officers appeared to do his duty as Infant Life Inspector with great carelessness. Infants often died, and the mother in one of his recommended houses boasted that the children were better dead."

Letter 143.

"We have a most valuable woman officer who is Inspector under the Infant Life Protection Act, and she also looks after the children who are placed out by the guardians, visiting them regularly until they are eighteen, and reporting on each case to the guardians. She sees if their situations are suitable, and if not, changes them, and that they are not only paid regularly, but that their wages are advanced according to age and experience. She encourages thrift, and is shown their bank-books. The children look upon her as a friend, and write to her if in any difficulty, and the employers understand that they must write to her when they wish to give the child notice, and they undertake not to send it away without her knowledge. We very seldom have a return to the workhouse. We adopt children very largely in our union, and in most cases send them quite away, so that undesirable relations shall not even see them. . . . We have no children boarded without the union now, but some are within, and, of course, epileptics, feeble-minded, deaf and dumb and blind in the homes that are suitable for them. These are also taken charge of by Miss —, the inspector."

Letter 146.

"At present the Infant Life Protection Act is not enforced. The local Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children has sent a resolution asking the board to appoint a woman inspector. The matter is under consideration."

23. The Committee of the Women's Local Government Society, in view of this expression of opinion pray the Royal Commission TO URGE THE BOARDS OF GUARDIANS TO APPOINT PROPERLY QUALIFIED WOMEN AS INSPECTORS UNDER THE INFANT LIFE PROTECTION ACT.

(In the county of London the Act is administered by the London County Council who, under it, appoint women among their inspectors.)

PART II.

ARRANGEMENTS FOR PERSONS UNDER THE CHARGE OF THE GUARDIANS IN WORKHOUSES, INSTITUTIONS AND HOMES.

24. The Committee of the Women's Local Government Society desire to urge on the Royal Commission the NECESSITY THAT EXISTS FOR THE APPOINTMENT OF AN ADDITIONAL NUMBER OF WOMEN AS INSPECTORS OF WORKHOUSES.

25. At the present time there are in all England and Wales fourteen Inspectors and four Assistant Inspectors under the Poor Law. Of these two are medical men and one is a woman. One of the medical men, the woman, and two of the assistants have charge of thirty-three unions, including the thirty-one of the county of London; the other medical man, thirteen inspectors and one assistant inspector have charge of the remaining 623 unions throughout the country.

26. The Committee of the Women's Local Government Society consider that the following domestic details require supervision by a woman:—

(i.) THE CLOTHING OF ALL THE INMATES, with reference to the quantity and quality provided for women, girls and children, and especially to the quality of that provided for infants.

In many Unions, women and girls are not provided with necessary articles of underclothing.

The underclothing is entirely of calico and the women often complain of being cold. The clothing is not always suited for the time of year.

Nightdresses are not always provided.

Men and boys almost universally sleep in their day shirts. In one union the men have clean shirts for the double use once a fortnight.

The dresses of infants have sometimes very low necks and short sleeves. Letters 20, 104.

The infants have not always a proper supply of flannel, and their shirts are sometimes made of rough unbleached calico. Letter 5.

Boots for infants are too strong and tight. "The infants of twelve months and thereabouts have their feet compressed into tight laced-up boots, over very thick socks doubled under their feet to make them fit into the boots." The shoes for old people are sometimes very stiff and hard. Letters 100, 104, 123.

Stockings of one description and one size are provided for both men and women. Letter 14 (i).

Pocket handkerchiefs are not always provided. Letter 44.

Underclothing is not always changed each week. In one union the women wore their underclothing for five weeks without change. Letter 14 (iv).

Hair brushes are not always provided, nor tooth brushes.

(ii.) SANITARY ARRANGEMENTS FOR WOMEN AND GIRLS BY DAY AND NIGHT.—The Local Government Board Order is for a bath once a month.

There are often too few baths. In one union only one bath for 110 imbeciles. In another union aged and sick men have to cross an open yard to get to a bath. Women are required to leave the dormitories and generally to go downstairs to wash themselves, which they cannot do without being fully dressed. Letters 5, 2, 118, 124.

Arrangements for daily personal washing are inadequate. In one case only two small basins were provided for 120 women. The basins are often quite small and fixed too high for a woman to wash her feet in should she desire to do so. Letters 12 (i), 44, 118, 146.

This lack of opportunity for thorough cleanliness is often a hardship in hot weather.

The water closets are not always available at night. In one case the women and girls complained of being locked in at night and unable to get to the water closets. There is not always paper provided in the water closets. Letters 120, 157 (i).

(iii.) THE METHOD OF BATHING IMBECILES AND OLD PEOPLE.—Old people and imbeciles are not always washed in clean water for each person, nor is decent respect always shown towards them. Letters 5, 82, 120.

"Just the sort of thing a woman guardian gives offence in if she requests an opportunity of being satisfied here. To know that a woman Inspector was satisfied would be an enormous relief to the women guardians. I have received complaints from old women but feel powerless to test the matter."

(iv.) LYING-IN WARDS—There is not always sufficient accommodation. Women just lately confined have to share a room with women in labour. Letter 104.

"We women guardians at had some difference of opinion with the matron about lying-in arrangements and would have been thankful for a Woman Inspector to whom we might appeal." Letter 55.

There is not proper classification of women and girls in the lying-in wards. The married and unmarried occupy the same wards. This is degrading to the married. Young girls in for the first time should not be associated with the elder women. Letter 20.

The attendant for the lying-in ward has sometimes also charge of the infirmaries. Letter 104.

(v.) WOMEN AND GIRLS AWAITING ADMISION TO LYING-IN WARDS are classified as able-bodied or otherwise by the doctor. If classified as able-bodied they are usually employed without discrimination in scrubbing and cleaning, which is sometimes too hard for them. Letters, 86, 100, 104.

In their time, after work hours, they are compulsorily idle. It is against the workhouse rules for them to make preparation for their coming infants. Baby clothes for use in the workhouse are made in the sewing room by the older women. If a girl brings in no clothes for the infant to wear on leaving she has to remain in the workhouse until her friends send the clothes or until the Workhouse Girls' Association gives them to her; where there is a Workhouse Girls' Association a complete outfit

Letters 20, 82, 410, 110, 120, 124.

Letter 100.

Letters 92, 100.

Letters 44, 104, 120.

APPENDIX No. LXXXV.—Continued.

is generally given to the infant to enable the mother to take it away. A woman inspector would probably suggest that women and girls should, in their leisure time, receive instruction in the care of their own health and of that of their coming infants, and that either then or in the sewing room at work they should be encouraged to make the necessary clothing themselves. The clothes so made would be the property of the guardians, but might be supplied to the makers at the cost price of the materials.

(vi.) THE LACK OF INSTRUCTION OF YOUNG MOTHERS IN BATHING AND FEEDING THEIR OWN INFANTS.—In many large workhouses the mothers do not feed the hand fed babies, who are washed by the nurse, the mother only looking on.

(vii.) DIETARIES IN USE AT THE WORKHOUSE.—The dietaries in workhouses are fixed by the Local Government Board but much latitude is allowed in preparing the meals. A woman inspector would report on the recipes used and methods of preparing and serving the food, especially for nursing mothers and young children. Discretion is not always evinced in these matters. Nursing mothers have sometimes only the food prescribed for the able-bodied and their infants suffer greatly in consequence; young children are sometimes put on the diets for able-bodied women. It seems to be the general practice to put all persons, regardless of age, on able-bodied dietary unless a special diet is ordered by the doctor. Special supervision is required as to the food provided for old people who have lost their teeth and as to the mode of serving meals for bedridden persons. Even with adults one drinking mug has in some cases to serve for several persons.

(viii.) INFANTS WEANED BUT UNABLE TO FEED THEMSELVES are sometimes placed in a row and the whole row fed with one spoon.

In one union the assistant matron is said to give biscuits and bread to infants who are not thriving.

Children too Young to Attend School are often in the care of old women, or even of imbecile girls, neither of whom can teach them the common habits of cleanliness. Boys in one union are in the care of an elderly male pauper by day and night. In some workhouses the children have no toys and seldom go beyond the workhouse walls.

(ix.) CASUAL WARDS.—Women casuals are sometimes admitted by the porter. The female attendant of the Casual Ward has to be called by the porter. There should be a woman officially appointed whose duty it should be to admit women casuals at a separate gate from the men.

Casual Wards are frequently insanitary and badly ventilated and a danger to health. The clothing supplied to the women is inadequate for decency or for protection from the weather.

(x.) THE ARRANGEMENTS FOR LUNATIC AND IMBECILE WOMEN INSIDE THE WORKHOUSE need supervision. Their clothing, personal cleanliness, the method of feeding them, and the sanitary arrangements, require inspection by a woman.

(xi.) PAUPER GIRLS IN CERTIFIED HOMES.—Adequate inspection includes undressing the girls to examine for personal cleanliness and freedom from bruises. This cannot suitably be done by a man. Unless a report is specially applied for, no account of the children is sent to the guardians.

(xii.) CHILDREN BOARDED-OUT WITHIN THE UNION.—The persons with whom these children are boarded are often personally known to the guardians, and it is difficult for the guardians to make complaints. The Relieving Officer visits these children and where there are women guardians some-

times one of them volunteers for the work. A lady who visits the children boarded-out beyond the union and also those boarded out within the union considers that the children boarded-out beyond the union are much better treated, owing to the fact that they are visited by a Woman Inspector from the Local Government Board.

(xiii.) WORKHOUSE SCHOOLS AND COLONIES.

The Committee of the Women's Local Government Society have not received much information on this point, but feel confident that the clothing provided for the children, the dietaries, the mode of serving meals, the sanitary arrangements by day and night, the method of bathing, the punishments, the employment of leisure time, and the equipment of playgrounds and playrooms require supervision by a woman.

27. In answer to the objection that the necessity for the appointment of Women as Workhouse Inspectors is an indictment of the women guardians it may be pointed out that the appointment of Male Inspectors has not been considered an indictment of men guardians.

Moreover, THERE ARE 237 UNIONS WITH NO WOMEN GUARDIANS.

Where there are women guardians they are in a very small minority on the Boards, and we have their own testimony that they are for various reasons unable to do all that they desire.

28. That women will be welcomed as Inspectors by women guardians is evident from the letters in Appendix B.—That they will be welcomed by some Boards of Guardians where there are no women is shown in the following extracts from letters received from Chairmen of Boards of Guardians:—

The Chairman writes:—

Letter 135.

"In reference to your question as to Inspectors of Workhouses, I think there can be no doubt at all that if some women were employed in this duty by the Local Government Board considerable advantage would result. Very many of the matters that you mention under this head are not and cannot be undertaken by the male district inspectors. Although the guardians ought themselves to see to these things, a system that would keep them up to the mark would be very desirable."

The Chairman writes:—

Letter 143.

"I have received your circular, and was much interested in it. Generally speaking, I am very desirous that more Women Inspectors should be appointed by the Local Government Board."

The Chairman writes:—

Letter 92.

"I am quite in sympathy with the wishes of your society Many years ago I was Inspector in a Workhouse and asked where the girls' nightdresses were. I was told they slept in what they wore in the daytime. I, of course, immediately altered this."

The Chairman writes:—

Letter 133.

"I favour the suggestion of the society."

The Chairman writes:—

Letter 135.

"Yes, female Inspectors are desirable."

29. The committee of the Women's Local Government Society consider that the above cited domestic arrangements require female inspection and pray the Royal Commission TO URGE THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT BOARD TO APPOINT A SUFFICIENT NUMBER OF FULLY QUALIFIED WOMEN INSPECTORS TO DEAL WITH THESE MATTERS.

JANE STRACHEY, *President.*

MARY WILLIAMS, *Chairman of Committee.*

ANNIE LEIGH BROWNE, *Hon. Secretary.*

APPENDIX No. LXXXV. (A)

Handed in by the Women's Local Government Society.

THE WOMEN'S LOCAL GOVERNMENT SOCIETY FOR THE UNITED KINGDOM.

FOR PROMOTING THE ELIGIBILITY OF WOMEN TO ELECT TO AND TO SERVE ON ALL LOCAL GOVERNING BODIES.

Established on a Non-Party Basis.

President :—Lady Strachey.

[DEAR SIR,—The Women's Local Government Society has received permission from the Secretary to the Royal Commission appointed to inquire into the administration of the Poor Law, to lay before the Commission a report as to the necessity for the appointment of an additional number of fully qualified women : (1) as Relieving Officers, by Boards of Guardians, and (2) as Poor Law Inspectors, by the Local Government Board.

The Women's Local Government Society is collecting evidence of the need for the appointment of women as :—

(1) Relieving Officers.

(a) To receive the applications, and to investigate, in cases for admission to maternity wards.

(b) To assist the male Relieving Officer in inquiring into affiliation cases. In these cases to accompany the Mother to the Court.

(c) To act as Inspectors under the Infant Life Protection Act, outside London.

(d) To prepare female lunatics for removal, and to remove them, with assistance, from their homes to asylums.

(e) To remove female paupers to workhouses, to infirmaries, to hospitals, and from one Union to the other.

(f) To visit houses where the Medical Officer is in attendance.

(g) To visit cases of outdoor relief to sick women, to old and bed-ridden persons, to widows, and to widowers with children, especially the latter.

(2) Inspectors of Workhouses to inspect :—

(a) The clothing of all the inmates ; with special reference to the quantity provided for women, girls and children, and the quality of that provided for infants.

(b) The sanitary arrangements for women and girls by day and night.

(c) The method of bathing imbeciles and old people.

(d) Lying-in wards.

(e) The employment and method of spending the leisure time of persons awaiting entrance to the lying-in wards.

(f) The care taken that young mothers shall be practised in bathing and feeding their own infants.

(g) Dietaries : the recipes in use in the workhouse, the method of preparing the food, the dietaries for nursing mothers and young children.

(h) The method of feeding young children, weaned but unable to feed themselves ; the accommodation both by day and night for young children, and the arrangements for occupying the time of children too young to attend school.

(i) The method of admitting women to the casual wards.

(j) Female paupers in lunatic asylums.

(k) Pauper girls in certified homes.

(l) Children boarded-out within the union.

(m) Workhouse schools and colonies ; clothing provided for the children, dietaries, mode of serving meals, sanitary arrangements by day and night, method of bathing, punishments, employment of leisure time, equipment of play-grounds and play-rooms.

The Women's Local Government Society believes that evidence has been offered by the Workhouse Nursing Association, and that if this evidence is accepted, it will include reasons for the appointment of Women as Inspectors of Infirmaries and of Workhouse Sick-wards. Children boarded-out beyond the Union are already under Women Inspectors.

It will be a great assistance to the Women's Local Government Society if you will state if you desire the appointment of Women as Relieving Officers, and as Inspectors, for any of the purposes set out above, or for any other reasons. Expressions of opinion should be accompanied by the recital of the incidents which have led to the formation of the opinion. If the Board of Guardians of which you are, or have been, a member, has at any time appointed a woman as Relieving Officer, it will be useful to know the advantages which you consider have arisen from the appointment ; if a woman has at any time been nominated, and not appointed, will you state the reasons for not proceeding to the appointment.

The names of the unions from which examples are given and the names of persons giving information are not desired by the Royal Commission. They are required by the Women's Local Government Society only as a guarantee of the value of the information and will be treated as strictly confidential.

Replies to the circular should be sent without delay to Mrs. W. N. Shaw, who has kindly undertaken this inquiry, 10, Moreton Gardens, London, S.W.

ANNIE LEIGH BROWNE,

Hon. Secretary.

Office, 17, Tothill Street, Westminster.

April, 30th, 1907.

APPENDIX No. LXXXV. (B).

Handed in by the Women's Local Government Society.

PART I.

EXTRACTS FROM LETTERS RECEIVED IN REGARD TO WOMEN AS RELIEVING OFFICERS.

1. "I have on our board made public protests as to our young women having to tell the story of their shame to a man clerk instead of to a woman, for which very reason she often refuses to swear the father."

12 (ii). "In my opinion it is essential that every large union or parish should employ a woman to investigate and report on the following cases:—

- (1) Women who enter the lying-in wards.
- (2) Women who receive outdoor midwifery orders.
- (3) Old and infirm persons (of whom the greater number are always women) in receipt of outdoor relief.
- (4) Many cases, specially those of children, who have had medical relief orders.
- (5) Female Lock cases.
- (6) Young servants who, through illness, enter the wards of the infirmary (sometimes the mistress of the girls should also be seen).
- (7) Widows in receipt of relief.

"It is obviously more suitable that a woman should do such work as I have mentioned. It is also better to employ a woman, because a woman officer will, in all probability, be better trained than a man . . . It will be found that a really suitable and capable woman officer will do much to raise the tone amongst the men officers and to set a higher standard of work.

"As a result of over twelve years' experience of Poor Law work, I have come to the conclusion that the questions with which guardians deal are full of immense difficulty, and that pauperism is due more to vice and ignorance than to poverty. If we are to do anything towards stemming the tide of pauperism, the poor must be taught not only relieved. An educated woman can teach young women and girls as no man could attempt to, and it is most necessary that plain advice and warning should be given to many applicants for and recipients of relief.

"With regard to:—

"*Infirm Women* should be visited by a woman at intervals, specially when they are bed-ridden or senile or dirty.

"*Cases in receipt of Medical Relief* often seem to present great difficulties to a man Relieving Officer, who generally has little knowledge of illness. The tendency under the Poor Law, as in the out-patient department of hospitals, is to work hurriedly. A child suffering from epileptic fits may receive occasional bottles of medicine, but the question of food, education and housing require thorough and careful consideration if lasting good is to be received. Parish doctors are of all kinds, some do not encourage the attentions of district nurses to their cases, and a woman could often judge whether nursing in the home would be beneficial.

"*Lock Cases.*—These women need wise, kind and direct talking to. They are often most ignorant on questions connected with health. It is, of course, absolutely demoralising that any man should question these women.

"*Young Widows whose Children are taken into the Schools or who are given Outdoor Relief* want very careful watching and constant visiting. In . . . we found that numbers of these women went wrong, and for years the women guardians made an attempt to visit and get to know them. It is especially difficult to do this, as the women have to work hard and are often out all the day long. Sometimes too they break down in health. It is deplorable when a report reaches the guardians as to a question of the moral character of one of these women if the necessary enquiries have to be entirely entrusted to men officers.

"Perhaps I may add that a woman Relieving Office should, if possible, have had some training as a nurse. Ours is a fully trained nurse, a midwife (C.M.B.) She is experienced in rescue work and has special knowledge of the Poor Law, obtained when she was investigating for the Royal Commission. The appointment is temporary, for one year, and the salary only £90 I am sorry to say.

"*Note.*—A most extraordinary state of things existed not long ago in . . . and women were constantly confined at the Relief Offices in . . . where there are only men officers on the premises. The women guardians in face of great opposition insisted that the infirm midwife and ambulance should always be sent for. Things are better now, but at the time the men officers and guardians thought it quite impossible to introduce any change."

"I am sending you a few instances of cases that have Letter 12 (iii). come under my notice. . . .

"(1) *Mrs. T.*, a young widow had five children. The guardians took four and she supported one by doing laundry work. She went to live just outside the parish. The relieving officer visited once in three months, but since his last visit I heard through one of the children at the school that the woman was ill. I went after her last week, and found her still working but quite unfit and she has now come into the infirmary, and will, I greatly fear, not recover. She struggled on rather than risk losing her home. Had she been visited oftener and by a sympathetic woman, she *might* have been saved.

"These laundry women work often till late, and cannot be seen except in the evening. It is obvious that a man Relieving Officer cannot visit them late in the evenings. It is not advisable where the woman is respectable; where she is not it is practically impossible.

"(2) A widow actually had an illegitimate child between the three monthly visits of the relieving officer and he knew nothing of it.

"(3) Another young woman had serious allegations made against her character by a neighbour. One of the lady guardians undertook to visit and investigate, and disproved the story. But it is not always possible for lady guardians to do this extra work as their time is very fairly filled.

" I feel very strongly on this subject myself and think it would be such a good thing if the public could really realise the fact that *all* investigation is in the hands of men (practically) no matter what the character of the woman is, or what her application may be. It is a degrading thing for both the man and the woman."

"In reply to the circular I have received from the Letter 14 (iii). Women's Local Government Society, *re* the appointment of women as Relieving Officers. . . . I have great pleasure in adding my testimony. . . .

"The duties of the Relieving Officer are often of such a nature as to demand a woman's tact, knowledge, and judgment to prevent injustice; the infliction of unnecessary suffering and the violation of decency.

A Case of Injustice.—A young married woman, living apart from a bad husband, was accused by the Relieving Officer of co-habiting with a man, not her husband, and on this accusation, all out-relief was denied to her and her children. On investigating this case, with the help of another lady, I found that the Relieving Officer had only taken the gossip of another lodger, *without any investigation*, and that the story had originated from the fact that the young woman had given up one of her rooms to her younger brother for a few nights. No woman relieving officer would have made this accusation without inquiry. The woman's character would have been blasted for life and her chance of earning a living as a waitress in private houses would have been rendered

APPENDIX No. LXXXV. (B).—Continued.

Handed in by the Women's Local Government Society.

doubtful. . . . For a time she was rendered ill from grief and despair, and her health was precarious.

"Unnecessary Suffering."—Young nursing mothers, whose husbands are temporarily invalided, are often given work in the laundry, or elsewhere in the workhouse, as out-relief. Sometimes this work is too hard and often impossible without risk while the infant is being weaned. A woman Relieving Officer could represent to the board after visiting the case, where such work is harmful, and where time and judicious treatment is needed.

"The duties of the Relieving Officer often necessitate visiting women in confinement, girls and women in the infirmary; and unmarried women, with illegitimate children, in service or situations. In the case of the last-mentioned, serious harm is inflicted upon a girl, when a Relieving Officer calls and asks to see her, and demands payment for the relief which may have been declared on loan.

"Relieving Officers vary and, of course, some are high principled men, anxious to fulfil their arduous duties honourably; others there are, who are very different from this high standard, and when *intemperate* in their habits, and brutal in their language and demeanour, their visits to unprotected women and girls are a serious evil."

"I am entirely in favour of the employment of women as Relieving Officers and also of the appointment of an adequate number of women to the office of Inspector.

"Inasmuch as the administration of the Poor Law is, to a very large extent, concerned with the care of women, the advice and help of their own sex is essential. Their services would be of great value with regard to all points mentioned in your circular.

"I would like to draw special attention to cases of young mothers with illegitimate children. Cross examination by a male officer—sometimes young and unmarried—if thorough, destroys any modesty a girl may still possess; if not thorough, fails of its purpose.

"The fact that Relieving Officers are bound to employ women as assistants when removing female paupers shows that precautions are necessary, but it does not seem to have struck the authorities that protection is also needed for poor women in their own homes. Cases of, to say the least, harsh treatment, are not unknown. Relieving officers are often of the highest character, but there are exceptions. It would be an advantage if the women deputed to accompany Relieving Officers in removal cases were officials, known to and under the control of the guardians instead of being engaged by the Relieving Officers and under their orders. Officials of the guardians would have it in their power to report any case of maltreatment. At present the women employed owe their position and pay to the Relieving Officer. Are they likely to risk these by saying anything to his disfavour?

"The Clerk of my Union desires me to state on his behalf that an experience of over thirty years has convinced him that almost the whole work of Relieving Officer would be better done if women were appointed instead of men, male assistants being provided where necessary, as in the case of lunatics. He finds women more successful than men in making inquiries and dealing with applicants and it cannot be denied that a large part of the duty of a Relieving Officer consists in reporting on the condition of the house and other matters with which women are naturally more conversant.

"In confirmation of this, I may add from my own observation the fact that when guardians desire to have a case reported on by one of themselves they almost invariably ask a woman to visit the applicant, showing that they consider it more fitting. Such visits are of much the same nature as those paid by a Relieving Officer.

"It is often said that where there are lady guardians on a board, female Relieving Officers or Inspectors are not required. The ladies can do the work. It does not occur to the people who make use of this argument that it might equally be applied in the case of male officers whose work could be performed by the male guardians. Paid officials are necessary to ensure the work being carried on with regularity and promptitude. The duty of the guardians is to supervise and direct their officers which, if properly done, will be found to take up more time than the average volunteer workers can spare. It

is not reasonable to expect ladies to take their share in the ordinary work of a board and to undertake as well the duties of officials. In the case of a large urban union it is physically impossible and the result is seen in the revelations which occasionally come as a shock even in the best ordered communities.

"The co-operation of the two sexes is needed officially as well as unofficially and when this is fully recognised we may hope to see a great improvement in the administration of the Poor Law."

"I most firmly believe that every union should have at least one Woman Relieving Officer, not only for the objects you have sent me, but because I think night visits should be paid to the homes of all widows receiving relief. When I was paying the women during the war, and was any way doubtful of my woman, I paid such a visit, with the result that I *stopped payment* to at least three. Two I found to be leading an immoral life, and in another case I found three women and a man all living in one room. You cannot find out without night visits the lodgers, nor can you find out, as is still too often the case, the grown-up son living in one room with his mother. Only the other day, we had to stop the relief to a mother because we found not only was her son living with her, but they were sleeping in one bed."

"I entirely concur that it is of the utmost importance that there should be women Poor Law Inspectors, and wherever possible female Relieving Officers.

"(a) and (b) There is practically no work done of this kind, affiliation orders are rarely, if ever, made, and cases go in and out of the house without any effort being made to help them. . . .

"(f) and (g) I have known several cases where the out-relief was quite inappropriate, the patient suffering from want of skilled care and should have had infirmary treatment."

"Under Relieving Officers (d) I think it would be a great saving of expense, as now in cases of women being removed a man Relieving Officer cannot go alone, and in cases going to infirmaries or workhouses and harmless cases to asylums a female Relieving Officer would be sufficient; and it is *far more suitable* for a female in cases under (g), also in (b)."

"1 (b) Several instances have recently occurred in my knowledge where a girl has failed to get her affiliation order from want of help with evidence. She cannot get up her case when she is in the workhouse, and is nervous before the magistrate. The male Relieving Officer never helps a girl if he can avoid it. . . . A woman would be of the greatest help to many girls.

"(f) and (g) I consider these very necessary. The Relieving Officer often sends the money and has little personal knowledge of the old and bedridden. A woman Inspector would go herself and see more of them, and the lamentable cases of dirt and neglect which come into the house would cease. Widowers' children are often in a sad plight and require female supervision."

"My own special work on the late board, that of treating maternity cases, showed me the great desirability of having women officers. I can hardly state my opinion on the subject too strongly."

"1 (b) I should be specially in favour of this. I have found many of the girls greatly shrink from going to the courts to be quite alone amongst men. On one occasion in the case of a girl of better class (*enceinte* by a married man) who was brought by the police to the workhouse having been rescued from suicide in the pond I myself spent the morning with her at the police court. She had cried dreadfully on being informed that she would have to appear before the magistrate and begged so pitifully that the nurse should go with her, and finding that none of the officials or nurses could be spared I promised that she should not go alone. Being a ratepayer's candidate I do not wish to multiply the officials, but I sometimes wonder if some of the noble army of district visitors, etc., would not accompany these poor girls in their shame for charity's sake.

"We have a ladies committee for all maternity cases to hinder them coming before the Chairman of the Relief Quorums, but I am distressed that they should be obliged to apply to male Relieving Officers to investigate the case."

Letter 14 (iv).

Letter 15.

Letter 20.

Letter 21.

Letter 24.

Letter 33 (i).

Letter 33 (ii).

Letter 37 (i).

APPENDIX No. LXXXV. (B).—Continued.

Handed in by the Women's Local Government Society.

“Our officers dislike making enquiries into such (affiliation) cases, and consequently the enquiries are rarely made.”

“The help of a woman Relieving Officer would be very valuable. We have found great difficulty in getting women to help remove a female lunatic to the asylum. It sometimes means a drive of *thirty miles with the patient*. Some years ago in the . . . Union I called the attention of the Relieving Officer to a woman I knew who was mad with drink, and had been so for several days. Her only relative was a boy of sixteen. The upshot was that she was taken by the Relieving Officer to the workhouse infirmary. She was dressed in a chemise with a blanket put round her, (too excited to be dressed further) and the Relieving Officer had to drive inside the cab with her for four miles! No woman would accompany her!”

“We, the undersigned Women Guardians of the . . . Board, return the circular and heartily approve of the idea of a Female Relieving Officer for the reason stated, desiring at the same time to point out the necessity of adding to (g) the words: “and all other children on out-relief” as we have been much impressed by the desolate and poor condition of many such children in the way of food, housing and clothing, not only from poverty (as out-relief to children here is fairly generous, being at the rate of 2s. a head per week and there is much charity), but from want of some backbone in the mother, some encouragement to persevere under difficulties and some supervision.”

“I am greatly interested in the points you mention. I consider that in a large Union requiring several Relieving Officers it would be very useful to have one woman Relieving Officer. I have talked it over with our experienced Relieving Officer here, and we both thought that as in a large union there will be several districts, each Relieving Officer might send on the applicants for relief that would be better dealt with by a lady to her, after hearing only a few words of the case. Or, better still, in each relief office station there might be a printed notice put up saying that the Woman Relieving Officer would attend at that station at such an hour on such days. I consider that where appointed the Woman Relieving Officer would be useful in all seven cases mentioned in the circular.”

“Having had eighteen years' experience of the work on the . . . Board of Guardians I consider Women Inspectors would be of great benefit in both capacities.”

“(1) *Relieving Officers*:—

“(a) A woman is most essential in our casual ward when the Relieving Officer is absent on his duties of payment, lunacy cases, etc.; the applicants have often been interviewed by a youth who was left in charge of the relief office, or by the tramp ward master. Women guardians have often remonstrated in these cases, but nothing else was considered possible. . . .

“(d) and (e) We employ our district nurses in the removal of many of these cases, but a Woman Relieving Officer would be much more reliable in other parts of the union where there is no district nursing society, and where ordinary nurses are not available.

“(f) and (g) In cases of phthisis when we have enquired if the sleeping accommodation of the patient is satisfactory we have been told by the man Relieving Officer that it is not his business to go into the bedrooms, and in many cases I have gone myself; this is a most important matter for a Woman Relieving Officer to investigate.”

“With regard to (1) Relieving Officers I consider it would be a great advantage for every Board to have a female Assistant Relieving Officer, to carry out efficiently the work suggested. The salary would not be altogether an extra expense, as in the removal of lunatics and in bad cases of sickness it is customary for the Relieving Officer to engage a woman (often one who is a nurse), paying a fee of at least 5s. per case.”

“Conscientious as our officers are, some of the work that falls to them seems to me more suitable for a sensible and kindly woman, with both household, maternity, and trained nursing experience.

“We have such conscientious and kindly women, trained and experienced, within the ranks of our own officials and nurses, who, after some years of responsibility

in our unions and infirmaries, might undertake such duties outside, with advantage, both to the poor, and a change of work for themselves.”

“In selecting homes for boarding-out children we have found that the male Relieving Officers have not given the care and attention in making enquiries that were necessary . . .”

“Nothing is done by the guardians here to affiliate illegitimate children, and a Female Relieving Officer could do much in this way. House orders are given to young women expecting to be mothers, almost without enquiry.”

“(e) In removing female paupers or lunatics, the Relieving Officer has to engage and pay some female to assist him. It is obvious that a female Relieving Officer would be the proper person to do this.

“(f) A male Relieving Officer cannot examine the bedding and person of a bed-ridden out-pauper, to see if she is being properly taken care of. In the same way with widows who are compelled to earn their own living they are often really unable to do this and should not attempt it, but cannot explain matters to a man. In the same way it would be easier for a female to detect cases of malingering.

“(f) In cases where a woman is expecting her confinement a Female Relieving Officer could judge better whether she has made such preparations that she can be safely confined at home, or whether she should be compelled to come into the House.”

“I believe it would be a most valuable and useful thing to have a Woman Relieving Officer to visit outdoor pauper women in a large scattered country district like ours.”

“There are many serious cases of overcrowding in cottages, and much need for the attention of Women being directed to better sanitary methods in nursing and the care of children and cleanliness in household matters. . . .”

“Would it be possible for two or three unions to unite in engaging the services of one woman Relieving Officer?”

“I think it is highly desirable that there should be at least one woman appointed in every district . . .”

“I think it particularly necessary in dealing with children on whose behalf the mothers are receiving out-relief. At the present moment I am not infrequently asked to visit a child by the male Relieving Officers to find out its condition more exactly than it is easy for them to do. Our Superintendent Relieving Officer once remarked to me that he should like a woman on his staff as a sort of Cross-Visitor.”

“As regards the appointment of women as Relieving Officers, I think in connection with the cases for the maternity wards and affiliation (a) and (b) they would be most useful, for the Relieving Officer is always overburdened with work and is apt to think that such cases are not worth the trouble and time that a thorough investigation entails, and are often rather lax about it.”

“(c) Women for this, I think, are much needed

“(f) and (g) For this I think a woman would be most helpful. Men, not having a domestic training, do not and cannot understand the practical difficulties and needs in such cases.”

“(1). *Relieving Officers*:—

“(a) Because being questioned by men tends to harden the applicant”

“Further, no one else is present when a girl or woman applies in the first instance to the male relieving officer.

“(b) A Woman Relieving Officer in nurse's uniform, or a 'sister' or deaconess, has the best chance of gaining information when making inquiries; her 'cloth' is respected by the worst characters. I find men Relieving Officers make much use of bluff and force. As to police court, one of our women guardians who accompanied a girl to court, on the first occasion was not recognised; the magistrate was much too free with the girl until he discovered he was in the presence of a woman guardian, when his manner instantly changed and he treated the girl as he should

“I have accompanied girls myself, and I see plainly enough it is to the girl's advantage.”

* * * * *

APPENDIX No. LXXXV. (B).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Women's Local Government Society.*

"(d) Women lunatics make exhibitions of themselves which the Men Relieving Officers only smile at, whereas a Woman Relieving Officer would stop these unseemly actions and expressions.

"One lunatic made love to every man she came across; a woman officer's presence is necessary, our Woman Relieving Officer acts under this head, much to the chagrin of the Relieving Officer because formerly his wife was paid for this work when necessary. . . .

"On visiting one mother in her home, our Woman Relieving Officer found her without help in filthy condition, and straightway found a neighbour to attend to her. The Man Relieving Officer of that district was most indignant with her for engaging help without first gaining his permission. A Woman Relieving Officer should be fully authorised to deal entirely with such cases. I dare not suggest such a thing here at present. I wish the Royal Commission would strongly recommend this. To be always under a man's thumb not only reduces one's authority but actually prevents a woman from doing a woman's part because the man cannot realise the need."

Letter 122.

"I am strongly of opinion that the appointment of women as *relieving officers* is advisable, especially as regards (a), (b), and (c). In the former cases it does not seem fitting that the investigations and needful questions should be part of the duty of a male relieving officer, while I fully believe that a woman would be more successful in getting at the truth as to affiliation cases, and in persuading the mother to take the necessary steps.

"During the three years that I have been a guardian nothing has surprised me more than the almost total failure to obtain affiliation orders. In many cases this is, of course, the fault of the girls, who absolutely refuse to give reliable information, but much more might be done."

Letter 132.

"A girl, aged twenty, was taken to the asylum in January by the Relieving Officer. She had to wait one day after being certified, as the relieving officer could not get any woman or girl to go with him. Eventually, a young girl, her friend, went.

"One woman Relieving Officer is necessary in every Union.

"(a) Interviewing the applicant for admission to the maternity ward should always be done by a woman. until a woman relieving officer is appointed the application cannot but be received by a man relieving officer but the interviewing of the girl ought to be done by the matron either of the infirmary or of the workhouse, that is, if it is not done by the women guardians. When an applicant is rejected, the steps which she ought to take should be mentioned to her, in the interest of the unborn child.

"(b) I regard this as important. . . .

"(d) An objection to men as relieving officers removing female paupers to lunatic asylums is that in some cases they cannot obtain immediately suitable assistance, whereas a woman relieving officer could promptly be assisted by a male relieving officer or police officer. This argument would cease to exist if asylums on receipt of a telegram sent a qualified attendant, as they ought to be compelled to do in the case of either man or woman. It is greatly for the patient's benefit, being less irritating, and in violent cases it saves damage to the carriage.

"(e) I endorse this.

"(f) A man relieving officer cannot properly see that the medical orders are carried out, and not frustrated by various kinds of neglect.

"(g) My board does not give out-relief to widows and children. Men relieving officers cannot adequately visit and inspect sick or bed-ridden women."

Letter 141 (ii).

"Advantages of a Woman Relieving Officer.—In the inspection of the homes, interviewing the sick (and especially) in cases of midwifery orders, it seems to me such work should be exclusively carried on by women. For instance, the home. There must be times when it would be inconvenient to show her room to a man. This excuse would not hold good in the case of a lady Inspector. With regard to bodily ailments, bad legs, ruptures, etc.

It is obvious that a woman can see for herself whether it is necessary to grant a medical order. To illustrate, I called on a woman who wished for milk, and also to be excused from calling personally for her relief. She was terribly ruptured and showed me. I could see at once here excuse was well-founded; the officer had no idea things were so bad.

"Another case, that of a young widow who told me she was pregnant, and had not liked to tell the officer, who was a single man. Some single women are very coarse and offensive when applying to the relieving officer for midwifery help. It would be much better if they were interviewed *only* by a woman. Very often the girls cannot tell when they are likely to want the doctor, and therefore very *pointed* questions have to be put to them; this is also obviously a woman's work.

"Then in calling on neighbours and late landladies I find they will often communicate things to a woman they would not tell a man. More than one of the more respectable women have said how much nicer it was to be questioned by a woman than a man. Then with regard to interviewing single women, I have sometimes been able to persuade them to go and see a rescue worker, and she has in some cases been able to get them into a 'home' which is better for them than the 'house,' and a saving to the ratepayers. Personally, I think work of this kind amongst women should be done by women."

"Speaking from past experience, I am decidedly of opinion that it should be imperative that all women relieving officers be well educated, and before being appointed should serve a short period under a good Superintendent Relieving Officer, so that they may come to their work with some experience."

"(b) . . . One can well see how very necessary a female Assistant Relieving Officer is, especially under boards composed entirely of men, as it is much better in our opinion for the mothers to have to do with a woman than with a man."

"(c) . . . The woman guardian in charge of our rescue cases always reports any which she comes across; but we are quite convinced that the inspection of such infants would be much more efficiently done by women inspectors, who could examine the children's bodies, clothes, feeding bottles, the day and night accommodation provided, and such matters, which are naturally in a woman's province.

"(d) In all cases of removal of female lunatics in our union, our relieving officer is accompanied by a woman, and we consider this essential.

"(e) We should thoroughly advocate the appointment of Female Relieving Officers to accompany such cases, as described in (d) and (c), as it is not fitting that sick and helpless women should be in the sole care of a male officer.

"(f) Here also a female officer would be more readily supplied with information and details, which could not be told to a male officer."

"I am strongly in favour of an attendant from our own wards going with the patient to the asylum; thus any bruise received on the journey or when undressing at the asylum the attendant can be accountable for. If an Assistant Relieving Officer was a woman she could be the second person to go with the patient."

"(1) *Women Relieving Officers.*— . . . I consider it a most objectionable arrangement that (as at . . . at present) a rather youthful male officer should not only have to interview the unmarried mothers in the workhouse in respect to affiliation proceedings, but that he should have to call on them later in their situations as regards their children in schools or infirmary, etc. As Chairman for some years of the Relief Committee, I have frequently realised the disadvantage of having only a male opinion as regards the homes of widows in receipt of out-relief, and to guide the Committee as to the best form of relief to offer. I have found their opinion as to the character of women applicants often very unreliable. In my opinion while it might be undesirable to have a woman as Relieving Officer in full charge of a district, it would be quite easy and highly advantageous so to re-organise the work as to employ an Assistant female Relieving Officer in every parish for a number of specified duties in which a woman's knowledge would be specially helpful."

APPENDIX No. LXXXV. (B).—*Continued.*

Handed in by the Women's Local Government Society.

et 157 (i) "There was a unanimous feeling in favour of the principle of women Relieving Officers. In 157 this would be met by appointing a woman cross-visitor (there is already a man to whom special cases are submitted) who should have supervision of the whole district; for if there were just an ordinary Relieving Officer, one section or district would be unduly favoured, as the whole area for the administration of outdoor relief is a very large one. Two of our ladies gave instances where a woman had felt quite unable to explain to the man officer the illness from which she was suffering, and which had not been made clear on the order for medical relief; when the lady guardian interviewed her the matter was made clear, and the order for medical relief without work at once granted"

et 157 (ii). "I am convinced of the need for women Relieving Officers. There must be very many cases of women applicants for out-relief and other help, where the causes of need would be more fully stated to a woman official than to a man. . . I have known women hesitate to state the nature of ailment suffered, for instance, in case of rupture and the need for a truss."

PART II.

EXTRACTS FROM LETTERS RECEIVED IN REGARD TO WOMEN AS INSPECTORS OF WORKHOUSES.

er 5. "Women Inspectors of Workhouses would be very useful.

"(a) At one time when we had a careless matron and before we had a superintendent nurse, I found from the lying-in nurse that she had the greatest difficulty in procuring proper flannels, etc., for new-born infants.

"(b) Sanitary arrangements. In one of our own workhouses, I consider that there are too few water closets for aged and infirm women, but have been unable to get this remedied.

"(c) Some years ago, another lady guardian and I found that a good many sick men had to traverse an open yard to get to any bath, this in spite of the doctor's quarterly report, that there were sufficient baths.

"Just lately in another of our workhouses, we have found that 110 female imbeciles had only one bath-room containing one bath.

"(h) At one time the mothers had the charge of their babies during their own meal times, but we found that they gave their infants bits of any kind of food they had themselves, and we never now allow them to take the babies out of the nursery.

"For all matters connected with the treatment of babies, Women Inspectors would be useful."

er 6 (ii). "I think that it is desirable to have a regular lady Inspector for seeing after the boarded-out children—as guardians who know the people who have them often feel it awkward to make a searching enquiry, where a stranger could do so more easily."

er 12 (i). "The standard of personal cleanliness insisted on is not nearly high enough and requires the close attention of Women Inspectors."

er 13. "Having had some experience in boarding-out, both within and outside the Union, I am very strongly of opinion that Women Inspectors should inspect all children boarded-out within the Union, as well as those outside. The control of the guardians is, I fear, not always sufficiently exercised in the former case."

er 14 (iv). "In the management even of well conducted institutions cases of neglect may occur. As for instance I have known women compelled to wear their under-clothing for four or five weeks, stockings only supplied in one size both for men and women, causing much unnecessary suffering to old people, no hair brushes for girls at school, etc.

"In some of these cases it would have been difficult if not impossible for a Male Inspector to have discovered the evidence of neglect."

er 20. "My personal observation has led me to believe that the appointment of Female Relieving Officers and Poor Law inspectors would be desirable for every one of the reasons enumerated in your circular. . . .

"(a) When I became a guardian, drawers were never worn, they are not yet by all female inmates. They

complain of the cold when washing down steps, etc., and greatly dislike having to give up a garment to which they are accustomed outside the house. Chemises were used as nightdresses, no vests were provided for young children. Both they and the babies go about in all weathers with low necks and short sleeves, and their hands are often blue with cold. . . .

"(c) A weekly bath has only lately been introduced.

"(d) and (e) There is no classification between the different classes of lying-in women, or between them and the so-called able-bodied women, who are often feeble-minded or better class imbeciles. Bed and day-rooms are used in common, and much evil may be imparted to the more innocent inmates.

"(f) and (g) This is a most important point. No instruction is given in my workhouse.

"(h) I have often found the nursery under the charge of a classed imbecile, the bottles sour, the babies wet, cold and dirty. The assistant matron herself gives bread, biscuits, etc., for babies of a few months old who are not thriving.

"The boys' and girls' only playground is two small yards in which washing is hung out. In the female one the imbecile alluded to sits with the nursery babies, and the mothers often feed them there. Both classes are undesirable associates for young girls.

"The boys have a shed in their yard for their day-room. None have any notion of playing and one often sees them in holiday time sitting on a bench doing nothing. Lately a field has been hired for them in the summer, but the condition of the children out of school hours leaves much to be desired. Until recently they had their meals in the same room as all the other inmates, including the imbeciles opposite whom the boys sat.

"Under the head of infirmary wards I may say that it is only within the last year we have had a night-attendant, and a few years ago the infirmary was under the charge of one untrained and untrustworthy nurse. Now there are two by day.

"The imbeciles were kept in a room to which the sun never got and their only seat was one wooden form without a back, and they never went out from one year's end to the other. One (who was unable to speak) was allowed to sit all day on a wooden commode chair in obvious pain and was found—on a change of nurse being made—to be covered with bed-sores. I have never seen a worse case, death followed shortly.

"There were no hair or even wool mattresses in the infirmary, no draw sheets, etc. Brushes and combs were in common. There were no screens, dressing-gowns or slippers. Food was kept in the wards and there was no bathroom accessible except by going down stairs to a sort of shed. There was no proper sick dietary and bread was cut into slices on the morning of one day and served for breakfast on the morning of the next."

"In my nine years' experience on our board, and being Letter 21. the only lady, I have seen the need (of *women inspectors*) in looking after the clothing—especially nightdresses in the imbecile wards, also children's clothes."

"(f) (g) (h) No instruction or help of any kind is given Letter 24. to young mothers. There is no one to give it. The girls are set to work as soon as possible and the babies and little children are looked after by the old women who cannot teach them even the common elements of cleanliness. . . .

"(i) The casual wards for women are very bad, mediæval and brutal, and a blot on the workhouse. I saw not long since in the afternoon a pillow still damp from the wet head of a woman the night before. . . . The system is for the woman to be bathed, she is allowed to tie her head in the wet towel she has been dried with, put into a long shift in which she eats her supper and goes to bed; no petticoat or slippers are allowed, and the water closet is a few steps outside. Everything possible is done to lower the woman lower still . . . and one lady guardian is impotent to fight it or to get things altered to be more in accordance with the spirit of the age. A woman inspector would have the power to insist on a humanitarian system which at present is looked on as a *fad* suited to a lady to propose, but impracticable and foolish to perform.

APPENDIX No. LXXXV. (B).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Women's Local Government Society.*

"(1) The moral condition of boarded-out girls I believe to be very bad. . . . The "family" system has broken down in our and other workhouse homes and I am afraid that in the cottages they act on their knowledge that they are brothers and sisters in name only."

Letter 31 (i).

"I should also welcome the appointment of Female Inspectors. A woman would be of far more use to matrons and female officers in many matters than a man can be, and many of the investigations he makes into the cleanliness of female bed-ridden inmates and children would be much more suitably carried out by a woman, as would all the matters suggested in the circular."

Letter 32.

"Children boarded out within the union should certainly be inspected as is the case with those boarded out without the union, as where there is no boarding-out committee the children are often only inspected by the Relieving Officer. In this union for instance, in several districts there is no acting boarding-out committee, and as I am the only lady on the board it is impossible for me to visit these children myself, as the districts are not very accessible and I have not the time at my disposal. In my opinion there should be a Woman Local Government Board Inspector for pauper girls in certified homes, and her report should be presented annually to the board paying for the maintenance of the children; as it is, unless we apply for a report, which our board does, no account is sent of such children."

Letter 33 (iii).

"I should be entirely in favour of Women Inspectors for Workhouses, Poor Law schools, Lunatic Asylums, Casual Wards, etc., as I have seen with my own eyes that men frequently overlook dirt, waste and disorder, and that their opinion upon clothing, drapery, etc., is of a most amateurish kind, never probably having been trained from childhood in the habits of feminine observation on such matters."

Letter 44.

A Member of the Executive Committee of the Women's Local Government Society (not a guardian) writes:—

"In a workhouse in one of the large northern towns the infants who were weaned but not able to feed themselves were seated in a row, about ten in a row, on a low bench with a back, and with a bench in front which might have served for a table but which really served to keep the children in their places, while a person in a nurse's costume fed them all with one spoon from one plate of rice pudding—the spoon went in and out of the mouths all along the row. This method of feeding infants is, I am told, used in many crèches. It must cause the spread of disease amongst children. In a Hospital of a Home for Children two little girls were eating a dinner of beef and vegetables. The chart over the bed heads showed a daily rise of temperature, and a milk diet was prescribed. I pointed this out to the matron and she said the doctor had altered the diet that morning—he had not altered the fluctuation of temperature."

"In a school hospital the children were having bread and butter for supper. The bread was too thick to bite and had to be broken. No plates were provided: the crumbs in the bed must have been very uncomfortable."

"In a large workhouse the bedridden women had their plates of beef and vegetables on a mattress in the bed. They were almost unable to cut the meat on a soft bed. They were some time about it and matters were further complicated by the nurse putting round plates of pudding outside the counterpanes."

"In a large workhouse in the Midland Counties there were no chairs in the old women's dormitories. There was nowhere to place the day clothes at night. There were windows down both sides of the dormitories and beds with their heads against the wall near the windows. The beds thus all faced the light. There were no blinds to draw down. There were pieces of blind holland about a foot deep nailed up to imitate blinds. The women went to bed in full daylight in the summer."

"In this same workhouse the women had to dress and go downstairs to wash. The basins for washing were very small, and fixed against the wall too high up for a woman to wash her feet if she wished to do so."

"A friend who was with me spoke in praise of the soup which was being served for dinner. The matron poured it from the ladle to show us that there were pieces of meat in it, and also spoke of it as excellent soup. Later on, on remarking to the assistant matron that it was

really the day for Irish stew, she answered that that was their Irish stew."

"In a smaller workhouse there was one trained nurse for day duty in all the wards. The men's wards had a different staircase from the women's wards. At night 'a respectable person' from the neighbourhood took charge of all the wards. There was an epileptic man about forty years of age in bed in the old men's ward. He was a powerfully built man and my attention was drawn to him by the fact that he was evidently out of his mind. The master of the workhouse said they had nowhere else to put him. This was some years ago; another provision may have been made by now."

"In the same workhouse the men still sleep in their day shirts. The children too young to go to school are still in the charge of elderly paupers. One child then had a very bad cold in his head but had no handkerchief. Two very young children were in charge of an old woman walking solemnly round a square of grass when they ought to have been playing and running about."

"There was a room called the nursery, furnished with a rocking horse, three stools and a cradle. The door stood open to the outside air and there was a large fire burning; two old women occupied two of the stools and the boy with a cold sat on the third. The baby in the cradle cried, and one old woman tried to take it up but was unable to do so. I understand that these arrangements for the care of the children are still maintained."

"It has often seemed to me that Women Inspectors Letter 55. of Workhouses were necessary as well as men for questions of clothing, food, sanitary arrangements for women and children, etc.,"

"(d) We women guardians . . . had some differences of opinion with the matron about 'lying-in arrangements' and would have been thankful for a woman inspector to whom we might appeal. . . ."

"(e) I feel strongly the advantage it would be to have a woman inspector for children boarded within the union About three years ago I went for the first time to the . . . home at . . . to which some of the . . . children are sent. I feel sure that a Woman Inspector would have been very useful there. Ophthalmia and ringworm were often had and none of the simplest precautions were taken until the Local Government Board doctor insisted on them."

"Bathing was done wholesale; boys slept two or three in a bed and so on."

"(f) Young mothers should have more instruction Letter 60 (ii) than now given in bathing, feeding and general care of their infants"

"I think also that more attention should be paid to the food given to aged persons without teeth, as they are unable to masticate much food that other inmates might enjoy."

"I have been a Poor Law Guardian at . . . for eight Letter 82. and a half years I am certainly in favour of Women Inspectors in connection with the Poor Law Unions"

"I think the bathing in our Infirmary of the old and infirm on their admission should be looked into. This is done by young nurses (at infirmary, not workhouse) who, in my opinion, are not always competent and sympathetic. I have seen the poor things brought back to the wards with their heads still very wet and they themselves very cold."

"Also I think the clothing should be examined, and I consider all pauper women (young women especially) admitted to the workhouse should be made to wear drawers. This is not usual at"

"In every department of the workhouse, I consider Letter 85. the services of a Woman Inspector would be invaluable. . . . The employment or rather non-employment of the quarantine children in the workhouse is very deplorable, and of children suffering from ringworm, who are often detained for weeks at the workhouse without instruction or occupation of any kind"

"(e) I am a member of both a 'within' and 'beyond' union boarding-out committee, and consider that beyond union children are better cared for because they have a paid Woman Inspector."

APPENDIX No. LXXXV. (B).—Continued.

Handed in by the Women's Local Government Society.

e 6 (ii). "Inspectors of Workhouses.—The work indicated under this heading is most important, and, sad to say, is at present very much neglected

"The employment and the method of spending the leisure time of persons awaiting entrance to the lying-in wards, and arrangements for occupying the time of children too young to attend school, are points that are very much neglected. Whatever regulations the guardians may make, they are not always at hand to see them carried out, and the old spirit of officialdom, which first of all makes sure that a pauper shall exist with the minimum of trouble to all concerned, is still too much in evidence. Therefore even young girls awaiting confinement are often put where there is work to do (whether in bad company or not), and the remark is often made that 'it should not be made too easy' for the poor creatures. Little children, too, are often allowed to lead monotonous, aimless lives, entirely without interest, until their minds, instead of awakening to new interests, become vacant.

92. "A proper caretaker may be appointed, but the matron finds her useful at sewing and other work, and the children are left to themselves. . . ."

101. "Many years ago I was inspecting the Workhouse and asked where the girls' nightdresses were. I was told they slept in what they wore in the daytime. I, of course, immediately altered this."

"We are strongly of opinion that there should be more Women Inspectors of Workhouses. At . . . until the advent of the lady guardians the female inmates wore the same cotton dresses winter and summer. They had no extra clothes, and the old women suffered severely from cold. The infants of twelve months and thereabouts have their feet compressed into tight laced-up boots, over very thick socks, doubled under the feet to make them fit into the boots. The young children have very heavy boots and unsuitable clothes. No nightdresses have been provided.

"There has been no careful separation of the young girls of twelve and fourteen and the young women of immoral character, both being allowed to sleep in the same dormitory.

"Until the lady guardians were elected there was no bath in the women's casual ward, the sanitary arrangements were very deficient, and no female officer had anything to do with the casuals.

"The children in the workhouse were greatly neglected. We have frequently found solitary children kept home from school in a large bare room without any toys or books, spending practically whole days in solitary confinement. This has been when colds, toothache or earache has been the cause of detention. . . . It was the custom at . . . to employ inmates to take charge of the nursery, often imbecile old women or weak-minded girls. They neglected and teased the children continually. Infants are often sadly neglected, allowed to become almost raw through lack of attention to their napkins. . . .

"There is no particular attention paid to the needs of young mothers; too often they are worked far too hard right up to the time of their confinement and too soon afterwards. In the case of a healthy mother able to feed her own baby, she had left it from seven in the morning until half-past twelve because she said she had no time to go to her baby. It was only six months old. . . .

"We find that . . . the Local Government Board Inspector is very good in seeing to the women and children, but he has no power to make a Board of Guardians alter their ways. He has been of great help to us in getting a paid caretaker for the children."

er 104. "Women are greatly needed to inspect the workhouse.

"Complaints have more than once reached me from female inmates that they have not been supplied with drawers.

"The men have no night-shirts, they sleep in their day shirts which are clean once a fortnight.

"The infants' dresses often have very low necks and short sleeves.

"The women's underclothing is of calico and they often complain of cold.

"The children are in charge of elderly paupers. There is no one able to take them out except occasionally, and until lately there was no perambulator and so they could not go out at all.

"One spoon goes the round of all the babies in administering medicine.

"According to the dietary no pudding is given to the children excepting on one day in the week, when it forms the whole dinner. There is no jam or cake at all in the dietary.

"Little boys from the age of four or five are by night and day in the charge of an elderly male pauper.

"At night time there is one untrained woman in charge of both male and female infirmaries (i.e. about sixty-five beds). There is a considerable way to go from the female to the male infirmary. She also has charge of the lying-in ward.

"There is no isolation ward for cases of consumption or cancer.

"There is no day-room for maternity cases, and women who have been confined have to share a room with women in labour.

"There is only one nurse for the whole infirmary, which has over sixty beds; she is assisted by paupers.

"Young women who are waiting to be confined and women of bad character mix freely with the other women, including the feeble-minded girls. Their leisure time is spent in conversation. This includes the whole of Sunday with the exception of two services.

"Women Casuals are received by the male porter at the gate, he sends for the tramp attendant. She does not sleep in the Tramp Ward, which is at the gate close to the porter's house. He is an unmarried man. The Receiving Ward for women is also at the gate, close to his quarters, and it sometimes happens that there is one woman alone in the Receiving Ward or Tramp Ward at night."

"I am quite and strongly in favour of the appoint- Letter 110.
ment of more women as Relieving Officers and Inspectors. . . .

"The most old-fashioned ideas as regards women's underclothing are still in force and have never been altered, so that women going in are obliged to give up wearing a most generally worn garment they are used to wearing, to their great and real discomfort. . . ."

"Inspectors of Workhouses.—There is to my mind no question as to the advantage of having Women Inspectors of Workhouses under each heading (a to m). The women Letter 115 (ii)
guardians have neither the time nor the special training necessary for going into all these matters—though they can do something if they will. . . ."

"The arrangements for the inmates' personal washing are still unsatisfactory, and the arrangements for children Letter 118.
and their clothing even more so. . . ."

"Inspectors of Workhouses to inspect:—

"(a) Absolutely necessary, because the temptation is to 'keep down the washing.' Our women inmates were denied drawers on admittance until one or two of us came on the Board and insisted upon these garments being provided for inmates who were self-respecting enough to wear them. Letter 120.

"In our Scattered Homes we make our girls not only wear combinations but closed divided skirts also. Much evil can be laid to the non-wearing of such decent garments.

"We also make our boys at the Scattered Homes wear night-shirts. At many homes they get into bed with the filthy sleeves they have worked and played in.

"I don't understand infants' clothing, and as a guardian I should be thankful for independent superintendence on this point at our workhouse, etc. The Board and the officers are too ready to go on 'as before.'

"(b) The young women at our homes once or twice complained that they were locked in, could not get to w.c. The officers denied this, I was never quite satisfied on this point, and if I knew a Women Inspector were available, I should gladly make much use of her. With

APPENDIX No. LXXXV. (B).—*Continued.**Handed in by the Women's Local Government Society.*

only Men Inspectors we women guardians are handicapped.

"(c) Just the sort of thing a women guardian gives offence in, if she request an opportunity of being satisfied here. To know that a Woman Inspector was satisfied would be an enormous relief to the . . . women guardians. I have received complaints from old women, but feel powerless to test the matter. 'Interfering' would be expected from an Inspector, not from a guardian.

"(d) Vast improvement here since one or two of us came on the Board, and further improvements impending. But it would always be necessary for the best of nurses to be liable to inspection.

"You do not mention Lock Wards. This is where a Woman Inspector has been needed. A number of sweet little children with ringworm locked up with the lowest of the low. Cruel! We women guardians stopped this, but we greatly needed a Woman Inspector at our back. . .

"(g) With us the dietaries for nursing mothers is decided by the medical officer. But the preparation of the food needs strict supervision. I found the milk kept uncovered close to cheese, etc. This has been altered, but an Inspector would have marked it long ago.

"(h) I would gladly welcome advice on this point, and I cannot find that the other women guardians are particularly strong on it. A mother guardian has just joined the Board, and I hope much from her, but what I say of the apparent ignorance of our guardians only points to the need of Women Inspectors. . . .

"(k) Yes, because many of these cases are at such great distance we have neither time nor money to visit, and we should be thankful to know the homes were inspected by a competent person.

"(l) Yes, even where the children are regularly visited by guardians.

"(m) Especially with a view to the efficient training of girls to earn livelihood. Doing the work of the Institution is not necessarily the needful training nor the most suitable for a girl. A boy may choose his line of work, a girl must scrub and sew just on Institution lines."

Letter 121.

"I should like to give my strong opinion on Section 11 (1), viz., the need for Women Inspectors of Children boarded out within the Union. I have been a guardian of the . . . union for the past twelve years. I have felt this need constantly. The children boarded out within the union are in the worst position of any under the care of the guardians. I have known cases of over-crowding, of doubtful moral surroundings, of insanitary and dirty houses, of thoroughly unsatisfactory control and discipline, of insufficient means of subsistence—all allowed because the children were boarded out generally with relatives, and it was thought hard or unkind to move them. No man, however careful, can make the examination needed to ensure the proper physical care of young children, especially girls. And the guardians do not like to make themselves unpopular by removing children from relatives or friends, who are living near to themselves. An Inspector's outside opinion would help them much in this."

Letter 124.

"I think it most desirable that women should be appointed as Poor Law Inspectors.

"As regards the feeding of the young children in the workhouse who are old enough to require more than milk. *Until our present matron came here* some two years ago, such children were just on the ordinary able-bodied women's diet.

"As to clothing, the able-bodied women had no proper night-dresses and none of the women were allowed drawers, which was a considerable hardship to those women who had been used to wear them before coming into the House. The conveniences for washing the women were not suffi-

cient, and the arrangements and rules for bathing the children were not altogether satisfactory. Since this present matron has come, I believe there is nothing to complain of in any of the above matters, but a Woman Inspector would probably have brought in the necessary improvements far earlier."

"The Men Inspectors are unable to do any of this Letter 128(ii) detailed inspection. . . .

"(1) Should be specially emphasised, as the present distinction between in and out boarding-out is absurd. Both equally need inspection.

"(a) I should like to point out shoes need special inquiry. In a country workhouse I know leather boots were provided for infants when short-coated; and no slippers, only the thickest leather boots for the use of the infirm inmates. This is changed now in that workhouse.

"Also the case of inmates' own clothing needs inspection. Letter 146. There may be no proper place or way of putting this away. Things may be lost, and altogether this (if not seen to) may be most careless."

"There are 200 beds here, and the present number occupied is 110. The arrangements for washing are quite inadequate, and consist of two small basins in the passage leading to the water-closets; there is hot and cold water laid on. There is a good bathroom upstairs with two baths; the women bathe once a month and are encouraged to bathe oftener. The water is changed as frequently as possible, although sometimes when there is not enough hot water two women use the same."

"Where there are no women on a Board a Female In- Letter 154. spector is specially needed.

"Female lunatics in asylums are visited by women guardians; but here we feel there is great need for Female Inspectors to look into the methods of bathing, changes of under-clothing, provision of the necessary articles for the special needs of women, and to inspect the beds.

"These girls are visited annually by a guardian, and here a Female Inspector with special knowledge and training would be most valuable.

"Such children are visited by the Boarding-out Committee of ladies, approved by the Local Government Board, but their examination of the children and homes is often not at all thorough, as that of a trained Woman Inspector should be.

"The porter, assistant porter and porter's wife admit, and the latter looks after the women being bathed and passed on to the House from the Receiving Ward. The casuals are bathed in their own department under the surveillance of a woman pauper. . . ."

"We desire above all to urge the need for Women Work- Letter 157(i) house Inspectors. At present any suggestion for improvement in small details, regarding the inmates, comes usually from conversation between the women guardians and the matron; and unless there is a cordial feeling between the two, the suggestions may remain for ever unadopted. It is extremely difficult to remedy abuses or adopt reforms, as the inmates and officers alike fear to report. An Inspector can ask questions and demand answers, while guardians have to work more or less in the dark, and yet with endless tact and caution.

" . . . We had not thought of paper in the water closet, but the matron says she will in future provide squares of newspaper.

" . . . We are of opinion that the Local Government Board's order that the mothers may nurse their babies for two years to be unwise; this detail is under the control of the resident workhouse doctor, who interferes when necessary. We should like to have an attendant to look after the babies (sixteen) when the mothers are at work in the laundry or elsewhere; at present old women are employed in this work, which is hard on them and unfair to the children."

APPENDIX No. LXXXV. (C).

Handed in by the Women's Local Government Society.

SUMMARY OF ANSWERS RECEIVED BY THE WOMEN'S LOCAL GOVERNMENT SOCIETY IN RESPECT TO THE NEED FOR MANY MORE WOMEN RELIEVING OFFICERS AND INSPECTORS.

Letters have been received from 150 unions.

Of these letters 141 are from Women Guardians, three from other women who have knowledge of the subject, and fifty are from men engaged in administration of the Poor Law.

Nine Boards with no women members ordered the letter to be laid on the table.

Eight women and eleven men disapproved the suggestions in regard to Women Relieving Officers, and four women and eight men disapproved the suggestions in regard to Women Inspectors.

The subjoined table shows on what points guardians feel strongly, if we may judge from the number of persons expressing opinions.

REPLIES received from Women Guardians in regard to the appointment of Women as Relieving Officers and as Inspectors of Workhouses.

	Relieving Officers.	Inspectors of Workhouses.
Favourable { Entirely - - -	101	117
{ with Reservation	18	3
Against - - - - -	8	4
No opinion expressed - - -	14	17
Totals - - - - -	141	141

REPLIES received from Men (Chairmen and Clerks of Boards of Guardians) engaged in the administration of the Poor Law in regard to the appointment of Women as Relieving Officers and as Inspectors of Workhouses.

	Relieving Officers.	Inspectors of Workhouses.
Favourable { Entirely - - -	3	2
{ with Reservation	4	2
Against - - - - -	11	8
No opinion - - - - -	32	38
Totals - - - - -	50	50

TABLE showing the Points Specially Emphasised in the Replies received from Women Guardians in respect to Women as Relieving Officers.

	Favourable.		Against.
	Entirely.	With Reservations.	
a.	38	3	2
b.	26	3	2
c.	31	-	1
d.	24	-	6
e.	23	-	3
f.	20	1	2
g.	43	1	3

TABLE showing the Points Specially Emphasised in the Replies received from Women Guardians in respect to Women as Inspectors of Workhouses.

	Favourable.		Against.
	Entirely.	With Reservations.	
a.	39	-	-
b.	17	1	-
c.	20	-	-
d.	16	-	-
e.	16	-	-
f.	18	-	-
g.	14	-	-
h.	22	-	-
i.	15	-	-
j.	22	-	-
k.	16	1	2
l.	23	-	1
m.	19	-	-

PART IV—ENGLISH UNEMPLOYMENT.

APPENDIX No. LXXXVI.

COPY OF CORRESPONDENCE WITH ADMIRALTY AND WAR OFFICE ON THE SUBJECT OF
THE POSSIBILITY OF GREATER REGULARISATION OF GOVERNMENT WORK.

68, Victoria Street,
Westminster, S.W.
May 10th, 1907.

SIR,—My Commission, as you are doubtless aware, are engaged on an enquiry which embraces *inter alia* the subject of distress due to unemployment and the remedies which have been or may be applied in mitigation of such distress.

Among such remedies there has been suggested to the Commission the possibility of a greater regularisation of Government work with a view to discouraging irregular or casual labour; inasmuch as there is a consensus of opinion that it is amongst the casual labourer class that distress due to unemployment is most frequently to be found.

The Commission are aware of the administrative difficulties attending a proposal of this kind, but as an indication of the kind of suggestions and criticisms which are made, I am desired by Lord George Hamilton, the Chairman of the Commission, to forward for the confidential information of the Admiralty, the enclosed extract from a Report made to the Commission by Mr. Cyril Jackson and Mr. Pringle, who were appointed to make a preliminary Report to the Commission on the subject of unemployment.

In the circumstances I am desired to ask whether the Admiralty will be good enough to cause the Commission to be supplied with a Memorandum showing, if possible, over a period of years, to what extent the work undertaken on behalf of the Admiralty, either in Government dockyards, etc., or by contractors, is irregular in amount, either at different seasons of the year or in different years. The Commission would also be glad to know to what

extent it would, in the opinion of the Admiralty, be possible to regularise such work with a view to providing constant work for a regular number of men, and so obviating the necessity for the use of casual labour by, or on behalf of, the State.

The Commission would suggest whether a good test of the irregularity of Government work would not be afforded as regards Government dockyards, etc., by a Return of the fluctuations in the numbers of men employed at different periods; and as regards contract work, by a Return showing for a series of years the dates, periods, and amounts of the contracts given out. The Commission are, however, sensible of the complexity of the subject, and I am to say that they desire to leave the whole scope of the Memorandum to the discretion of the Admiralty, with the explanation that the Commission would not have ventured to trouble them in the matter had they not been deeply impressed with the national importance of discouraging, as far as possible, the resort to casual labour, both by individuals and the State.

In conclusion I am to say that if it should be considered necessary, the Commission will be happy to hear orally in the autumn a witness on behalf of the Admiralty in support of any Memorandum which may be sent in, but it would be a convenience to the Commission if such Memorandum itself could be received by them, not later than the end of July next.

I am, Sir, your obedient servant,

(Signed) R. G. DUFF.

The Secretary,

The Admiralty.

(A similar letter, *mutatis mutandis*, was addressed to the War Office.)

1. REPLY FROM ADMIRALTY.

Admiralty, S.W.

October, 4th, 1907.

SIR,—In reply to your letter of the May 10th last, concerning the regularisation of Government work, I am commanded by My Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty to acquaint you for the information of the Royal Commission on the Poor Law and Relief of Distress that this question has been very carefully examined, and it is considered that the present system of distribution of admiralty work is not antagonistic to uniformity of employment.

There are, unquestionably, many cases in which demands for manufactured material must be met as they arise, but My Lords have never lost sight of the importance of expending the funds at their disposal in a manner calculated to promote continuity of employment, so far as it may be within their power to do so without jeopardising the interests of the Naval service.

My Lords have considered the question of furnishing a return of contract work, but on account of the complexity of the whole question and of the diverse nature of the work involved, they are satisfied that no statement could be prepared which would convey a correct impression of the effect upon the labour market from time to time of orders given by the Admiralty to private contractors.

With regard to the employment of labour within

His Majesty's dockyards, I am to forward for the information of the Royal Commission a statement showing the number of entries and discharges of men at the various yards, quarter by quarter, from June 28th, 1902, to March 30th, 1907. With respect to these men, My Lords, have always exercised the greatest care to ensure that there shall be as little fluctuation in the numbers employed as consistency with other public interests will permit.

I am to add that casual labour is but little resorted to in the dockyards, and for the most part only for the unloading of coal and other stores and similar intermittent duties. Very little casual labour is employed upon the work performed for the Admiralty by contract in various parts of the country, as the execution of these contracts entails for the most part the employment of skilled labour.

In conclusion, My Lords, do not consider that the amount of casual labour employed for naval purposes is sufficient to have any appreciable effect in limiting the distress due to unemployment.

I am, Sir, your obedient servant,

C. I. THOMAS.

The Secretary, Royal Commission on the
Poor Laws and Relief of Distress,

68, Victoria Street, S.W.

APPENDIX No. LXXXVI.—Continued.

ENCLOSURE WITH LETTER FROM ADMIRALTY.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE ENTRIES AND DISCHARGES OF MEN ON THE UNDERMENTIONED DATES
(MEN FOR TEMPORARY SERVICE SHOWN IN HEAVY FIGURES).

Week ended	Ports- mouth.	Devonport.	Chatham.	Sheerness.	Pembroke.	West India Docks.	Haul- bowline.	Total.
ENTRIES.								
June 28th, 1902 - -	4	62	55	6	5	2	5	139
Sept. 27th, 1902 - -	11	57	99	9	1	2	13	192
Dec. 27th, 1902 - -	9	117	81	-	-	-	1	208
March 28th, 1903 - -	8	12	11	2	-	-	-	33
June 27th, 1903 - -	2	-	17	1	-	-	2	22
Sept. 26th, 1903 - -	5	9	2	7	-	1	1	25
Dec. 26th, 1903 - -	19	8	3	-	-	-	-	30
March 26th, 1904 - -	16	1	5	3	3	-	1	29
			6					6
June 25th, 1904 - -	5	10	12	12	1	-	4	44
Sept. 24th, 1904 - -	9	4	8	7	2	-	-	30
Dec. 31st, 1904 - -	7	79	107	1	22	-	-	216
		225		12	7		19	263
March 25th, 1905 - -	1	9	5	3	1	1	-	20
		9						9
June 24th, 1905 - -	10	-	2	7	1	1	-	21
Sept. 30th, 1905 - -	7	2	1	2	-	-	-	12
Dec. 30th, 1905 - -	8	1	-	1	-	-	-	10
		50						50
March 31st, 1906 - -	4	2	12	1	-	-	-	19
		28						28
June 30th, 1906 - -	3	3	4	2	-	-	-	12
Sept. 29th, 1906 - -	7	26	1	-	1	-	1	36
Dec. 29th, 1906 - -	14	-	9	1	18	-	-	42
							33	33
March 30th, 1907 - -	19	5	9	1	-	-	-	34

DISCHARGES.								
June 28th, 1902 - -	15	59	48	4	5	-	-	131
Sept. 27th, 1902 - -	14	13	19	3	2	-	-	51
Dec. 27th, 1902 - -	11	4	15	1	1	1	1	34
March 28th, 1903 - -	18	11	39	8	1	1	4	82
June 27th, 1903 - -	30	8	8	5	1	1	2	55
Sept. 26th, 1903 - -	10	6	13	6	2	-	1	38
Dec. 26th, 1903 - -	14	4	15	3	2	-	-	38
March 26th, 1904 - -	22	7	16	6	3	1	12	67
			50					50
June 25th, 1904 - -	10	7	9	2	3	-	1	32
Sept. 24th, 1904 - -	8	13	8	2	1	1	2	35
			23					28
Dec. 31st, 1904 - -	8	8	10	4	3	-	1	34
March 25th, 1905 - -	1	8	47	5	1	1	2	65
	33							33
June 24th, 1905 - -	69	81	81	21	24	-	-	276
	30							30
Sept. 30th, 1905 - -	74	49	83	37	21	-	1	265
Dec. 30th, 1905 - -	6	6	12	5	-	-	1	30
		37						37
March 31st, 1906 - -	12	7	15	2	2	-	-	38
	123	1	129					253
June 30th, 1906 - -	12	15	12	6	17	-	2	64
Sept. 29th, 1906 - -	15	14	7	4	5	-	2	47
Dec. 29th, 1906 - -	13	6	25	1	-	3	1	49
March 30th, 1907 - -	3	-	5	5	1	-	2	16

APPENDIX No. LXXXVI.—*Continued.***2. REPLY FROM WAR OFFICE.**

70/ General Number 2259 (C. 3).

War Office,
London, S.W.

October 28th, 1907.

SIR,—With reference to your letter of May 10th and subsequent correspondence on the subject of regularising Government work, I am commanded by the Army Council to forward, for the information of the Poor Law Commission, twenty-six statements showing the numbers of operatives in direct War Department employment and some of the more important orders placed with the general trade of the country during the past few years. A brief memorandum is also enclosed in explanation of the statements.

The Army Council are aware that an even course of purchase is both beneficial to trade at large and should, as a rule, conduce to the economical and satisfactory supply of the Army, and it is their constant endeavour to avoid intermittent ordering to the utmost extent.

The paramount consideration with them, however, must be the prompt and effective equipment of the Army as a perfect fighting machine, prepared to strike at all times and at all points, with every advantage of armament and matériel which the latest developments of science and human ingenuity can confer.

It is constantly necessary to meet some new condition of policy, to provide for some new service, to cope with changing climatic and local conditions, to introduce some new store, or to discard one which has hitherto been regarded as almost immutable. All these things must necessarily affect the even tenour of supply, with the result that it often appears spasmodic and erratic to those unacquainted with the conditions by which it is governed. Such conditions must always involve some dislocation of the industries affected by the supply, both as regards *personnel* and locality, and during the past few years the

disturbance has been especially notable owing to the contraction after the war and the completion of large stocks of war reserves. It is hoped that in the immediate future the orders placed with the trade, even if reduced to peace requirements, may be marked by greater stability; while in the War Department establishments themselves a new principle has been laid down, as explained by the Secretary of State in the House of Commons on August 15th last, which is expected to result in constant employment in time of peace to a fixed minimum number of employés, and to obviate the violent fluctuations which have sometimes occurred in the past.

The Army Council are glad to have seen the extracts you have been good enough to send from the Report made to the Commission by Mr. Cyril Jackson and Mr. Pringle. They think it right to repeat in this connection that after a long and costly war the process of contraction to normal peace conditions necessarily follows and produces a period of what appear by comparison with the past to be "lean years," and also to point out that the operation of the principle of competitive tender must frequently involve the transfer of work from one district to another. Nor are they altogether convinced of the strict accuracy of certain statements as to the type of work employed upon Army orders contained in a recent publication, quoted without reservation by the writers of the Report.

Should the Commission desire further information the Army Council will be happy to supply it either in writing or orally.

I am, Sir, your obedient servant,

R. H. BRADE.

The Secretary, Royal Commission on
the Poor Laws and Relief of Distress,
Scotland House, Victoria Embankment,
Westminster, S.W.

MEMORANDUM ENCLOSED IN LETTER FROM WAR OFFICE.

The accompanying tables have been drawn up in response to a request from the Poor Law Commission for information as to the amount of labour directly employed by the War Department and the orders placed with the trade during the past few years.

Tables "A," "A (1)," and "B," show the numbers directly employed in manufacturing and other establishments from April, 1903, to March, 1907; and Tables "C." to "Y." show some of the more important orders placed during the same period.

The annual purchases are classified in the tables according to the dates on which the orders were placed, but as the periods of delivery vary, the actual amount of work

done by the trade in each year may in some cases differ somewhat from that shown in the tables.

Owing to the labour involved, it has been necessary to limit the particulars as regards projectiles, cordite, and guns (Tables "V." to "X.") to three years, and as regards steel (Table "Y.") to one year. As regards steel, the value of the orders placed each month is given, and no attempt has been made to give the periods of the contracts, which are very numerous and for many different varieties.

During the years dealt with there has been abnormal fluctuation in the yearly requirements owing to the existence of large surplus stocks laid in during the war, and also to the re-armament of the Army with new rifles and field guns.

APPENDIX No. LXXXVI.—*Continued.*

INDEX TO TABLES.

	Page
A. Employment in the Ordnance Factories at Woolwich, Enfield and Waltham Abbey - - - - -	1040
A. (1). Employment in Army Inspection Department - - - - -	1041
B. Employment at Army Ordnance Department stations, etc. - - - - -	1042
C. Ankle Boots - - - - -	1043
D. Serge and Tartan drab mixture - - - - -	1043
E. Making up of jackets, serge, drab mixture - - - - -	1043
F. Making up of trousers, tartan, drab mixture - - - - -	1043
G. Woollen Hosiery - - - - -	1044
H. Cotton Hosiery—Drawers - - - - -	1044
I. Cutlery of various kinds - - - - -	1044
J. Harness and Saddlery - - - - -	1044
K. Accoutrements - - - - -	1045
L. Cotton, khaki drill - - - - -	1045
M. Tent-duck - - - - -	1045
N. Flannel, various kinds - - - - -	1045
O. Blankets, G.S. - - - - -	1046
P. Making up of tents (various and parts) - - - - -	1046
Q. Waterproof Goods—Ground sheets and saddle covers - - - - -	1046
R. Making up Forage Caps (various kinds) - - - - -	1046
S. Brushes for personal use - - - - -	1047
T. Brushes, other kinds - - - - -	1047
U. Ammunition, Small Arm - - - - -	1047
V. Projectiles - - - - -	1047
W. Cordite - - - - -	1048
X. Guns and Gun Mountings - - - - -	1048
Y. Steel - - - - -	1048

APPENDIX No. LXXXVI.—Continued.

A.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE NUMBER OF MEN EMPLOYED IN THE ORDNANCE FACTORIES AT WOOLWICH, ENFIELD AND WALTHAM ABBEY AT THE BEGINNING OF EACH MONTH FOR THE FOUR YEARS
ENDED MARCH 31st, 1907.

Month.	1903-4.			1904-5.			1905-6.			1906-7.		
	Woolwich.	Enfield.	Waltham Abbey.	Woolwich.	Enfield.	Waltham Abbey.	Woolwich.	Enfield.	Waltham Abbey.	Woolwich.	Enfield.	Waltham Abbey.
April - - - - -	16,009	2,959	1,177	16,322	2,700	1,181	15,323	1,970	1,337	14,704	1,887	842
May - - - - -	15,689	2,850	1,172	16,134	2,689	1,188	15,197	1,956	1,177	14,589	1,978	814
June - - - - -	15,555	2,808	1,171	15,833	2,671	1,219	15,162	1,938	1,107	14,536	1,973	792
July - - - - -	15,510	2,802	1,149	15,585	2,570	1,237	15,120	1,939	1,071	14,376	1,973	788
August - - - - -	15,497	2,763	1,146	15,454	2,528	1,226	15,145	1,904	956	14,019	2,017	782
September - - - - -	15,600	2,728	1,144	15,414	2,505	1,239	15,083	1,908	915	13,968	2,040	781
October - - - - -	15,652	2,702	1,139	15,381	2,412	1,238	14,744	1,899	911	13,877	2,059	779
November - - - - -	15,683	2,712	1,143	15,452	2,398	1,234	14,682	1,889	880	13,713	2,047	775
December - - - - -	15,744	2,746	1,173	15,427	2,388	1,248	14,731	1,875	870	13,538	2,070	772
January - - - - -	15,910	2,762	1,167	15,441	2,386	1,331	14,713	1,865	864	13,494	2,107	778
February - - - - -	16,196	2,782	1,158	15,402	2,398	1,331	14,815	1,861	857	13,509	2,112	776
March - - - - -	16,320	2,728	1,185	15,395	2,382	1,350	14,817	1,864	853	13,429	2,117	773

APPENDIX No. LXXXVI.—Continued.

A 1.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE NUMBER OF MEN EMPLOYED IN THE ARMY INSPECTION DEPARTMENT AT WOOLWICH, ENFIELD, BOW AND BIRMINGHAM AT THE BEGINNING OF EACH MONTH FOR THE FOUR YEARS ENDED MARCH 31st, 1907.

	1903-4.				1904-5.				1905-6.				1906-7.			
	Woolwich.	Enfield.	Bow.	Birmingham.	Woolwich.	Enfield.	Bow.	Birmingham.	Woolwich.	Enfield.	Bow.	Birmingham.	Woolwich.	Enfield.	Bow.	Birmingham.
April- -	1,365	246	32	229	1,362	254	21	266	1,295	187*	63	254*	1,298	148	37	194
May - -	1,267	236	29	225	1,255	254	22	266	1,251	141*	63	227	1,261	192†	37	146†
June - -	1,241	238	27	223	1,209	248	31	266	1,230	147	60	210	1,261	204†	38	122†
July - -	1,241	236	25	223	1,207	244	36	274	1,209	147	59	206	1,250	207	40	138
August -	1,238	236	25	220	1,197	246	43	279	1,195	146	54	191	1,223	206	43	144
September-	1,246	235	27	216	1,201	255	46	289	1,211	147	40	194	1,207	204	43	146
October -	1,289	244	20	216	1,267	266	55	299	1,229	147	40	201	1,187	204	43	150
November -	1,291	245	17	216	1,329	273	56	300	1,274	148	39	202	1,147	203	43	150
December -	1,307	254	8	216	1,326	274	61	301	1,277	149	38	199	1,126	199	43	150
January -	1,328	253	7	216	1,324	273	61	299	1,284	149	37	198	1,117	202	43	149
February -	1,403	252	9	224	1,316	269	63	295	1,287	149	37	196	1,109	202	43	148
March -	1,415	254	10	247	1,307	267	64	295	1,302	149	37	196	1,126	200	56	148

* Decrease due to transfer of component view to Ordnance Factory.

† Sale of Sparkbrook Factory and transfer of repair work to Enfield.

APPENDIX No. LXXXVI.—Continued.

B.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE NUMBERS EMPLOYED IN THE ARMY ORDNANCE DEPARTMENT AT THE UNDERMENTIONED PLACES AT THE BEGINNING OF EACH MONTH FOR THE FOUR YEARS
ENDED MARCH 31st, 1907.

	1903-4.				1904-5.				1905-6.				1906-7.			
	A.O.D. stations generally.	A.O.D. Arsenal.	A.O.D. Dockyard.	Pimlico Clothing Factory.	A.O.D. stations generally.	A.O.D. Arsenal.	A.O.D. Dockyard.	Pimlico Clothing Factory.	A.O.D. stations generally.	A.O.D. Arsenal.	A.O.D. Dockyard.	Pimlico Clothing Factory.	A.O.D. stations generally.	A.O.D. Arsenal.	A.O.D. Dockyard.	Pimlico Clothing Factory.
April -	1,626	1,474	431	3,152	1,539	1,597	481	2,781	1,410	1,529	431	2,523	1,431	1,503	414	2,424
May -	1,631	1,730	442	3,080	1,535	1,581	466	2,772	1,441	1,527	410	2,511	1,431	1,501	412	2,418
June -	1,647	1,707	449	3,017	1,522	1,585	461	2,758	1,462	1,529	399	2,502	1,435	1,495	394	2,428
July -	1,706	1,702	468	2,997	1,593	1,584	477	2,739	1,483	1,527	400	2,481	1,454	1,496	396	2,419
August -	1,725	1,719	465	2,958	1,540	1,576	473	2,706	1,498	1,526	409	2,471	1,477	1,482	402	2,427
September	1,674	1,704	469	2,911	1,611	1,571	473	2,694	1,493	1,528	408	2,449	1,453	1,472	398	2,422
October -	1,708	1,717	473	2,878	1,535	1,572	470	2,657	1,463	1,525	407	2,441	1,436	1,472	400	2,408
November	1,640	1,708	469	2,855	1,509	1,572	468	2,639	1,449	1,523	408	2,421	1,429	1,468	399	2,426
December -	1,621	1,717	472	2,843	1,479	1,572	455	2,623	1,436	1,520	403	2,405	1,426	1,467	417	2,418
January -	1,569	1,701	471	2,823	1,458	1,564	448	2,603	1,435	1,520	404	2,386	1,435	1,466	418	2,420
February -	1,539	1,668	460	2,805	1,476	1,564	443	2,566	1,449	1,518	406	2,397	1,395	1,468	425	2,414
March -	1,572	1,612	497	2,795	1,462	1,557	432	2,546	1,453	1,516	412	2,424	1,371	1,466	442	2,407

APPENDIX No. LXXXVI.—Continued.

C.

ANKLE BOOTS.

(Obtained from Northamptonshire, Leeds and Bristol.)

Date.	Value.	Period of Delivery.
1903-4.	£	
October - - -	103,800	April, 1904, to February, 1905.
1904-5.		
December - - -	97,000	March, 1905, to February, 1906.
1905-6.		
December - - -	129,000	March, 1906, to February, 1907.
1906-7.		
October - - -	21,000	October, 1906, to February, 1907.
January - - -	174,000	March, 1907, to February, 1908.
	195,000	

D.

SERGE AND TARTAN, DRAB MIXTURE.

(Obtained from Scotland, West of England and Yorkshire.)

Date.	Value.	Period of Delivery.
1903-4.	£	
July - - - Serge	25,000	July to December, 1903.
September - - - Tartan	14,700	
September - - - Serge	40,000	March to November, 1904.
September - - - Tartan	68,950	
	148,650	
1904-5.		
September - - - Serge	20,300	March to November, 1905.
1905-6.		
October - - - Serge	32,250	March to December, 1906.
October - - - Tartan	48,900	
	81,150	
1906-7.		
July - - - Tartan	5,700	November, 1906, to January, 1907.
August - - - Serge	11,500	August to November, 1906.
October - - - Serge	64,850	March to December, 1907.
October - - - Tartan	37,500	
	119,550	

E.

MAKING UP OF JACKETS, SERGE, DRAB MIXTURE.

(Obtained from London, Leeds, Limerick, Newcastle, Manchester, Norwich, etc.)

The Value includes the Cost of Material supplied by the Department.

Date.	Value.	Period of Delivery.
1903-4.	£	
August - - -	105,000	August to December, 1903.
March - - -	69,500	March, 1904, to February, 1905.
	174,500	
1904-5.		
March - - -	1,750	March to June, 1905.
1905-6.		
June - - -	3,500	June to September, 1905.
January - - -	7,000	January and February, 1906.
	10,500	
1906-7.		
April - - -	24,500	April to December, 1906.
October - - -	21,500	October, 1906, to March, 1907.
	46,000	

F.

MAKING UP OF TROUSERS, TARTAN, DRAB MIXTURE.

(Obtained from London, Leeds, Limerick, Newcastle Manchester, Norwich, etc.)

The Value includes the Cost of Material supplied by the Department.

Date.	Value.	Period of Delivery.
1903-4.	£	
May - - -	72,750	May, 1903, to February, 1904.
March - - -	43,500	March, 1904, to February, 1905.
	116,250	
1904-5.		
March - - -	3,100	March to October, 1905.
1905-6.		
June - - -	1,500	June to September, 1905.
1906-7.		
April - - -	26,500	April to December, 1906.
October - - -	22,750	October, 1906, to March 1907.
	49,250	

APPENDIX No. LXXXVI.—Continued.

G.

WOOLLEN HOSIERY—SOCKS AND DRAWERS.

(Obtained from Leicester, Belfast and Hawick.)

Date.	Socks, Worsted.	Drawers, Woollen.	Period of Delivery.
	Value. £	Value. £	
1903-4. November	19,500		March to December, 1904.
1904-5. December	33,500		December, 1904, to Dec- ember, 1905.
"		21,000	March, 1905, to February, 1906.
1905-6. August	5,000		September to December, 1905.
January	23,000	28,000	{ Socks—March to Octo- ber, 1906. Drawers—March to Dec- ember, 1906.
	28,000		
1906-7. May		10,500	May to September, 1906.
September	12,000		October, 1906, to January, 1907.
November		8,100	November, 1906, to Feb- ruary, 1907.
December	4,600		December, 1906, to Feb- ruary, 1907.
January	9,600		March to May, 1907.
"		15,500	March to December, 1907.
	26,200	34,100	

H.

COTTON HOSIERY—DRAWERS.

(Obtained from Nottingham and District.)

Date.	Value.	Period of Delivery.
	£	
1903-4. June	4,600	July, 1903, to February, 1904.
December	19,300	March, 1904, to February, 1905.
	23,900	
1904-5. December	13,600	March, 1905, to February, 1906.
1905-6. January	13,400	March to December, 1906.
1906-7. November	3,200	November, 1906, to February, 1907.
January	7,400	March to December, 1907.
	10,600	

I.

CUTLERY OF VARIOUS KINDS.
(Obtained from Sheffield.)

Date.	Value.	Period of Delivery.
	£	
1903-4. October	6,700	Running contract 1 year from 1/1/04.
February	4,400	March to December, 1904.
	11,100	
1904-5. January	3,200	February and March 1905.
1905-6. January	2,250	March to December, 1906.
"	2,600	" "
	4,850	
1906-7. June	1,600	June to December, 1906.
July	500	July to December, 1906.
	460	
October	2,300	Running contract " from 1/3/07.
"	1,600	
November	860	November, 1906, to February, 1907.
"	750	" " "
"	550	" " "
	8,620	

J.

HARNESS AND SADDLERY.

(Obtained from London, Birmingham and Walsall.)

Date.	Value.	Period of Delivery.
	£	
1903-4. October	16,800	October to December, 1903.
"	870	October and November, 1903.
November	1,750	November, 1903, to January, 1904.
February	1,180	February and March, 1904.
March	1,550	April to December, 1904.
	22,150	
1904-5. May	4,440	June to December, 1904.
"	480	May to July, 1904.
June	10,905	June to September, 1904.
"	4,460	June to September, 1904.
March	5,210	April to December, 1905.
	25,495	
1905-6. April	4,870	April to June, 1905.
August	30,000	August to December, 1905.
December	4,600	December, 1905, to April 1906.
	39,470	
1906-7. July	30,900	July to December, 1906.
September	11,400	September, 1906, to January, 1907.
December	3,400	January, 1906, to March, 1907.
	45,700	

APPENDIX No. LXXXVI.—Continued.

K.

ACCOUTREMENTS.

(Obtained from London, Birmingham and Walsall.)

Date.	Value.	Period of Delivery.
1903-4.	£	
October -	8,100	November, 1903, to February, 1904.
" -	3,950	November, 1903, to January, 1904.
" -	51,050	November, 1903, to February, 1904.
January -	2,350	January to March, 1904.
" -	1,275	January to March, 1904.
February	1,500	February to April, 1904.
	68,255	
1904-5.		
May -	900	May and June, 1904.
June -	1,100	June to August, 1904.
November	20,450	November, 1904, to February, 1905.
December	3,700	January to March, 1905.
	26,150	
1905-6.		
September	9,400	September to December, 1905.
January -	7,540	January to April, 1906.
" -	475	January to March, 1906.
February	4,050	February to May, 1906.
March -	4,800	April and May, 1906.
	26,265	
1906-7.		
May -	1,375	May to September, 1906.
" -	750	May to July, 1906.
October -	8,610	October, 1906, to January, 1907.
	10,735	

L.

COTTON KHAKI DRILL.

(Obtained from Manchester.)

Date.	Value.	Period of Delivery.
1903-4.	£	
September	10,500	9 weeks.
December	20,700	March to December, 1904.
January -	5,000	4 weeks.
	36,200	
1904-5.		
August -	4,500	8 weeks.
December	16,250	March to December, 1905.
	20,750	
1906-7.		
November	5,700	10 weeks.
March -	4,500	April to November, 1907.
	10,200	

M.

TENT DUCK.

(Obtained from Aberdeen, Dundee and Brechin.)

Date.	Value.	Period of Delivery.
1903-4.	£	
May -	2,600	3 weeks.
1904-5.		
May -	20,000	16 "
June -	1,700	6 "
October -	2,500	9 "
	24,200	
1905-6.		
May -	8,000	June, 1905, to February, 1906.
August -	1,700	7 weeks.
December -	5,800	7 "
	15,500	
1906-7.		
June -	5,400	17½ weeks.
September	900	11 "
November	2,700	5 "
December -	20,000	20 "
February -	13,800	April to December, 1907.
	42,800	

N.

FLANNEL (VARIOUS KINDS).

(Obtained from Rochdale.)

Date.	Value.	Period of Delivery.
1903-4.	£	
July -	76,000	July, 1903, to February, 1904.
September	49,000	November, 1903, to November, 1904.
March -	1,600	April to November, 1904.
	126,600	
1904-5.		
September	9,500	March to November, 1905.
November	2,200	At once from stock.
	11,700	
1905-6.		
October -	45,000	December, 1905, to December 1906.
1906-7.		
August -	3,600	9 weeks.
October -	24,000	November, 1906, to August, 1907.
November	8,800	November, 1906, to February, 1907.
	36,400	

APPENDIX No. LXXXVI.—Continued.

O.

GENERAL SERVICE BLANKETS.

(Obtained from Dewsbury and District.)

Date.	Value.	Period of Delivery.
1903-4.	£	
April -	35,000	April, 1903, to February, 1904.
1904-5.		
July -	18 000	July, 1904, to February, 1905.
1905-6.		
April -	7,900	15 weeks.
August -	9,700	21 weeks.
March -	18,200	17 weeks.
	35,800	
1906-7.		
January -	9,150	8 weeks.

P.

MAKING UP TENTS (VARIOUS AND PARTS).

The Value includes the Cost of Materials issued by the Department.

(Obtained from London, Hereford and Greenock.)

Date.	Value.	Period of Delivery.
1903-4.	£	
May -	33,000	5 months.
August -	1,400	8 weeks.
October -	14,600	10 "
	49,000	
1904-5.		
May -	21,000	16 weeks.
July -	2,600	3 months.
October -	4,000	6 weeks.
	27,600	
1905-6.		
April -	13,000	June, 1905, to February, 1906.
September	2,700	5 weeks.
December	22,000	12 "
	37,700	
1906-7.		
April -	14,700	31 weeks.
July -	8,700	28 "
August -	2,300	9 "
September	7,300	4 months.
January -	19,500	19 weeks.
	52,500	

Q.

WATERPROOF GOODS—GROUND SHEETS AND SADDLE COVERS.

(Obtained from London, Birmingham, Edinburgh and Manchester.)

Date.	Ground Sheets.	Saddle Covers.	Period of Delivery.
1903-4.	Value. £.	Value. £.	
June -	10,100	850	June to December, 1903.
1904-5.			
May -	—	2,550	10 weeks.
1905-6.			
May -	—	1,800	11 weeks.
January -	5,775	—	29 "
1906-7.			
July -	2,125	5,850	23 weeks.
February -	2,125	285	6 "
	4,250	6,135	

R.

MAKING UP FORAGE CAPS (VARIOUS KINDS).

(The Value includes the Cost of Material supplied by the Department and the Caps were obtained from London and Aldershot.)

Date.	Value.	Period of Delivery.
1903-4.	£.	
June -	11,000	June to December, 1903.
July -	1,700	August, 1903, to February, 1904.
August -	9,700	14 weeks.
	22,400	
1904-5.		
April -	14,000	May, 1904, to February, 1905.
July -	4,500	5 months.
	18,500	
1905-6.		
April -	17,000	21 weeks.
" -	2,250	7 "
September	3,500	8 "
October -	1,900	9 "
December -	7,600	18 "
	42,250	
1906-7.		
May -	29,000	May to August, 1906.
December -	1,000	December, 1906, to March, 1907.
January -	3,100	12 weeks.
" -	2,400	6 "
	35,500	

APPENDIX No. LXXXVI.—Continued.

S.

BRUSHES—FOR PERSONAL USE, SUCH AS CLOTHES,
BOOT BRUSHES, &c., FOR DELIVERY AT PIMLICO.

(Obtained from London, Walsall, Leeds, Belfast,
Liverpool, etc.)

Date.	Value.	Period of Delivery.
1903-4.	£.	
November	1,250	December, 1903, to February, 1905.
"	16,500	January, 1904, to February, 1905.
	17,750	
1904-5.		
November	1,750	December, 1904, to February, 1906.
December	2,500	March, 1905, to February, 1906.
	4,250	
1905-6.		
January	2,000	March to December, 1906
1906-7.		
November	1,175	November, 1906, to February, 1907.
March	2,150	April to December, 1907.
	3,325	

T.

BRUSHES (OF OTHER KINDS FOR DELIVERY AT WOOLWICH).

(Obtained from London, Walsall, Belfast, Glasgow,
Bristol, etc.)

Date.	Value.	Period of Delivery.
1903-4.	£.	
June	4,500	September, 1903, to February, 1904.
1904-5.		
May	22,000	May to December, 1904.
"	4,850	June to December, 1904.
March	2,900	April, 1905, to February, 1906.
	34,250	
1905-6.		
May	5,400	21 weeks.
September	4,500	16 "
January	1,370	8 "
	11,270	
1906-7.		
May	12,500	31 weeks.
"	1,700	7 months.
October	1,200	21 weeks.
November	1,400	16 "
	16,800	

U.

SMALL ARM AMMUNITION.
(Obtained from Leeds and Birmingham.)

Date.	Value.	Period of Delivery.
1904-5.	£.	
April	38,950	June, 1904, to March, 1905.
May	101,116	July, 1904, to February, 1905.
	140,066	
1905-6.		
June	186,202	July, 1905, to April, 1906.
November	15,744	December, 1905, to March, 1906.
January	12,750	January to March, 1906.
	214,696	
1906-7.		
June	79,899	July to December, 1906.
October	18,569	November, 1906, to March, 1907.
December	21,258	January and February, 1907.
February	17,000	February and March, 1907.
	136,726	

V.

PROJECTILES.
(Obtained from Birmingham, Sheffield, Coventry, London,
Newcastle and Durham.)

Date.	Value.	Date for Completion.
1904-5.	£.	
April	100,500	February 26th, 1905.
May	29,700	April 30th, 1905.
June	56,500	March 31st, 1905.
August	18,500	January 31st, 1905.
September	45,100	February 28th, 1905.
October	46,300	June 30th, 1905.
November	8,400	March 31st, 1905.
December	17,600	April 21st, 1905.
January	213,800	November 29th, 1905.
February	47,000	November 12th, 1905.
March	694,200	March 31st, 1907.
Total	1,277,600	
1905-6.		
April	7,400	June 30th, 1905.
May	49,800	May 31st, 1906.
June	10,800	March 31st, 1906.
July	7,900	October 31st, 1905.
September	212,700	May 31st, 1906.
October	5,600	December 31st, 1905.
November	38,900	March 31st, 1906.
December	23,700	May 31st, 1906.
January	Nil	Nil.
February	Nil	Nil.
March	1,000	July 31st, 1906.
Total	357,800	
1906-7.		
May	45,600	March 31st, 1907.
June	25,100	March 14th, 1907.
July	11,400	March 17th, 1907.
August	16,700	March 15th, 1907.
December	4,650	March 31st, 1907.
January	18,000	August 1st, 1907.
February	16,300	June 5th, 1907.
March	2,200	June 27th, 1907.
Total	139,950	

APPENDIX No. LXXXVI.—Continued.

W.

CORDITE.

(Obtained from Essex, Suffolk, Surrey, Kent, Cornwall and Scotland.)

Date.	Value.	Period of Delivery.
1904-5.	£	
April -	2,500	June, 1904.
May -	2,600	May to June, 1904.
May -	165,200	June, 1904, to April, 1905.
May -	2,250	June, 1904
June -	500	August, 1904.
July -	16,300	August, 1904, to February, 1905.
July -	96,900	July, 1904, to April, 1905.
July -	13,600	September, 1904, to January, 1905.
August -	33,000	September, 1904, to March, 1905.
August -	16,200	September to December, 1904.
September	12,900	September to November, 1904.
September	4,400	October to December, 1904.
October -	1,700	November, 1904.
October -	48,000	November, 1904, to June, 1905.
November	2,200	February, 1905.
November	4,000	February, 1905.
November	177,000	November, 1904, to August, 1905.
December	13,000	January to June, 1905.
December	9,200	February and March, 1905.
December	250	January, 1905.
February -	1,200	March, 1905.
March -	800	April, 1905.
	623,700	
1905-6.		
April -	3,800	April and May, 1905.
June -	88,300	July, 1905, to March, 1906.
June -	2,200	July, 1905.
July -	2,600	September, 1905.
September	14,800	October, 1905, to February, 1906.
November	34,000	December, 1905, to May, 1906.
January -	13,300	February, 1906, to March, 1906.
	159,000	
1906-7.		
April -	39,300	May to September, 1906.
May -	6,200	June to September, 1906.
June -	153,400	June, 1906, to June, 1907.
June -	10,000	August to December, 1906.
June -	21,700	August to November, 1906.
July -	51,200	August, 1906, to July, 1907.
October -	1,300	February, 1907.
October -	2,200	November, 1906.
	285,300	

X.

GUNS AND GUN MOUNTINGS.

(Obtained from Sheffield, Manchester and Newcastle.)

Date.	Value.	Period of Delivery.
1904-5.	£	
May - -	18,286	March, 1905, to February, 1906.
June - -	40,071	December, 1904, to August, 1905.
July - -	19,270	January to July, 1905.
July - -	1,686	January to April, 1905.
September	51,475	January to December, 1905.
September	89,392	March to December, 1905.
October -	1,308	April to July, 1905.
October -	86,832	March to May, 1905.
November	55,402	March to August, 1905.
November	1,125	March to September, 1905.
November	15,060	November, 1905.
November	2,400	July, 1905.
December	71,520	April to July, 1905.
December	1,290	June, 1905.
December	222	March, 1905.
February -	740	February, 1905.
March - -	230	June, 1905.
March - -	859,452	June, 1905, to March, 1907.
	1,315,761	
1905-6.		
April - -	400	June, 1905.
June - -	410,790	March to December, 1906.
July - -	26,565	December, 1905, to September, 1906.
August -	5,515	January to April, 1906.
October -	9,750	April to September, 1906.
October -	166,875	February to October, 1906.
November	121,800	October, 1906, to May, 1907.
November	393	January, 1906.
December	8,930	September to March, 1906.
March - -	51,250	April to August, 1907.
March - -	7,850	July, 1906, to February, 1907.
	810,118	
1906-7.		
May - -	8,360	December, 1906, to March 1907.
May - -	2,100	November, 1906.
June - -	21,150	September to October, 1907.
June - -	29,550	November, 1907, to January, 1908.
July - -	121,800	July to October, 1907.
September	1,128	December, 1906, to April, 1907.
September	5,967	February to April, 1907.
September	1,310	April, 1907.
October -	390	April, 1907.
December	80,600	February to June 1908.
December	49,875	February to April, 1908.
December	1,570	June, 1907.
January -	7,700	August to October, 1907.
March - -	31,500	July, 1908.
	363,000	

Y.

STEEL

(Obtained from Sheffield, Birmingham, Leeds, Newcastle, Scotland, etc.)

Date.	Value.
1906-7.	£. s. d.
April - - - -	4,844 7 3
May - - - -	15,500 8 11
June - - - -	3,459 18 3
July - - - -	5,628 14 5
August - - - -	4,754 14 7
September - - -	5,297 19 9
October - - - -	3,995 8 0
November - - - -	5,622 9 2
December - - - -	1,416 0 7
January - - - -	6,384 19 4
February - - - -	9,249 19 1
March - - - -	11,181 8 11
	77,376 8 3

APPENDIX No. LXXXVII.

WAR OFFICE LETTER AND MEMORANDUM AS TO THE FEASIBILITY OF CALLING OUT THE MILITIA DURING THE WINTER MONTHS FOR THEIR ANNUAL TRAINING.

War Office,
London, S.W.
September 12th, 1907.

SIR,—In reply to your letter of the 1st ultimo asking that the Royal Commission on the Poor Laws and Relief of Distress might be furnished with the views of this department as to the feasibility of calling out the Militia during the winter months for their annual training, I am commanded by the Army Council to request you to lay before your Commission the accompanying Memorandum, and, in doing so, to draw their special attention to paragraphs 12 and 13. The Council think it important that the Commission should distinguish clearly between the annual training of the whole Militia and the training (or preliminary drill) of the recruits. The former recurs from year to year during a man's service in the Militia, but is of short duration and will in the future be shorter, while the latter is of longer duration, but does not recur during a man's service.—I have the honour to be, Sir, your obedient servant.

R. H. BRADE.

The Secretary, Royal Commission on the Poor Laws and Relief of Distress,

Scotland House, Victoria Embankment, Westminster, S.W.

WINTER TRAINING OF MILITIA.

1. The present time is not a very favourable one for the consideration of the point raised by the Royal Commission on the Poor Laws and Relief of Distress, *i.e.*, the feasibility of calling out the Militia during the winter months for their annual training, as a measure intended

to remove some portion of the distress which arises from unemployment. The reason why it is unfavourable is that the Militia force as it has hitherto existed is about to undergo a transformation which, when completed, will possibly render much of what might be said in this connection, with regard to the Militia as it is, inapplicable to the Militia as it is proposed it shall become.

2. The utility of having recourse at all to the expedient indicated would appear to depend, from the point of view of the Commission itself (*i.e.*, the social and economic) as distinct from the point of view of the War Office (*i.e.*, the military), largely upon what proportion of the Militia, either as it is or as it may be, are or will be chronically members of those classes, into the unemployment and distress of which the Commission's enquiry is directed. Of the social elements which will enter the Militia force as transformed, when the new system has reached a condition of normal development, it is impossible to say anything; of the social elements which are comprised in the force as it is, it is not possible to say much, but the attention of the Royal Commission on the Poor Laws and Distress is, in this connection, directed to some statistics published with the Report of the Royal Commission on the Militia and Volunteers. These statistics will be found on pages 198, 204, 210 and 218 of the Volume of Appendices to the Minutes of Evidence (Cd. 2064).

3. These statistics were collected in the year 1903, but there is no reason for believing that the broad conclusions which emerge from them are not equally true of the Militia as it is in 1907. At all events, no later information of the kind is available. The following table brings together the statistics:—

	Royal Garrison Artillery.	Royal Engineers.		Infantry.	R.A.M.C.
		Engineers.	Submarines.		
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
(i) Artizans - - - - -	10	29	9	11	45·5
(ii) Miners - - - - -	15	29	2	10	—
(iii) Fishermen - - - - -	3	3	47	4	—
(iv) Mechanical labourers - -	31	27	11	21	21·9
(v) Agricultural „ - - - -	21	3	10	22	5·6
(vi) Other occupations - - -	20	9	21	32	27·
	100	100	100	100	100

The infantry is, of course, the largest arm numerically and therefore the most important. The numbers in the Militia Engineers and R.A.M.C. are, comparatively speaking, inconsiderable.

4. Without laying undue stress on these statistics, which possibly do not give a very scientific classification, the Council think that it may perhaps be assumed that the Militia Commanding Officers, who furnished the returns from which the general percentages given in paragraph 3 were compiled, would have placed in category vi. "other occupations," all those of the men under their command who had no fixed occupation. It results from this that, in the Infantry Militia, 32 per cent. of the strength represents the proportion of that arm who, being

chronically without employment, might conceivably derive benefit, from a breadwinning point of view, from the institution of a system of winter training. It is, however, in the opinion of the Council, a large assumption that the whole of the 32 per cent. may be regarded as belonging to the chronically unemployed. In proportion as the force, in its existing state, consists of men permanently employed, in that degree it does not contribute to the ranks of the chronically unemployed. The Council think there is sufficient reason for believing that the unemployed classes and the Militia only overlap to a small extent, and, if that is true, winter training would not appreciably reduce the total sum of distress due to want of employment.

APPENDIX No. LXXXVII.—*Continued.*

5. The foregoing argument rather assumes that it is only the chronically unemployed members of the Militia who need be considered in this connection. But those who at times suffer from want of employment might be benefited if the training of the units to which they belonged happened to take place at the time when they were out of employment. Universal winter training would not necessarily effect this. The interests of different battalions vary in this respect and, in the case of more than one unit, it has been represented to the Army Council that the men composing it are in more regular employment during the winter than in the summer months.

6. It must be remembered, too, in considering the question of winter training of the Militia as a measure for mitigating distress arising from want of employment, that the prescribed training for the Militia (Artillery and Infantry), though it is somewhat longer for the other arms, is only of twenty-seven days duration.

7. In the opinion of the Council, what has been stated above goes to establish that the adoption of universal winter training for the Militia would not lessen appreciably the total sum of distress from want of employment :—

(a) Because, of the existing Militia there are not, it is considered, a large number of permanently unemployed ;

(b) Because, in the case of those who are during some portion of the year unemployed, the period of unemployment is not in all cases during the winter

8. If the policy of winter trainings for the Militia is adopted with the object of helping the unemployed amongst the general population as distinct from those who are primarily Militiamen and secondarily unemployed, other considerations arise. The Militia would under such circumstances tend to attract and to become a temporary asylum for those unemployed, who probably would not, apart from the fact that they were without employment, ever enter the Militia at all. Such men would form a class of recruits whom most commanding officers do not wish to attract to their units. They would, in their opinion, probably belong mainly to the casual and loafer class and be men not only of no fixed occupation, but also of no fixed home. The Militia rests on a territorial basis and, although its members are probably less fixed to the soil of the counties to whose units they belong than they formerly were, nevertheless, in the interests of the Militia it is desirable that the tendency in this direction should be checked as far as possible rather than encouraged. To whatever extent the policy of winter trainings would fill the ranks of the Militia with casuals and loafers of a more or less nomadic character, to that extent would commanding officers regard it as a measure likely to result in the transformation of their units from military bodies into organizations for administering outdoor relief.

9. From the purely military points of view there are several very important objections to winter training of the Militia. Owing to the state of the country and bad

weather the field training of bodies of men is very difficult. The days being short, it would require in winter a longer period of training to ensure the same amount of efficiency. As every extension of the training involves paying all the men for additional days, this, of course, increases the expense. Musketry training would also be carried out in winter under great difficulties.

10. From an administrative point of view, the chief obstacle in the way of a winter training lies in the difficulty in providing barrack accommodation. The state of the weather makes it quite impossible to put the men under canvas, as is done when training is held in summer, and the majority of commanding officers, on disciplinary grounds mainly, are opposed to billeting.

11. In the previous paragraphs the matter has been considered from the point of view of the rank and file, but from the War Office or Military point of view the interests of the Militia officers have also to be considered. The idea of winter trainings is not popular with the Militia officers, and if the system of winter trainings were adopted for the whole Militia it seems probable that the existing deficiency in officers would be still further increased. Winter training would also be unpopular with a large number of the rank and file, who enjoy the camp life during the training and who look forward to it as an enjoyable outing.

12. An experiment has recently been made which bears to some extent upon the question of winter training raised by the Royal Commission. An extended recruits' training of six months, followed by an extended ordinary training of six weeks, has recently been carried out during the winter and spring in twenty selected Militia battalions. The objects of this experiment were mainly military, viz., to ascertain whether a six months' training could be made of general application without a falling-off of numbers in the Militia and whether recruiting in the line would be seriously affected. The Army Council have not yet received and considered the reports of commanding officers on the results of this experiment, but it is known that there was, as a result, an increase in the number of the recruits who joined the twenty battalions in question during the past year.

13. In view of the approaching reorganisation of the Militia, no steps have recently been taken by the Army Council to consider more closely the question of winter training. The difficulties under the existing organisation are as stated above. In the future it is probable that all recruits will be trained on enlistment for six months and they will be able to do this during the winter. On the other hand the annual training will be shortened to two weeks, with an additional week for musketry. The holding of this two weeks' training in the winter, even if this were done universally, could not, it is considered, have an appreciable effect upon the unemployed problem, but on the other hand the reduction in the duration of the training would make it more than ever undesirable that it should be held in the winter, when the number of hours in a day available for actual field training is so small.

APPENDIX No. LXXXVIII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY R. J. ANGEL, ESQ., M.INST.C.E., A.R.I.B.A., BOROUGH ENGINEER AND SURVEYOR TO THE METROPOLITAN BOROUGH OF BERMONDSEY.

1. Only a small amount of work has been executed as a means of relieving the unemployed since the coming into force of the Unemployed Workmen's Act, but previous to that time a considerable amount was done in Bermondsey.

2. For several years large bodies of men were employed, during the period of winter distress, in re-constructing roads, and a far greater portion were employed for a term of three days apiece. The result of this was that the work came out very expensive, owing to the

fact that the men were not used to the class of work, and when the third day had arrived they were stopped to make room for the fresh men, which was just about the time they had become acquainted with the use of the tools. This was found to be so unsatisfactory that the council decided to pick out a number of men who were physically used to the work, and to employ them continuously on the job until same was completed. The result was a marked improvement, both in the economy of the work, and the manner in which it was carried out.

APPENDIX No. LXXXVIII.—*Continued.*

3. In the first instance, on the basis of a three days' employment, the work which was estimated to cost say £686 for labour with the council's workmen, was anticipated to cost with unemployed labour £858, but it actually turned out to be £1,169, and so on, in similar ratio; but as on the other hand with the men who were picked out as suitable for the work, and employed continuously, the result for the labour came out equal to the estimate for the work to be done by the council's employees. There was a great improvement also in the quality of the work in the second instance.

4. I do not see that this class of work improves the men physically, it has no effect on them, except in the case of the three days' employment. It was found that owing to the indiscriminate selection of the men, the work of using the tools was so hard that some of them became exhausted, owing to their ill-fed condition.

5. With regard to the question of whether the unemployed are encouraged to rely on such work instead of seeking ordinary employment, a large number of men applied to the depots as being the first place of relief, the moment the work became slack in the neighbourhood.

6. The regular employees of the council do not seem to mind the introduction of the unemployed labour, and they are not thrown out of work in consequence.

7. I shall be glad to answer any fuller questions you desire, and beg to enclose a Report of the proceedings of the Joint Committee *re* Unemployed 1904-5, of which pp. 8-9 may be of interest to you.*

8. The only work executed since the coming into force of the Unemployed Workmen Act was the laying-out of a disused burial ground as an open space and recreation ground. The estimate was £833. Owing to variations in the design, subsequent to the order to put the work in hand, the job came out at £778 9s. 6d., towards which we received £300 from the Central Body, the amount, therefore, charged to the borough council being £478 9s. 6d. The whole of the work was carried out by men who were otherwise unemployed, the number being forty, and it took eight weeks and three days. The amount paid to the "unemployed" was £313 2s. 3d. The same men were engaged continuously, and they did their work exceedingly well.

* The report has been summarised by Messrs. Jackson and Pringle. *See* pp. 131-4 of Appendix to Report as to "Unemployed."

APPENDIX No. LXXXIX.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY MR. A. E. CAREY, M.I.C.E.

1. I was engineer of the reclamation works undertaken at Fambridge by the Central (Unemployed) Body for London, and in that capacity had occasion to visit Fambridge at short intervals over a period of about eighteen months. I was not in any way responsible for the arrangements of the Colony or the control of the men. The broad conclusion at which I have arrived, through constantly watching the operation and methods adopted, is that the work of reclamation of land on foreshores and elsewhere is work suited to unemployed labour, but that the question of local supervision is all important. I may say in this respect at Fambridge I noted a marked improvement during the last six months of the operations. Great care is also, I think, necessary in the preliminary selection of men sent on work of this character. Among the ranks of the unemployed are men of every grade and condition of life, and, more especially in the early period of the work, I think a more severe selection of the men sent down would have been judicious. Organisation is all important, and I think the management of a Colony should be kept distinct from engineering control. It is doubtless somewhat difficult to draw a dividing line, but with suitably selected local officers this can, I think, be done.

2. The cost of reclamation work carried out with unemployed labour must of a necessity be extremely high, as compared with ordinary contract work. I see no reason to doubt that sound work can be secured when

unemployed labour is adopted, but, in my judgment, it is necessary to stiffen the unemployed labour by engaging a considerable proportion of skilled "wallers," that is men whose regular vocation it is to carry out such work. By this means the unskilled portion of the work can be entrusted to the unemployed and the more difficult given to skilled men. This plan was adopted at Fambridge with complete success, and, so far as I am aware, no clashing between the two classes of workers occurred. Granted a well-devised organisation, suitable control and careful selection in the work to be attempted, I am of opinion that reclamation work is well suited to unemployed labour.

3. The reclamation at Fambridge was an operation of extreme difficulty; certain portions of the work had of necessity to be carried out by contract, and unemployed labour does not lend itself to rapidity of execution which, on difficult jobs, is often a matter of vital urgency. I think it would be possible to organise this class of labour in such a manner that the best of the unemployed should, after a period of probation and training, be paid a wage and be recognised as more or less skilled "wallers." This would be a considerable incentive to the best men, which the present system does not afford. It would also obviate the necessity of turning men adrift after a given number of weeks, by which time they have more or less acquired skilled training. Under present arrangements these men have to be replaced by raw hands.

APPENDIX No. XC.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO DISTRESS DUE TO UNEMPLOYMENT, BY MR. WILLIAM DAWSON, DEPUTY CITY SURVEYOR, BRADFORD.

1. I had charge of the special work provided by the Bradford Corporation for the relief of distress due to unemployment, prior to the passing of the Unemployed Workmen Act.

2. Work was commenced for the relief of the unemployed on January 22nd, 1903, and extended, off and on, to January 27th, 1906. During the period extending

from October 17th, 1904, to January 27th, 1906, 1,973 men were found employment, and the amount paid to them in wages was £11,902, and the total sum paid for labour, including payments to ordinary workmen and team labour, was £20,609.

3. The work provided included the making of new roads, and the widening of existing roads, the laying out

APPENDIX No. XC.—*Continued.*

of recreation grounds and allotment gardens, and also bowling-greens at various parks, and the excavation work required in the extension of the town hall, fever hospital, and other public buildings.

4. The tramways in the City of Bradford were constructed by the corporation and leased to two tramway companies, but in 1900 the corporation made arrangements with the two companies to take over the leases, with a view to the electrification of the then existing tramways and the construction of various extensions. This work was commenced in 1900 and extended to 1906. During that period £499,741 was expended in carrying out this work.

5. The effect of doing this work during that period was to attract to Bradford a great amount of outside labour, and when the work was finished a number of the men remained in Bradford.

6. The men engaged on the work provided for the unemployed consisted as a rule of machine wool combers, dyers' labourers, and others employed in the textile factories of this district. They were paid the standard

rate of wages usually paid to outside labourers, of 6d. per hour, which was in many cases more than they were receiving when they followed their regular employment.

7. They were treated with kindness and firmness, and if they showed willingness to work they received every encouragement, and very little trouble arose in the management of the men, but they were unable to do the amount of work that the ordinary labourer would have done, and in my opinion the works carried out by the corporation cost more than they would have done had the usual kind of labour been employed.

8. The corporation commenced all the works they possibly could for the relief of distress arising from unemployment during the period to which I have referred.

9. The effect of this was to reduce the amount of work which would have been done by the labourers usually employed by the corporation, and as a matter of fact some of the regular corporation labourers were walking about the streets of Bradford, out of work, at the time when these works were in progress, as they declined to register their names at the labour bureau.

APPENDIX No. XCI.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY MR. M. W. JAMESON, A.M.Inst.C.E., ENGINEER TO BOROUGH OF STEPNEY.

1. I may say at the outset that all relief works carried out by this Council have been prior to the passing of the Unemployed Workmen Act. In a borough like Stepney it is practically impossible to provide suitable work remunerative in character, such as the formation of new streets, there being no scope for further development.

2. In the past, work has been provided for all applicants, conditionally upon their being residents in the Borough. Very few of the men worked for any considerable period, relays being taken on from time to time owing to the large number of applicants to be dealt with, so that it was not possible to note any improvement in their physique as a result of the short time they were employed. It should be borne in mind that in many cases relief is merely a temporary expedient for alleviating distress during the rigours of winter, so that for men who remain unemployed from various causes, a short term of regular work would scarcely have any lasting beneficial results.

3. Experience shows that all are not equally desirous of employment as, in the most ordinary labouring work, men in a few instances return their implements within two hours of making a start. It would appear that about 45 per cent. of the applicants are capable and willing to work and earn their wages; the remainder can only be classed as non-efficient. It has been observed that continuity of labour tends to eliminate those who are incapable and indolent; many, in fact, were unsuited

to the work owing to physical disability and want of stamina.

4. The most profitable occupation available for the employment of a promiscuous body of men in addition to the ordinary staff was found to be street paving, and the defective condition of several macadamised roads afforded an outlet for the employment of a considerable number of unskilled workmen. In the winter of 1904-5 a concrete river wall at the Council's wharf was constructed, by far the greater part of the labourers being recruited from the ranks of the temporary men. Road scavenging was also resorted to as a measure of relief, and in 1904 the Council decided to replace the road-sweeping machines by hand labour. This course, although not financially a success, was adopted in consequence of the exceptional distress prevailing at the time, and continued without cessation from December 1st, 1904, to March 31st, 1905. A large number of men also received work in connection with the clearance of snow, and in all cases the work done by the unemployed was carried out in conjunction with the regular employees of the Council.

5. The cost is not proportionate to the value of the unemployed labour, as the inevitable inexperience of an indiscriminate assembly of workless men of all trades heavily discounts their usefulness. By no means are they encouraged to rely solely on this work for sustenance.

APPENDIX No. XCII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO RATING AND LAND TENURE IN CONNECTION WITH UNEMPLOYMENT, BY WILLIAM R. LESTER, M.A.

1. I have for many years given close attention to the questions of poverty and unemployment, more especially in their relationship to our systems of land tenure and taxation. I have written pamphlets dealing with these questions from this point of view. I am president of the English League for the Taxation of Land Values, and member of the parish council, Clifton, Bedfordshire.

2. I do not propose to deal with the facts of unemployment or with the distress that arises therefrom. I assume

that the existence of both is admitted, and that they are a standing menace to present institutions.

3. No society can indefinitely continue if threatened by a class who either find it impossible to get work at all, or whose chances of doing so become more and more precarious. In my view, two of the underlying causes of unemployment are the present systems of rating and land tenure. I deal first with the rating system and its effect on employment.

APPENDIX No. XCII.—*Continued.*

4. In final analysis employment can only be secured through access, direct or indirect, to land; but the use of land is distinctly discouraged by our present system of rating, for, if an owner only imperfectly develops his property, he has to bear a lesser burden of rates than if he puts it to its most productive use. Landlords are thus discouraged from developing the resources of their estates, and as estates cannot be developed without employing labour, our present system of rating amounts to a fine on the employment of labour. Whether the owner of the land do the work himself or whether he hire the labour, in either case our present system of rating discourages employment, and therefore ultimately leads to unemployment.

5. Land, whether urban or rural, can be developed in one way alone, viz., by working on it. At present the burden of the rates increases automatically in measure as the landlord or his tenant develops and employs labour on the land, which is equivalent to saying that the burden rises automatically as labour is employed.

6. When we bear in mind that rates vary from 4s. to as much as 20s. in the £ of rental, we realise how this at least is one potent cause of unemployment. Under the present system a vacant site, near a town, however much it may be wanted for the employment of labour, either escapes assessment altogether or is assessed at little more than its agricultural value, but no sooner is labour employed on it in building a factory, tenement, school, farmhouse, or for any other useful purpose, than the combined value of site and building is entered in the valuation roll, and this forms the basis of charge. The rate payable on the building is equivalent to an increase in its cost, and is therefore added to its rent, so that in places where the rates amount to 6s. 8d. in the £, £9 has to be paid for a house which, but for the rates, would rent at £6. The higher rent of houses thus brought about means that the effective demand for them is correspondingly reduced and, therefore, fewer buildings erected. This implies a lessened demand for the services of builders and the trades dependent on them.

7. As showing how this system of rating tends to discourage employment, the following facts may be quoted:—In 1901 Sir Samuel Montague, Bart., M.P., offered to the London County Council as a free gift an estate of about twenty-five acres at Edmonton, to be devoted to the erection of dwellings for the working class. The council's standing orders prohibit the carrying out of building schemes unless there is a reasonable prospect that the rents received will cover all expenses, including interest and sinking fund to liquidate the capital outlay. The policy of the council has always been to avoid throwing any loss upon the rates in connection with their dwellings. After very careful calculations, the council was most reluctantly compelled to decline the gift, because the development of this estate, notwithstanding the exclusion of land value from the question, would have thrown upon the London rates a charge of over £700 per annum. The largest estimated item of outgoing was one of over £2,000 in respect of rates. Had the value of the houses been excluded from the basis of rating and land value alone been taken as the basis, this item would have been reduced more than one-half, and the estimated deficiency would have been converted into a surplus, but under the existing system of rating houses could not be erected on this land, even when got for nothing, on a remunerative basis. Labour, therefore, was forced to go idle and the much-needed houses remained unbuilt.

8. To further illustrate how production and employment are discouraged by the present system of imposing rates in measure as good use is made of land, I take the case of the Penrhyn Quarries which, owing to a dispute, partly stopped operations in 1902. The following are the figures before and during the dispute, and it will be seen from them that the rateable value of the quarry was reduced from £24,800 to £10,514 on the ground that the production had diminished. This was equivalent to an invitation from the rating authority to the proprietor to restrict the production and amount of employment available.

9. Suppose that the assessment committee had held and exercised the power to refuse this reduction, and had instead—looking only to the public value of the quarry and its use as an opportunity for giving employment—insisted on levying a rate on its full value.

10. The pressure of local taxation would then have had precisely the opposite effect to what it now has. That is, its tendency would have been to keep the quarries fully employed instead of shut down as they were.

COUNTY RATE BASIS.—*Penrhyn Quarries*

	Gross.	Rateable Value.
1899— <i>Valuation.</i>		
Slate Quarry, 96,000 tons @ 5/2 - - - -	24,800	24,800
Buildings, Machinery and Plant - - - -	3,229	2,177
	28,029	26,977
Port Penrhyn Railway -	824	661
Port Penrhyn - - -	1,628	1,428
	30,481	29,066
1902— <i>Altered by Quarter Sessions.</i>		
Slate Quarry, 40,700 tons @ 5/2 - - - -	10,514	10,514
Buildings, Machinery and Plant - - - -	3,229	2,177
	13,743	12,691
Port Penrhyn Railway -	824	661
Port Penrhyn - - -	1,628	1,428
	16,195	14,780

11. As further showing how our present system of rating improvements checks the demand for labour, and how the reverse would be the case under a reformed system where improvements were excluded from the basis of taxation, take the case of three plots of land each of equal value:—

No. 1 is being used for the erection of labourers' cottages, and so providing a maximum of employment.

No. 2 is being used as a market garden, and so giving a fair amount of employment, though less than No. 1.

No. 3 is unoccupied, and therefore providing no employment.

12. Our present system of including all structures and improvements in the basis of assessment entails the heavy rating of No. 1, the lesser rating of No. 2, and the complete exemption of No. 3. It therefore penalises the employment of labour by raising the burden of the rates as the owner of each subject is enterprising in making the best use of his opportunity.

13. The reformed system which I advocate is to exclude improvements from the basis of rating and to make land value alone the basis. Notice what this would mean in the case of these three plots. As, by hypothesis, they are of equal value, they would therefore bear an equal burden of rates. The uses to which the subjects were put would not enter into the reckoning.

14. The effect on the labour question of this change in the basis of rating would be that No. 1 would be relieved of much of the burden it now bears, so that the building of cottages and the employment of labour would be stimulated where it is at present impeded. The position of No. 2 might not be much altered, but No. 3, which previously escaped altogether, would now be called upon to contribute to the rates and would therefore be pushed

APPENDIX No. XCII.—*Continued.*

into productive use. That use might be the building of cottages or it might be market gardening, but in any case it would mean the widening of the field for employment and a lessening of the distress caused by unemployment due to the growth of the demand for labour.

15. I therefore suggest that our present system of raising public revenue from improvements is a serious cause of distress, because it tends to check work at its source. By adding to the cost of production it lessens the number of persons who can afford to buy labour products. This leads to a diminished production of these things, and consequently to loss of employment.

16. I also call attention to the adverse effect of our rating system on the development of building sites on the outskirts of growing towns. In these situations the value of the buildings is much greater than the value of the land they occupy, so that by the inclusion of the buildings in the rateable value the development of these outlying districts is retarded. If the land value alone were taken as the basis of assessment, the districts around growing towns would be more quickly developed and a correspondingly greater demand for labour would arise.

17. Another and closely related cause of distress is the system of land tenure now prevailing. Industries may be divided into two categories:—

- (i) Primary or extractive.
- (ii) Secondary or manufacturing.

18. By the primary industries I mean those which depend for their existence on direct access to the earth, such as agriculture, mining, and building. By the secondary industries I mean those which treat the raw material supplied to them by the primary industries and work them up into finished articles; like engine-building, weaving, or baking. The distinctive characteristic of the primary industries is that they must have direct access to the land, so that in measure as obstacles are put in the way of such access these industries are obstructed. But our present system of land tenure does impose obstacles, for not only is it common to demand very burdensome terms for the use of land, but in some cases leave of use is refused on any terms whatever. In and around growing towns the rent commonly asked for the use of land on lease or to feu is not the economic value of the land at the present time, but the value the owner anticipates it will have at some future time after further growth of the district has taken place. Thus many industries which are established to-day are over-rented, and to that extent their operations are hampered. Much as this speculative rent restricts the demand for labour, it is not the worst that happens. It is not so injurious as where the use of land is altogether refused, as in the case of sporting estates or where land is held up for a rise in rapidly growing districts. In all such cases employment of any kind is, of course, absolutely barred and would-be workers being forced into the ranks of the unemployed keep down the wages of those in work. The unnatural kind of competition which arises in consequence of these things is an immediate cause of poverty and distress.

19. I have personal knowledge of a coalfield which has been unworked for years and is still unworked, not because of the absence of capital and labour ready to develop it, or because the coal is not wanted, but because the royalties demanded by the superior are prohibitive under existing conditions. If terms were granted which would give fair prospects of profit to the lessee, employment would be found in this case for an extra 200 hands, but, as a matter of fact, this source of employment being closed down, 200 men must now be competing for work elsewhere, and to that extent depressing the wage level in general. It is through the operation of causes like this that the demand for labour is restricted. I believe that cases like this are by no means uncommon, but it should be noted that to depress the wage level it is not necessary that the number of unemployed be large, because a comparatively few men kept out of work or irregularly employed are sufficient to make their presence felt over the whole labour market. The shutting up of a few natural opportunities is enough for the purpose. The competition of the unemployed men with those who have work is sufficient to affect the wage

level over the whole field of industry and to account for distress and uncertainty of employment among large masses of people. Suppose the wage for common labour in any particular industry is 3s. per day, and that a few unemployed men nearly as efficient as those in work offer their services for 2s., it is clear that the wages of the former must fall to say 2s. 6d. at the highest, or the inferior labourers will be the cheaper workers. I call special attention to one of the provisions usually entered by landlords in mineral leases, and suggest that were the State to make a similar stipulation with ground landlords in general no land for which there is a demand could long remain idle. I refer to the "dead rent" clause in mineral leases, under which the lessee agrees to pay the ground landlord (or superior) a fixed sum whether he is winning coal or not. The landlord's motive in inserting this clause in the lease is, of course, to make certain that the lessee will work the field.

20. Now, if the State were in like manner to make it a condition of ownership that all landlords (or superiors) should pay to the community a "dead rent" commensurate with the value of their natural opportunities, it is certain that the tendency would be to encourage the proper development of all lands and to increase the demand for labour.

21. The general application of this plan to all landlords would be "the taxation of land values."

22. In further illustration of how want of work is bound up with the present system of land tenure, I refer to the crofters in the western parts of Inverness-shire.

23. They complain that their standard of comfort is lower than it should be owing to the smallness of their crofts, and that the reason for this smallness is that much good land, quite suitable for cultivation, is at present under deer forest. This gives rise to what in effect is a land famine, which not only reduces the standard of comfort of the crofters, but accounts for the existence of the "cotter," i.e., the landless class.

24. The landless cotter class being denied the chance of employing themselves have to seek for work from sheep farmers, etc., at a low wage, and as this is not always forthcoming, many of them have to migrate to the industrial centres of Scotland, there to compete for work, keep down wages, and aggravate distress. This is typical of what goes on in greater or less degree throughout the country. The remedy is to bring into full use land now withheld from use or only partially used. The most effective means of accomplishing this would be to remove the present rates and taxes from improvements and concentrate them on the value of the land as divested of such improvements. The result would be the absorption of the unemployed and a rise in the wage level consequent on their withdrawal from the competition with those in work. Wages are governed by the ratio between the number of men seeking employment and the amount of employment available. I have tried to show that our land system, by making work artificially scarce, increases the number of the former in relation to the latter.

25. Turning now to the secondary industries, there also the field of employment is artificially restricted for the same reason. These industries are dependent on the primary industries because they are fed by them. Biscuit-making cannot be carried on without wheat, and engine-building will come to a stop in the absence of coal and iron. In measure as the primary industries are checked through difficulty in securing the use of land, so far is the demand for the products of the secondary industries adversely affected, because the general consuming capacity is lessened.

26. The proximate cause of enforced idleness with one set of men may be the cessation of demand on the part of other men for what they produce. Men in the secondary trades, who do not need to be in direct touch with the land, are often thrown out of work because men in the primary trades are denied access to land. There is thus no effective demand by the latter for the products of the former. In other words, the withholding of land causes unemployment and slackness of trade, not only in such industries as farming, building, or mining, but also in tailoring,

APPENDIX No. XCII.—*Continued.*

watchmaking, printing, and bicycle-making. If out-of-work agriculturists, miners, and builders, who are at present prevented from working on the land, were allowed to do so, they would not only employ themselves, but would employ workers in every other kind of trade as well.

27. Where, in all trades, men willing to work cannot find the opportunity of doing so, it must be because, in the primary trades which create a demand for and supply the raw materials for all other trades, labour is shut out from the land. I quote the following personal experience in a northern manufacturing town.

28. In one of the overcrowded quarters two unemployed builders' labourers were noticed engaged in turning a barrel-organ. The audience were the overcrowded inmates of the overcrowded houses, and the out-of-work labourers happened to stand on a vacant "eligible building site." The scene gave rise to the query as to why the builders' labourers were not engaged in building houses on the "eligible building site" for the people who needed them, and the two-fold answer came that an almost impossible price was asked for leave to use the site and that even in the event of houses being built and occupied they were forthwith subject to rates amounting to 8s. in the £. Not only was there urgent need for the houses, but labour and capital were ready to supply them. The vacant site was also there. Here were all the necessary elements for the solution of the problem, but still it remained unsolved; first, because of a vicious system of land tenure which encourages the withholding of land from use, and, secondly, because of a burdensome system of rating which imposes a penalty on the building of houses. If, instead of imposing taxes on the houses, the vacant site had been taxed on its value as bare land it would quickly give employment to the labourers and tradesmen by coming into use, and at the same time the rents of the houses would be reduced at least to the extent of the abolished taxes, or in this case by fully one-third. The effect would be that the unemployed builders would find work and the overcrowded people would get houses at more reasonable rents. And once more there would be a tendency towards a higher level of wages through the absorption of unemployed men. My desire is to bring into sharp contrast the anomaly of a demand for houses existing alongside a slackness in the building trade, and to suggest the reason for it.

29. In evidence of what can be done even by a partial application of the principle I advocate, I refer to the "Papers Relative to the Working of Taxation of the Unimproved Value of Land in New Zealand, New South Wales, and South Australia," published in a Blue-book, issued by Government (C.D. 3191), November, 1906.

30. Dealing with New South Wales, I extract the following from page 22:—

"The operation of the tax (the tax on land values) has been to a certain extent to reduce the value of house property, and in a stronger sense has affected the value of land held for purely speculative purposes. It has had the effect of forcing large areas of country lands on the market which otherwise might have been allowed to remain inactive, and in this way the producing interests of the country have been benefited."

Page 23:—"The tax has considerably affected land held solely for speculation and has compelled many owners to sell for a lower figure than previously required.

"In the city and suburbs very little land speculation has been in operation. Buyers now, in view of the land tax, mostly secure properties with the definite idea of speedily making a home and not, as heretofore, waiting for a rise in land values."

31. Page 24, New Zealand:—"There can be no doubt whatever that the total exemption of improvements on land from all rates and taxes has led to a very large increase in the outlay on improvements, which comprise materials and labour, and the beneficial effect of this on trade and the demand for labour has been great. It is estimated that the expenditure on buildings since 1893 amounts to £17,000,000, free from all rates and taxes, except in those cases where the local authorities have not yet adopted the rating of unimproved values."

Page 26, New Zealand:—"The effect has certainly been to greatly stimulate the building trade. The object and tendency of this system of taxation is to compel land being put to its full use, so that the greatest amount of income may be derived from it, and rendering it unprofitable to hold land for prospective increment in value. It has been the direct cause of much valuable suburban land being cut up and placed on the market . . . The effect on urban and suburban land has been very marked. It has compelled owners of these to build or sell to those who would; it has thus caused a great impetus in the building trade. An owner of land occupied by buildings of little value, finding that he has to pay the same rates and taxes as an owner having his land occupied by a valuable block of buildings, must see that his interests lay in putting his land to its best use. The rebuilding of this city (Wellington), which for some years past has been rapidly going on, is largely attributed to the taxation and rating on land values, so that the supply of building materials could not at times keep pace with the demand."

APPENDIX No. XCIII.

MEMORANDUM and tabular Statement prepared by the Local Government Board showing extent to which Guardians have resorted to exceptional measures for the Relief of Distress arising from Want of Employment.

1. In order to comply with the request of the Royal Commission, the Board have requested the General Inspectors to report to what extent and with what results Boards of Guardians have since 1886 had recourse to Labour Yards, Workhouse Farms, or other special means of providing relief for able-bodied persons out of employment.

2. Reports which have been summarised in the accompanying table have accordingly been received in respect of most of the Inspectors' districts. Owing to vacancies in the office of Inspector, reports could not be obtained as regards Districts Nos. 2 and 13, comprising the Union Counties of Kent, Sussex, Durham, Northumberland and the North Riding of York, together with parts of Surrey and Cumberland. Moreover, Mr. Bagenal, the Inspector for the East and West Ridings of Yorkshire, has confined his enquiries to 21 of the larger unions in his district, and Mr. Wethered, whose district includes the County of Gloucester and parts of Herefordshire, Somersetshire, Staffordshire, Wilts and Worcestershire has limited his enquiries to ten Unions.

3. Besides the Unions enumerated in the accompanying table work has been provided by the Corporation or District Council or by a specially constituted "Town Committee" for persons sent by the Guardians as being unemployed in seven Unions, namely Bramley, Cheltenham, Kidderminster, King's Lynn, Ringwood, Sculcoates and Winchester; and work at a labour test is, particularly in the northern counties, available in many Unions throughout the year for persons who claim to be unemployed. This practice usually appears only when the Outdoor Relief Regulation Order is in force, but is found where the Prohibitory Order has been supplemented by an Outdoor Labour Test Order. On the view that these permanently open tests are not covered by the term used by the Royal Commission, but are rather a part of the ordinary machinery of relief, they are not, as a rule, mentioned in the accompanying statement. Nineteen Unions in which such a test is always available are mentioned in the report for No. 11 District and six in that for No. 12 District.

Local Government Board,

Whitehall, S.W.

18th February, 1908.

APPENDIX No. XCIII.—Continued.

HANDED in by the Local Government Board.

TABLE showing Extent to which Guardians have Resorted to Exceptional Measures for the Relief of Distress arising from Want of Employment.

Poor Law Union.	Month of Opening Yard.	Duration in Weeks of Yard.	Task.	Scale of Relief.	Numbers.	Cost of Relief.	Observations.
No. 1 DISTRICT.—34 UNIONS, 14 LABOUR YARDS.							
Bermondsey	January 1895	11½	Stonebreaking	3s. 6d. per day	Daily average: 893	£ 10,782	Opening due to the election pledges of the new Board. At one time as many as 85 temporary officers were required. Total cost, £17,000.
Croydon	December 1885	23	—	—	Men. 339	185	Relief all in kind.
	November 1886	22	—	—	Persons. 1,654	1,383*	*? Add cost of dinners, £66.
	November 1887	21	—	—	1,316	1,725	—
	January 1889	15	—	—	991	2,142	Five days work per week were required in lieu of three.
	December 1894	4	—	—	811	—	Net cost.
Fulham	January 1904	9	—	Per week.	Men. 96	—	Also relieved:—
	November 1905	18	—	s. - - - 6s. 3d.	Persons. 509	—	Without task. "Sudden and urgent."
	November 1906	17	Stonebreaking, 8 bushels	m. - - - 6s. 3d.	72	—	Men. Persons.
	1904-5	—	Stonebreaking and wood-chopping.	c. - - - 1s.	—	—	1904-5 27 - 140 - 26 - 141
Hackney	December 1886	19	—	—	Daily Average.	812	In 1902-3-4-5 unemployed were also given painting work at wages by the Guardians, the numbers being:
	October 1887	29	—	—	98	1,803	Men employed.
	January 1889	12	—	—	126	342	Total average.
	February 1894	6	—	Per Day.	80	166	1903 - 45 - 15 - - 108
	January 1895	11	(Stonebreaking 6 cwt.,	m. and 1 c. - 1s. 0d.	51	687	1904 - 20 - 20 - - 45

APPENDIX No. XCIII.—Continued.

Table showing Extent to which Guardians have Resorted to Exceptional Measures for the Relief of Distress arising from Want of Employment - continued.

Poor Law Union.	Month of Opening Yard.	Duration, in Weeks of Yard.	Task.	Scale of Relief.	Numbers.	Cost of Relief.	Observations.
Hammersmith	December 1905	17	Levelling	—	Average per week. (Some working very short time.)	400	The Local Government Board sanctioned a loan for this purpose and the employment of "unemployed."
	April 1905	78	Test work at Guardians' Offices.	—	24.0	—	
	January 1906	7	Pulling down temporary buildings.	—	5.3	56	
Kensington	January 1905	2	—	—	9.0	—	Three days work required per week : Applicants - - - - - 183 Disqualified as unmarried - - - 15 Accepted but not working - - - 43 Actually working - - - - - 125 February : Of 122 applicants, 46 had been applicants in January.
	February 1905	2	—	—	Average per day : 45 - Total persons : 639 -	150	
Lewisham	September 1885	32	—	—	421	—	In 1902-3 the Borough Council employed a daily average of 110 extra men, and in 1904-5 a daily average of 113 men.
	October 1886	28	—	—	441	—	
	October 1887	30	—	—	590	—	
	October 1888	22	—	—	394	—	
	December 1890	9	—	—	281	—	
	December 1892	11	—	—	283	—	
	November 1893	17	—	—	3.56	—	
	October 1894	16	—	—	709	1,510	
	February 1905	14	—	—	2,981	—	
Paddington	February 1906	14	—	—	466	—	Test work has been constantly provided at the Workhouse for about 10 years. The figures given relate to periods of greatest stringency. At the end of 1905 the arrangements were revised.
	February 1907	14	—	—	714	—	
	February 1907	14	—	—	—	—	
St. Pancras	November 1885	26	—	Per day.	—	—	Relief also given by R.O.'s from a fund formed by subscriptions (£157) to 21 men. *Including relief in kind to 549 men not set to work. Relieved as "sudden and urgent," 1902, 29; 1903, 33; 1904, 62; 1905, men employed at wages by Guardians.
	November 1886	26	—	s. - - - - - 7d.	—	—	
	November 1887	17	—	m. - - - - - 9d.	—	—	
	November 1887	17	—	1 c. - - - - - 3d.	—	—	
	February 1905	2	Stonebreaking,	2 c. - - - - - 6d.	Daily average : 50 - Maximum in one week : 266	412 209*	
				3 c. - - - - - 9d.			
				4 c. - - - - - 11d.			
				5 c. - - - - - 1s. 1d.			
				6 c. - - - - - 1s. 3d.			

Poole Borough	February 1897	6	Three yards	-	-	Average : Daily, 559 ; Weekly, 9.0 ; Total, 1939.	£. 2,252	These are cases returned as "unemployed." There were also 306 "workhouse" cases.
	April 1904	104 (The colony is still open.)	Laid on	-	-	257	-	
Southwark	Early winter.	-	Wood-chopping Stonebreaking, etc. (at Workhouse.)	-	-	Maximum for three years 61 Jan. '06.	-	About £8,000 per winter is spent by the Borough on relief works. 40 per cent. of the men coming from the Guardians. Relief is given on a test at the Workhouse (2 days per week).
Wandsworth	? January 1886 1887 January 1891	13 8 7	{ Excavating foundations (8 hours) Possibly some sand sift- ing later.	2s. 6d. per day. - Per day.	200 ? Possibly none. Per day 92.3	Wages, £949 (Total cost, £1,359)		A loan had been sanctioned for this work, and on the Guardians proposing to refer unemployed men to the contractor the L.G.B. suggested as the better course the direct employment of labour.
	December 1892 March 1893 November 1893 December 1894	13 3 13 21	{ Stone (8 cwt.) Yard and sand sifting (8 hours). Later (7 hours) - { Then (8 hours) -	{ s. m. 1c. - 1s. 3d. m. 2c. - 1s. 4d. m. 3c. - 1s. 6d. m. 4c. - 1s. 7d. m. 5c. - 1s. 8d. m. 6c. - 1s. 9d. m. over 6c. - 1s. 10d. - 2s. 5d.	68 - 126 105			Single men were at times excluded. 4 days' work weekly.
	October 1904	21	Stoneyard (7 hours) 8 cwt. -	{ m. - 0s. 10d. 1c. - 0s. 2d. each other c. 0s. 4d.	Total persons. Men. 4,202 7,335	- £2,925		4 days' work, no single men or widowers admitted. Later, owing to pressure, 3 days' only.
	November 1904	18	Work on land -	4s. 0d. - per day.	Average. 20 men.	Total cost. £371		1905-6. Modified test in force. Offered to 15 men, but refused by all.
West Ham	November 1887 November 1888 December 1889 December 1890 January 1892 October 1892 October 1893 December 1894	29 24 20 21 21 27 31 23	- - - - - - -	- - - - - - -	- - - - - - -	- - - - - - -		

APPENDIX No. XCIII.—*Continued.*Table showing Extent to which Guardians have Resorted to Exceptional Measures for the Relief of Distress arising from Want of Employment—*continued.*

Poor Law Union.	Month of Opening Yard.	Duration in Weeks of Yard.	Task.	Scale of Relief.	Numbers.	Cost of Relief.	Observations.
West Ham— <i>cont.</i>	January 1904	4	Trades and yard	Daily. m. 1 c. - 1s. 8d. m. 2 c. - 1s. 10d. m. 3 c. - 2s. 2d. m. 4 c. - 2s. 6d. m. 5 c. - 2s. 10d. s. - 3s. 0d. s. - 1s. 2d. Good Character. s. - 1s. 2d. m. - 1s. 10d. c. - 4d. Bad Character. s. - 4d. m. - 1s. 4d. c. - 3d. Later in all cases. m. - 1s. 6d. c. - 3d.	Daily Average. 249 - 171 - 89 - 67 - 82 - 184 - 335 - 345 - Daily Maximum. 415 - 261 - 137 - 154 - 155 - 304 - 511 - 592 -	—	Usually (except in 1887-8, when 6 days) open for 3 days per week.
	January 1905	12	Farm work at Forest House.		894 - 1,199 -	— £3,856	3 days a week, later 2 days. At Forest House the men were very disorderly.
	December 1905	20	Trades, etc., and farm and road work at Forest House	—	968 - 1,095	£3,582	Open only 2 days per week.
Woolwich	? 1889 ? 1894-5 ? 1902 ? 1904-5 ? 1905-6 ? 1906-7	— — — 21 19	— { Stonebreaking, Later, for all but refractory men, planting, levelling, etc. }	— — — — — —	A few sporadic cases - — — 101 71	— — — — — —	A reference by an R.O. suggests that a labour test was regularly available in the winter. Of 37 offered the workhouse, only 6 accepted. The R.O.'s regard the increase as due to agitation rather than distress, but consider the distress of 1905-6 less than that of 1906-7.

No. 2 DISTRICT.—48 UNIONS.

No Report.

No. 3 DISTRICT.—50 UNIONS, 2 LABOUR YARDS.

				Per day.			Total.		
				s.	m.	c.			
King's Norton	February 1894	65	Stonebreaking (12 cwts.) ; Excavating (6 hours).	-	-	-	109	-	12 of these were relieved in the later year, and 6 later still, by the Distress Committee.
	December 1903	26	Stonebreaking (8 cwts.) - Increased on 30th May, 1904, to 12 cwts. for men over 1 week at the yard and 14 cwts. for men over 6 weeks. Further, on 1st January, 1905, to 15 cwts. for men over 3 weeks at the yard.	-	-	-	288	-	53 have since been assisted by the Distress Committee, but for whose help the yard might have had to be re-opened, notwithstanding the great improvement in trade.
Kingston	December 1904	12	Wood-sawing, 20 bushels, or work on land.	Per day.			325	-	Many were employed by the Wimbledon and Kingston Councils, who would otherwise have come to the Guardians. It appears that the insufficiency of the inquiries made by the inadequate staff of Relieving Officers led to an influx of persons attracted by the relief and its accompanying light employment. The yard is open again this year. The Board have declined to establish a Distress Committee for Kingston Borough.
	December 1905	14	The yard was opened at 8 a.m. to allow of walking the 3 miles to Norbiton, but a philanthropic person provided railway tickets from Wimbledon whence most applicants were expected.	m.	-	1s. 4d.	246	-	
	January 1907	8		m. and 2 c.	-	1s. 9d.	303	-	

APPENDIX No. XCIII. —Continued.

Table showing Extent to which Guardians have Resorted to Exceptional Measures for the Relief of Distress arising from Want of Employment—continued.

Poor Law Union.	Month of Opening Yard	Duration in Weeks of Yard.	Task	Scale of Relief.	Numbers.	Cost of Relief.	Observations.
No. 4 DISTRICT.—47 UNIONS, 11 LABOUR YARDS.							
Barnet	1886-87	3	Stonebreaking and digging	—	Men. 26	£ 13	7 men were also in the 1886-7 yard. 5 men were also in the 1886-7 and 1887-8 yards. 10 men had been in earlier yards.
	1887-88	—	Stonebreaking and digging	—	— 104	101	
	1890-91	2	Stonebreaking and digging	—	65 — 383	6	
	1895	—	Excavating, water carrying, etc.	—	15 — 63	165	
	1904-05	—	Digging, road making, painting, wood sawing &c.	—	123 — 637	624	
Biggleswade	1905-06	—	Digging, wood - sawing, building, etc.	—	306 — 1,203	452	72 men were also in the 1905 yard.
	January 1890	—	Wood-sawing and stone-breaking.	—	191 — 786	—	The stonebreaking was done in two separate villages.
	December 1886	15	Stonebreaking (7 cwt.)	—	—	—	
Brentford	December 1887	16	"	—	64 — 340	57	
	December 1888	12	"	—	94 — 455	122	
	December 1889	15	"	—	94 — 466	111	
	December 1890	14	"	—	57 — 305	52	
	December 1891	12	"	—	1-4 — 823	145	
	December 1892	13	"	—	68 — 383	67	
	November 1893	13	"	—	281 — 1,268	179	
	November 1894	17	"	—	238 — 1,139	200	
	November 1895	16	"	—	1,612 — 1,071	821	
	December 1896	12	"	—	106 — 468	78	
	December 1897	12	"	—	65 — 326	84	
	January 1899	7	"	—	12 — 63	3	
	January 1900	6	"	—	7 — 31	1	
	February 1901	3	"	—	10 — 53	3	
	December 1901	7	"	—	6 — 35	1	
	November 1902	14	"	—	16 — 84	10	
	December 1903	10	"	—	24 — 125	25	
	November 1904	18	"	—	16 — 81	9	
Chesterton	November 1905	22	"	—	231 — 1,017	251	
	November 1905	22	"	—	469 — 2,201	813	
	December 1906	17	"	—	311 — 1,453	752	
Chesterton	1885 or 1886	—	Stonebreaking	—	—	—	

Edmonton -	? 1888 1905	— —	(1) Digging ; (2) Gravel Digging and Plastering	2s. 6d. per day	— —	450 850	(1) " Better class men " employed at wages of 3s per day. (2) Day's work allowed in proportion to needs. A few have been relieved each year from 1894 under the Regulation Order. The master and R.O.'s consider the scheme a failure. Very few genuine men came.	
Ilendon -	Yard open till 1888.							
Kettering -	November 1903	10	Digging and Wood chopping.	—	Total. 60	140	Distress due to lack of employment of ironstone men caused by coal strike. The yard was closed as loafers replaced the genuine workmen. Net cost £60.	
Northampton -	1886-87 1887-88 1893-94 1894-95	—	{ Whitewashing and Carpen- tering. Stonebreaking in 1893.	{ 2s. per day	—	142		
	May 1903	8	Stonebreaking.	—	—	223	Opening due to depression in shoe trade and closing of Corporation Relief Works.	
	May 1904	108	Stonebreaking.	—	May '04 - - - 24 November '04 - - - 239 July '05 - - - 81 November '05 - - - 190 January '06 - - - 65	6,366	Men actually gave up good outside work to enter the yard, and its closure did not cause distress. In 1906-7 the Distress Committee relieved many.	
Staines -	? 1895 - - - November 1904	3 10	Wood-chopping and gravel digging.	— —	Total : 117 - - - " 173 - - -	62 261	The Guardians consider that the yard has not been a success.	
Uxbridge -	1886-87 - 1887-88 - 1888 - 1888-89 - 1890-91 - 1892-93 - 1894-95 - 1895-96 - 1902-05 - 1905-06 -	— — — — — — — — — —	Stonebreaking - - - — — — — — — — — —	— — — — — — — — — —	Men. 2 - 5 - 4 - 1 - 50 - 24 - 63 - 4 - 182 - 228 -	Persons. 9 37 34 5 216 128 276 15 548 1,106	14s. £2 1 1 30 14 50 3 188 471	
Willesden -	December 1906	10	Double Digging.	Per Day. m. - - - 1s. 6d. c. up to 5 - - 3d.	Average : 27 Total : 166	183	The men did not work well for want of a fixed task.	

	January 1903 December 1903 December 1905	Contracts accepted for painting, &c. (Contractor to employ unemployed. Painting, Building, &c.	Daily, 1s. 0d.	During past year 43 per week.	?	146 455 339
Southampton	1886	Chopping firewood and from 1906 work on farm.				240
	1891					286
	1896					136
	1901					110
	1906					413
	1907					535
South Stoneham	1905-06	Work on farm			51	137
	1906-07				42	109
Trowbridge	January 1895				6	13
Wight, Isle of	1895	Reconstruction of Workhouse Hall.			200	250

These men also were employed at wages directly by the Guardians.

The Clerk refers to this relief as "wages paid."

No. 7 DISTRICT.—47 UNIONS, 1 LABOUR YARD.

Plymouth, Parish of	Continuously since 1861.	Per week. s. m. each child	Weekly Average. 1891 to 1902 1903 - 27 1904 - 38 1905 - 70 1906 - 90	Maximum in one week. 1891 to 1902 1903 to 1906	The "numbers" given are those of the Orders for one week's work at the yard, issued by the Relieving Officers and confirmed as of course by the Guardians. No figures showing how far these were acted upon are available.
		4s. 0d. 6s. 0d. 1s. 0d.	12 13 27 38 70 90	32 32 139 139	—

No. 8 DISTRICT.—45 UNIONS, 7 LABOUR YARDS.

Bristol	February 1886					—
	January 1893					—
	January 1894					—
	December 1894					—
	January 1896					—
	March 1898					—
	January 1905	Digging.				—
Dudley	March 1886	Levelling				—
	November 1904	Stonebreaking, 15 cwts.				—

The Relieving Officers considered the applicants to be, with exceptions, either unfit or loafers. In 1905 the men were employed at wages and not treated as paupers. The cost of this scheme was about £120.

*This is a joint total. The Corporation also provided relief works for a number of men. The Distress Committee in 1905-6 assisted 99 men.

Average per week.
138'5
37 per day.
Total.
554
86*

Per day, Only 3 days allowed in any week.
m. - - - 1s. 6d.
each c. up to 7 - - 2d.

APPENDIX No. XCIII.—Continued.

Tables showing Extent to which Guardians have Resorted to Exceptional Measures for the Relief of Distress arising from want of Employment—continued.

Poor Law Union.	Month of Opening Yard.	Duration in Weeks of Yard.	Task.	Scale of Relief.	Numbers.	Cost of Relief.	Observations.
No. 8 DISTRICT.—45 UNIONS, 7 LABOUR YARDS.—continued.							
Gloucester	1890-91	—	Stonebreaking	—	Total. —	£ —	In 1898 the Guardians gave £50 to a Mayor's Fund for the unemployed.
Stourbridge	On several occasions, but not recently.	—	Stonebreaking	—	—	—	—
Walsall	July 1893 October 1904	1 49	Levelling, &c. Levelling, &c.	— —	57 844	49 2,758	The general effect was unsatisfactory, and persons once admitted showed little disposition to withdraw.
West Bromwich	June 1887	15	Oakum picking, 2lb. From 29-8-7 3 lbs.	Per week. m. and c. - - - 5s. each c. up to 8 - - 1s.	—	425	Distress due to closing of iron works. In July 27 men found work by another firm preferred to return to the yard but further relief was refused. Many left when the task was increased, and none of those remaining when the yard was closed accepted the offer of the workhouse.
Wolverhampton.	1883	—	—	—	—	—	50 per cent. of the men admitted to a labour yard are found to be street corner men.

No. 9 DISTRICT.—41 UNIONS, 7 LABOUR YARDS.

Birkenhead	1886	—	—	Per Day. m. and up to 3 c. - 1s. 6d. m. and 4 c. - - - 2s. 0d.	Total 250	—	—
Burton-on-Trent	1886	—	—	Per week. m. and up to 3 c. - 10s. 6d.	2	—	—
	1887	—	—	—	4	—	—
	1888	—	—	—	3	—	—
	1889	—	—	m. and 4 or 5 c. - 12s. 0d.	12	—	—
	1890	—	—	—	1	—	—
	1891	—	—	m. and 6 or 7 c. - 14s. 0d.	2	—	—
	1895	—	—	—	1	—	—
	1896	—	—	—	1	—	—
	1903	—	—	m. and 8 c. - - - 15s. 0d.	9	—	—
	1904	—	—	—	17	—	—
Practically continuously					65	—	—
At intervals					7	—	—
Stonebreaking and wood sawing in the Tramp Ward at the Workhouse.					6	—	—
Weekly Average.					3	—	—
					17	—	—
					65	—	—
					40	—	—

All admitted were men from the borough. Strict discipline and constant supervision were found necessary to secure proper work and prevent abuse of the cost. This form of relief ceased in February, 1907.

Cannock	June 1893	6	Wood sawing (4 cwt.s.) digging (8 hours).	Per day. s. - - - 11d. m. - - - 1s. each c. up to 5 3d.	64	Opening due to coal strike. No single men employed after 30th June.
Stafford	January 1899 - October 1903	6 2	Digging and Potato getting	2s. per head per day.	Weekly Average. 20 22	Opening due to depression in Shoe Trade. These men were employed at wages, not treated as paupers.
Stockport	Every winter from December	About 13	Stonebreaking by time	Per week. m. - - - 4s. c. - - - 1s.	Weekly Average. 4 up to 30	—
Stoke-upon-Trent	September 1893	3	No fixed task	Food at w.h. and per day. s. - - - nil. m. - - - 1s. 2d. m. and 2 c. - 1s. 6d. m. and 3 c. - 2s. 0d. m. and 4 c. - 2s. 4d. m. and 5 c. - 2s. 10d. Double on Saturdays to those working 5 days. Meals and per week, paid daily. s. - - - 1s. 6d. m. - - - 5s. 0d. m. and 2 c. - 7s. 0d. m. and 3 c. - 9s. 0d. m. and 4 c. - 10s. 0d. m. and 5 c. - 12s. 0d. Double as above on Saturday.	Weekly average 84 men - Total - 442 men, 1,789 persons	Opening due to coal strike, affecting also potters and ironworkers.
Wolstanton and Burslem	January 1895	19	Oakum, 2 lbs. Later, stonebreaking, about 7 cwt. Digging, &c.	s. - - - 1s. 6d. m. - - - 5s. 0d. m. and 2 c. - 7s. 0d. m. and 3 c. - 9s. 0d. m. and 4 c. - 10s. 0d. m. and 5 c. - 12s. 0d. Double as above on Saturday.	Weekly average 69 men - Total - 409 men, 1,417 persons	Opening due to closing of iron works. Total attendance made 7,645. This form of relief was not found effective in either year, being left alone by respectable un- employed and abused by loafers.
	December 1886	22	Stonebreaking, 10 cwt. Oakum, 6 lbs.	Per day. { s. - - - 11d. m. - - - 1s. 1d. each c. up to 5 3d.	Average per day - 47 Total - 102	Of 44 orders for the yard issued only 26 were acted upon.
	November 1893	7	Stonebreaking, 10 cwt.		Average per day - 17 Total - 26	
No. 10 DISTRICT.—44 UNIONS, 1 LABOUR YARD.						
Leicester	The yards have been open for the last 3½ years.		Spade cultivation or bund- ling, chopping or sawing firewood. Task by time.	Per day. m. - - - 1s. 6d. each c. up to 5 2d.	Daily average during year ended March 31st, 1907. At Labour Yard, 86. At Gihoes Farm, 48. At North Evington Farm, 99.	Opening due to slackness in building trade and the introduction of machinery in the boot trade. Many men have been almost continuously in the yards ever since the test was begun. The certainty of obtaining relief at need in this way operates to prevent men from migrating. At least one market gardener is now reported to dismiss men to the Guardians farm till he should again require them. Men are allowed to work 3, 4, 5 or 6 days a week according to their supposed needs, and when not working only idle.

APPENDIX No. XCIII.—Continued

Tables showing Extent to which Guardians have Resorted to Exceptional Measures for the Relief of Distress arising from want of Employment—continued.

Poor Law Union.	Month of Opening Yard.	Duration in Weeks of Yard.	Task.	Scale of Relief.	Numbers.	Cost of Relief.	Observations.
No. 11 DISTRICT.—39 UNIONS, 10 LABOUR YARDS.							
Barrow-in-Furness.	November 1887	16	Stonebreaking, a fixed task	Per week. m. . . . 4s. c. . . . 1s.	Total. 88	£ —	Under regulations approved by the Local Government Board. The yard appears to have been well managed and justified its temporary existence. It was closed when trade improved and the men refused to accept outside work. Distress due to slackness in ship yards and closure of Corporation relief works.
Chorlton	January 1887	10	Stonebreaking and wood-cutting.	Per day.	Total.		Opened as a result of popular agitation. No definite task. The continuance of the yard was probably a misfortune.
	March 1895	4	Stonebreaking	1s. 6d. — kind	239		
	November 1904	28	Farm work, excavating and a little stonebreaking.	Per week. m. . . . 6s. and dinner c. . . . 1s.	Average, March, 1905. 102 to 45. Total. 493 men 2,312 persons	1,286	
Cockermouth	August, 1891	42	Stonebreaking on seashore	—	Maximum at one time : 400	—	Distress due to closing of ironworks. Closed owing to mitigation of distress and unsatisfactory management. There was no proper supervision and no enclosed yard.
Kendal	November 1885	24	Work by time in stone quarries.	Per day. m. . . . 10d. c. . . . 2d.	—	—	The work prior to 1893 appears to have been rather in the nature of normal test work. The subsequent history of persons relieved in 1894-5 gives no evidence of their pauperisation. This relief appears now to be dealt with by private bodies (C.O.S., &c.). Very few men have since become chargeable. No fixed task in either year. The arrangements were lax and the supervision bad, and there was a deficit of £783 apart from the cost of out-relief. The failure of this yard led to the separation of the three Unions.
	December 1886	15		—	—	—	
	January 1891	3		—	—	—	
	December 1892	6		—	—	—	
Liverpool, West Derby and Toxteth Park	December 1894	13	Stonebreaking, 6 hours	m. . . . 1s. c. . . . 3d.	Maximum at one time : 152 " " 96	153 289	
	February 1895	9	Stonebreaking, 6 hours	Per day. s. . . . 1s. 0d. m. . . . 1s. 3d. c. . . . 0s. 1d.	Total Maximum at one time 152	£200 to £300 per week.	
	January 1905	18	Stonebreaking, 6 hours, and woodchopping.	do.	925 12,060		

Liverpool	Sept. 1885 to May 1891.	Stonebreaking, a fixed task	—	123	—	This appears to have been normal test work.
West Derby	December 1904	No fixed task	—	Total days' labour : 710	—	
Manchester	1886 February 1895	Excavating, cleaning (for women).	Per week. m. - - - 4s. c. - - - 1s.	Average up to 200	—	No fixed task required in either period. This partakes of the nature of normal machinery.
Prescot	September 1894	Digging. No fixed task	Per week. m. 4s. 9d. and dinner, later 5s. and dinner, 1s. c. - - - -	Average up to 800	—	
Salford	Yard constantly open. Times of greatest pressure. January 1895 January 1905	Stonebreaking. No fixed task till pressure was released.	Per week. 1895—s. 2s. 6d. } and m. 5s. 0d. } dinner. c. 1s. 0d. } 1905—s. - 3s. } and m. - 6s. } dinner. c. - 1s. }	Maximum in one week : 126	—	Of 192 a. b. applicants for relief ordered to the yard on 22-2-'95 106 did not attend, and 24 left after one day.

No. 12 DISTRICT.—49 UNIONS, 9 LABOUR YARDS.

Bradford	Since 1882	Cornginding, 6 pecks Stonebreaking 15 cwt. Oakum-picking, 3 lbs. Digging, &c., 8 hours. Now : Stonebreaking, Grinding, 6 hours. Wood chopping, 6 hours.	—	Total in half year to March 1899 - - - 33 1900 - - - 2 1901 - - - 75 1902 - - - 45 1903 - - - 75 1904 - - - 187 1905 - - - 267 1906 - - - 266	£ —	Highest numbers at Yard : January 1891 - - - 340 January 1892 - - - 235 January 1893 - - - 171 December 1894 - - - 185 February 1895 - - - 374 January 1896 - - - 21 February 1897 - - - 38 December 1898 - - - 12 January 1899 - - - 6 December 1900 - - - 16 February 1901 - - - 29 December 1902 - - - 27 December 1903 - - - 66 October 1904 - - - 91 December 1905 - - - 134 January 1906 - - - 141 February 1907 - - - 56
Ecclesall Bierlow.	Since 1879 November 1904	Per ton of cinders - - - 1s. 4d. Per ton of granite - - - 1s. 8d. Per ton of limestone - - - 1s. 8d. Per ton of wood - - - 6s. 8d. Leve'lling, 14s. 10d. per week of 44½ hours	—	131	—	Men regarded as working for wages only, unless their earnings are insufficient when they are supplemented by relief. (This arrangement has now been put an end to.)

APPENDIX No. XCIII.—Continued.

Table showing Extent to which Guardians have Resorted to Exceptional Measures for the Relief of Distress arising from want of Employment—continued.

Poor Law Union.	Month of Opening Yard.	Duration in Weeks of Yard.	Task.	Scale of Relief.	Numbers.	Cost of Relief.	Observations.
No. 12 DISTRICT.—49 UNIONS, 9 LABOUR YARDS—continued.							
Halifax	1887	—	—	—	Persons. — Men.	£ —	Only 6 entered the workhouse when the yard was closed.
Huddersfield	1888	—	Stonebreaking, 10 cwt. Corngrinding, 120 lbs. Woodsawing, &c., 9 cwt. Oakum-picking, 4 lbs. Work on land, 6½ hrs. Women : washing 6½ hrs., or 3 lbs. oakum.	—	666 — 156 343 — 76 49 — 10 4 — 1 36 — 8 112 — 18 129 — 28 45 — 9 14 — 2 21 — 7 18 — 3 8 — 1 21 — 4 63 — 13 48 — 11	408 137 8 2 3 72 90 42 11 7 3 1 5 33 23	3 men did only 1 day. 3 " " " " 4 " " " " 2 " " " " 1 man " " " " (No single men have received relief in this way for 19 years.) Distress in 1894-6 due to engineers' strike. This relief has now been discontinued.
Hunslet	1886 1887 1888 1889 1893 1894 1895 1896 1897 1898 1902 1903 1904 1905 1906	—	—	—	—	—	—
Leeds	Small numbers constantly, no large numbers except in 1904-5.	—	—	—	Jan. 31st. 1889 — 8 1890 — 2 1891 — 3 1892 — 3 1893 — 6 1894 — 22 1895 — 38 1896 — 21 1897 — 16 1898 — 18 1899 — 17 1900 — 5	—	The Guardians have provided labour yards, one in 1895 at a cost of £2,400, which has never been opened, and another in 1904, which was recently closed, the accommodation in the workhouse yard being sufficient for the few applicants for this class of relief. The yard is usually closed in the summer months.

Pontrfract	March 1905	52				1901 1902 1903 1904 1905 1906 1907	5 11 13 61 228 43 40		
	Constantly	—						—	
	A new yard purchased in 1896 opened only in 1905 and 1906 to relieve the workhouse.	—			Stonebreaking			—	Distress due to coal strike.
	February 1892 Winter 1892 Winter 1893 Winter 1894	— — — —			Excavating			—	The work was done by a contractor representing the unemployed, and giving work to such as were sent to him by the Guardians. The men were paid by the contractor. In recent years the Corporation have provided the work required for the unemployed.

No. 13 DISTRICT.—48 UNIONS.

No Report.

Abergavenny	May 1898	20	Stonebreaking	—	Men. 458	Persons. 1,992	£ 3,300	Distress due to coal strike. The result justified the scheme, and its success was due to method and organisation.
								Distress due to closing of Steel Works.
Bedwellty	November 1892	25		Per day. m. - - - 1s. c. - - - 2d. Not to exceed 12s. per week.	Weekly. 300 to 600		—	Distress due to closing of Steel Works.
	April 1898	21	8 yards opened for stone-breaking, road making, etc.	—	Men. 4,886	Persons. 15,652	11,765	12 weeks for 3 days a week only. Distress due to Coal Strike.

APPENDIX No. XCIII.—*Continued.*Table showing Extent to which Guardians have Resorted to Exceptional Measures for the Relief of Distress arising from want of Employment—*continued.*

Poor Law Union.	Month of Opening Yard.	Duration in Weeks of Yard.	Task.	Scale of Relief.	Numbers.	Cost of Relief.	Observations.
No. 14 DISTRICT.—53 UNIONS, 7 LABOUR YARDS— <i>continued.</i>							
Bedwellty (<i>continued.</i>)	January 1904	To date of report.	—	s. - - - - - m. - - - - - c. - - - - -	Persons to July, 1907, 962	£ —	Distress due to closing of Steel Works.
Cardiff	January 1887 February 1895 November 1895 May 1898	15 7 8 17	— — — —	— — — —	Men. Persons. 33 - 149 36 - 142 15 - 52 65 - 332	55 45 47 193	Work has been found by the Corporation. Distress due to Coal Strike.
Crickhowell	May 1898	17	2 yards	—	Average weekly : 450 -	2,114	The relief acted to enable the prolongation of the strike which caused the distress.
Merthyr Tydfil	May 1898	24	2 yards	—	Men : 5,445 -	27,521	A good deal of loafing done. Distress due to Coal Strike and consequent closure of Steel Works.
Pontypool	1898	16	Stonebreaking and road making.	—	Average : 160 -	466	Distress due to Coal Strike.
Swansea	Continuously	-	Oakum-picking	—	4 or less	—	The Test Order is here used as equivalent to the Regulation Order

APPENDIX No. XCIV.

LETTER TO LOCAL GOVERNMENT BOARD AND THEIR REPLY THERETO AS TO THE MEANS WHICH HAVE BEEN ADOPTED APART FROM THE POOR LAW FOR RELIEVING DISTRESS DUE TO UNEMPLOYMENT.

Scotland House,
Victoria Embankment,
Westminster, S.W.

May 8th, 1907.

Sir,—In connection with their enquiry into the means which have been adopted apart from the Poor Law for relieving distress due to unemployment, my Commission are anxious to obtain as much information as possible on the subject of work provided for the unemployed by local authorities, prior to the Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905. I am accordingly to enquire whether the Local Government Board will furnish the Commission with the undermentioned information in connection with this subject:—

(1) A Memorandum setting forth the grounds for the policy embodied in the various circulars which were issued by Mr. Chamberlain and other presidents of the Local Government Board, with a view to urging local authorities to provide work for the unemployed in times of special distress.

(2) A Memorandum embodying any available information as to the extent to which work was provided for the unemployed by municipalities in the period between 1885 and 1905.—I am, Sir,

Your obedient servant,

R. G. DUFF.
Secretary.

The Secretary,
Local Government Board, Whitehall, S.W.

Local Government Board,
Whitehall, S.W.
September 19th, 1907.

Sir,—I am directed by the Local Government Board to advert to the letter which you addressed to them asking for certain information on the subject of the provision of work for the unemployed by local authorities prior to the passing of the Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905.

The grounds for the policy embodied in the various circulars issued by the Board to which the paragraph marked 1 in your letter relates, with the view of urging local authorities to provide work for the unemployed in times of special distress, may be gathered generally from the terms of those circulars.

It will be observed that the circulars relate to distress of an exceptional character, and that it was to meet temporary emergencies that the local authorities were urged to expedite the execution of public works for the purpose, mainly, of enabling persons who did not ordinarily seek poor relief to tide over a season of exceptional distress without incurring such disqualification as attaches to pauperism. The men to be employed were those whom, owing to their previous condition and circumstances, it was undesirable to relieve by an order for admission to the workhouse or to treat as subjects for outdoor pauper relief.

It was anticipated that the machinery of the Poor Law assisted by help from local charitable funds and the thrift of the men would meet the necessities of ordinary times.

The Board would refer the Commission to the Memorandum by Sir Hugh Owen, which is printed at the beginning of the Return entitled "Pauperism and Distress," printed by order of the House of Commons in March, 1886, and numbered 69, and to his evidence, which is reported with the First Report of the Select Committee on Distress from Want of Employment, issued in 1895.

As regards the particulars referred to in the concluding paragraph of your letter I am to state that the only available information would appear to be that contained in the Report of the Board of Trade as to the unemployed (C—7,182), issued in 1893 (vide pp. 188-208) and the Parliamentary Return of 1905 (H.C. Paper 193) as to London.—I am, Sir,

Your obedient servant,

H. C. MONRO,
Assistant Secretary.

The Secretary to the
Royal Commission on the Poor Laws.

APPENDIX No. XCV.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO UNEMPLOYMENT, BY ARTHUR PRIESTMAN, J.P., CHAIRMAN OF THE BRADFORD CORPORATION HEALTH COMMITTEE.

Extent.

1. At the present time the trade of Bradford is in a more vigorous condition than it has been for many years. The income-tax returns will probably reveal a very prosperous state of things. Although the employers are receiving large additions to their incomes, the wages of the workers in Bradford have received very little increase.

2. The people now unemployed are those least efficient from an industrial point of view, including the old and infirm. The development of machinery in Bradford has resulted in a greater production of wealth, without corresponding employment of a greater number of people. The hours of labour have not been reduced to absorb a greater number of workers.

3. The returns of the Education Office show a greater number of half-timers employed. In 1900 there were 2,200 employed in Bradford; in 1906 the number rose to 5,000. The demand for women weavers, and the

employment of married women in our mills, who enter into competition with their fathers and brothers, ought to be checked in the interests of humanity. The high infantile death-rate is undoubtedly due, in part, to the employment of mothers in our mills.

4. Our lady health inspectors are continually reporting overcrowding, due to low wages or irregular work. The greatest and most urgent need is work for the unemployed. We could then deal more efficiently and thoroughly with those who are lazy and thriftless, but at present we cannot discriminate. Greater efficiency is more and more demanded of the workers by employers, to the more rigorous exclusion from employment of the least efficient.

5. Casual employment is also a source of great hardship. The night woolcombers, particularly in slack times, going to the woolcombing establishments in the hopes of getting a job. Outdoor labourers also suffer from this lack of regular employment. To obtain a

APPENDIX No. XCV.—*Continued.*

man occasionally for a day or a week's work may be a boon to the employer, but it is very hard on the casual labourer's wife and family. Casual labour tends to keep the wages low of those regularly employed.

6. In the winter of 1893-4 I took part on a voluntary committee to find out, by means of a census of the unemployed, the extent of unemployment. Though there may have been many mistakes, owing to the committee not being adequately provided with funds, and not employing trained investigators, the census revealed 27 per cent. of the population of Bradford at that time wholly or partially unemployed, exclusive of the floating population residing in lodging-houses and workhouse. The 27 per cent. included the families dependent upon the work of these people. I do not remember a time when want of employment caused more suffering in Bradford than in the winter of 1893-4. Since then we have had periodic changes, always most acute in winter, when the outdoor labourers have been unable to work. Changes of foreign tariffs, fashion in dress goods, and in men's wear, have all tended to aggravate the unemployed evil.

7. The fluctuations of trade are very disastrous to the condition of our workers.

8. When prices are rising, the woolcombing industry absorbs a large number of unskilled workers of both sexes, but when prices of wool fall, then short time and unemployment are everywhere in evidence, because the employing class cease to buy the raw material, in order that they may purchase at the lowest possible point. The speculative nature of our trade causes intense suffering to the least skilled workers.

Remedies.

9. I do not think the special work provided by the municipality before the 1905 Act has been effective. It has helped a part of the unemployed in the winter, but has been more of the nature of a palliative and has not gone to the root of the evil.

10. The *Labour Register*, whilst causing hopes which have not been gratified (for we could not find work for more than a very small proportion of the applicants), has generally been regarded as a failure.

11. Is it not worth while considering whether special taxation should not be imposed on the income-tax-paying class, with the object of providing useful work for the unemployed, the income-tax payer furnishing the funds to repay the community, the added cost which unskilled labour would entail, over the cost of the work if done at the ordinary contractor's price?

12. I believe that the existence of the unemployed is due to the lack of proper organisation in our industrial system. So long as our industrial system is controlled by men whose only object is to make profit for themselves, we always shall be subjected to these periodical dislocations of industry. I have no hope of getting at the root of the evil, except by the organisation of industry in the hands of the State and municipality in the interests of all the people, and not in the interests of those who seek private profit for themselves, regardless of the injury to the weakest and least efficient of the workers.

PART V.—SCOTTISH UNEMPLOYMENT.

APPENDIX No. XCVI.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO DISTRESS DUE TO UNEMPLOYMENT, BY MR. A. BLACK, SUPERINTENDENT OF THE ASSOCIATION FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE CONDITION OF THE POOR IN LEITH.

EXTENT.

1. *Number.*—The number of applicants for relief has averaged 731 per annum during the thirty-five years of this association's existence, and the number has gradually diminished. In the last ten years it is only 700. Even in a bad year the cases of distress due to unemployment alone may probably not exceed 300 at one time so far as these are known to the association. The population is about 81,000.

2. *Classes.*—Mechanics, skilled workmen and labourers in building and allied trades, mill and garden workers. Locally, however, the casual and intermittent labour at the docks provides far the largest number of cases, and constitutes the main economic problem.

3. *Character:*—

- (a) Industrious, fair workmen.
- (b) Intermediate class, with decent homes.
- (c) Loafers and idlers, given to drink, etc.

4. *Duration of Distress.*—There is little permanent unemployment, but there is always a percentage of men who are not readily employed owing to unfitness, bad character, age, etc. Painters, garden hands and others are subject to periodic unemployment.

CAUSES.

5. *Personal.*—Defects of character (laziness, improvidence, intemperance, etc.). Mental and physical defects.

6. *Economic.*—Land laws, concentration of industries, trade competition, labour-saving appliances (primary effect).

EFFECTS.

7. Abandonment of efforts at self-support, neglect of foresight and thrift, insufficient food and clothing. The farmed-out house. There are many cases of those who have been helped through such a time and have become the ready helpers of others.

REMEDIES.

8. *Special Work provided by Municipalities.*—In periods of exceptional distress this association has frequently requested the town council to provide work, and when possible they have readily complied. These efforts have alleviated the distress, but obviously work of a useful kind cannot always be provided when it is most needed. This association has also provided permanent or temporary work for an average number of 137 persons annually during the last thirty-four years.

The work has been secured by keeping in touch with employers of labour, and chiefly through the superintendent of the docks. Of the men who received orders for work about 35 per cent. did not use them, or left in a day or two. Otherwise the results were fairly satisfactory, and of great value as a test.

9. *Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905.*—This has not been of much practical value in Leith, and matters were probably as effectively managed when they were in the hands of the town council. In the first five months there were 911 applicants enrolled by the Distress Committee and in the following twelve months only 208. Of these 1,119 men, 282 were given temporary employment by the Town Council, and 70 got work directly through the Distress Committee. Forty persons, including wives and children, were sent to Canada.

10. Unemployment is, of course, the result of a discrepancy between the demand for and the supply of labour, and it is difficult to conceive of any scheme that could bring the demand and supply into permanent correspondence. Such a scheme would have to take account of, if not to control, variations in the population. But the problem, in its practical aspect, is one of the fitness of the individual—that is, a very large proportion of unemployment is really due to the unfitness of individuals for any employment.

11. To meet this there might be systematic instruction in the proper rearing of children, and much physical weakness and incapacity might thus be prevented. Friendly societies and savings banks might be organised in connection with schools, so that a habit of thrift and forethought might be formed. Parents ought to be encouraged to apprentice their children to skilled trades and train their daughters for domestic service, where the demand is greater than the supply. The practice of temperance, cleanliness, and thrift is of the first importance. It is the unfortunate tendency of much recent and prospective legislation to relieve parents and others of the necessity for thrift or provision for the future, and to encourage them to rely, not on their own efforts, but on some outside agency to provide their necessities.

12. Further police powers are urgently required to deal effectively with persons who are wilfully and habitually idle and drunken, and fail to maintain those for whom they are responsible. Money expended by any public board in feeding neglected children should be recoverable from the parents' employers direct, as a deduction from wages.

APPENDIX No. XCVII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO UNEMPLOYMENT BY MR. WILLIAM J. CHRYSAL, CHEMICAL MANUFACTURER, RUTHERGLEN, NEAR GLASGOW.

17th June, 1907.

1. The chief reason why I am unable to give you details seem to me to be the total absence of distress due to unemployment so called during the last three or four years in the district in which my works are situated. There has been practically no unemployment to those people who really wanted work, and therefore there has been no distress from that cause. There are, of course,

some people out of employment, but as far as my experience goes, at the present time this is due entirely to intemperance and those who never will work if they can get any other means of livelihood.

2. These being my views, you will understand it is difficult for me to fill up the various questions which you have put to me under the headings named.

**STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO UNEMPLOYMENT, BY T. S. CREE, LL.D., AUTHOR OF
 "A CRITICISM OF THE THEORY OF TRADES UNIONS," "EVILS OF COLLECTIVE
 BARGAINING," "BUSINESS MEN AND MODERN ECONOMICS."**

1. I have no statistics to give as to the extent of distress, nor as to the operation of tried remedies. My position is that of a business man, with such an acquaintance with the subject as that implies, along with a reasonable knowledge of its economics. I have had a long and very varied experience of business, both manufacturing and distributive, successful and unsuccessful, of such a nature as to cause me to think on the principles involved. I have been for many years a frequent contributor of letters to the daily and weekly Press on economic subjects. The above-named pamphlets have attracted considerable attention both from economists and men of business. They have been translated and published quite independently of me, by leading economic journals in Germany and France. I have no specific remedy for the evil of want of employment, but shall confine myself to trying to state what in my opinion are some of its causes, in the hope that, so far as these are due to economic errors, I may be able to help to avoid them in the future. I understand that I am asked for a short and simple statement of my views, and I shall try to confine myself to that.

2. I am of opinion that there must always be a certain amount of unemployment. Every improvement in method of manufacture, every labour-saving machine causes a temporary unemployment. Some men are thrown out of work. But the greater production leads to a fall in the price of the article and a greater demand for it. And so the men are gradually employed again, and generally in greater numbers than before. And in any case, as the consumers spend less on this article, they have more to spend on other things. And so there is soon an increased demand both for commodities and labour, and greater employment all over. A temporary slackness of demand in certain markets from changes of fashion or other causes, will also locally decrease employment. And too rapid an investment in fixed capital, buildings and machinery has often the same effect for a time. These are occasional causes of want of employment which we cannot hope altogether to escape. They are normal, though variable in amount.

3. It is doubtful if there is much more than a normal want of employment at the present time, but if there is, there are several causes for it. The San Francisco earthquake, for instance, has caused our insurance companies to send away great sums to rebuild the city, which money is withheld from industrial enterprise here. But a much greater cause is the cost of the South African War. Nations, like individuals, cannot spend beyond their income without suffering for it. The worst period of want of employment in our modern history was after Waterloo, when we were suffering from the burdens of the Napoleonic wars. We are still paying heavy taxes on account of the Boer War. And the Russian and Japanese War has hurt our customers and diminishes our employment by them, or, to put it in another way, the capital required to repair the damage done in Manchuria has been withdrawn from other places and is not available for employment in these other places. And then there is our growing extravagant municipal expenditure and increased debt. The Yarrow Company has to leave Poplar on account of the high rates, and employment is lessened everywhere by the same cause. The amount we have to pay in rates and taxes, so far as these are unproductive, reduces our power of giving employment.

4. In cases of unavoidable monopoly, such as our Glasgow tramway system, a public monopoly may be a less evil than a private one. But wherever municipal enterprise comes into competition with private firms, its faults are apparent. It is comparatively wasteful, inefficient and corrupt. West Ham is an extreme case, but it is quite a typical one of what goes on, and is increasing, and, I fear, is likely to increase.

5. But now we come to a more serious and permanent and preventible cause of want of employment—the influence of trades unions. To have employment you must have employers—and the more the better. Even

what is called a "bad employer" is an advantage. Whatever his faults, he increases employment. But the trades unions and their friends would drive him out of the trade, and so employment would be reduced by his demand at least. It is said he is inefficient, and would be better away. But if he is very inefficient, his inefficiency will cause him to fail. If he can exist, that proves that he has some efficiency. The economic law will punish him far more certainly and justly than any human power can. There is every degree of efficiency in employers as well as in workers. The highly efficient employer will get the most efficient workers, and can afford to pay them well. The less efficient will get the inferior workers, and probably employ them in making a lower class of goods, for which there is a demand, at a lower price. And all are entitled to live as best they can. There is an old Scotch proverb, "It taks a' kinds o' folk to mak a world." And that is true of an economic world. The uniformity that is demanded in hours, in wages, in quality or quantity of output, in efficiency, is not possible or desirable. It does not exist anywhere in Nature. It would stifle larger and finer growths without advantage.

6. But the antagonism of the unions is not confined to those "bad" employers. It is extended to employers as a class. It has been said, "We cannot yet do without the capitalist, but we can make him bearable." That is like the Irish cure for absenteeism, shooting landlords. But it is more unreasonable, for the land is still there, while if you ruin or hurt a capitalist you lose the benefit of his capital and keep others away. The harassment of employers by troublesome and often quite useless legislation and oppressive and mischievous trades union interference drives and keeps away many employers and makes those who remain masters of the situation. The fear of socialistic legislation is preventing investment of fixed capital, and so greatly reduces employment.

7. But in addition to this indirect effect, the unions directly diminish employment in several ways. The restriction of the number of apprentices in many trades prevents many young men from learning any trade, and allows them to grow up unemployed and unemployable. We force an academic education on all at the public expense, but youths must not be taught these trades except in small numbers, with the consent of union officials. There are thousands of youths in London, and Glasgow, and all large cities, who might be respectable tradesmen at home or all over the world but for this trades union rule, and are now growing up fit only to run errands, hawk newspapers and occasionally snatch purses, or walk in "unemployed" processions. And we talk of the need of technical education. The unions say they only "regulate" the supply of labour. Did they ever do anything to increase it? The restriction of learners is unjust and unwise, and it is a great cause of unemployment.

8. The demarcation of trades throws men out of employment. It is impossible to arrange work so that the activity of different departments shall coincide. To give steady employment to all, surplus men in the slack or decaying trades should be free to go to the busy trades. But trades union rules do not allow this, and so the surplus men are left unemployed till, if ever, activity in their own trade returns. That this demarcation of trades should be considered necessary for the efficiency of trades unions, ought alone to be sufficient to condemn their principles. It is a return to barbarism. Hindoo caste is gradually weakening; the old trade guilds, after ruining the cities which clung longest to them, have passed away, and here we have the old bad principle that a man is not to be allowed to do work which he is able and willing to perform, re-affirmed and enforced. This is a great and growing evil in the shipbuilding trade. Two or more trades, as for instance engineers, plumbers and coppersmiths, frequently claim the same piece of work as being within their own exclusive right, with the result of continual quarrels, strikes, and great loss of time and money. This also tends to unemployment.

APPENDIX No. XCVIII.—*Continued.*

9. But all these are minor causes compared to the "minimum wage" rule, or, as some call it, the common rule. That is a very great cause of unemployment. The minimum wage is generally fixed not much below the maximum wage, and all who cannot give value for it are thrown idle. And the principle is thoroughly bad. Every economist and every business man knows that with a certain amount of a commodity to sell you may get rid of so much, say, at 35s., so much more at 33s., and perhaps the whole at 31s. If you insist on 35s. as a minimum you will have some left unsold, and, if the article is perishable, altogether lost. It is exactly the same with labour. The wage should be that at which all can be employed, and each at his proportionate value. The minimum wage rule in bad times leaves many unemployed. All old and weak men are thrown out except in booming times, and their work is lost to the community. The total production to divide is lessened, and total employment still further reduced. The minimum wage in the coal trade lies like an incubus not on that trade alone but on every trade where coal is used. The colliers even get no benefit, as it is a minimum daily wage, and they lose one or two days' wages per week. That is their unemployment. But other trades have to bear the cost of the high price of coal which this involves, and the burden of their own minimum wage as well. So the cost of their commodities is increased or kept up, their sale decreased and many of the workers thrown out of employment.

10. But many of our economists and best social reformers defend "the minimum wage" on the ground that it ensures a high standard of efficiency among the workers. It is said, "Other things being equal, the better fed man will be the better workman." Now, as I have argued above, that might be so, and yet be unfair, as limiting the number who can be employed at that higher wage. But in this case of the minimum wage, other things are not equal. The fact that the wage is fixed is the element of inequality which makes the axiom inapplicable to the circumstances. The workman may have strength to work better, but he will not be willing to do so if he has a guaranteed minimum wage to rely on. Consider for a moment. If a man is working for himself on a piece of land of his own, and can by a certain amount of labour and skill reach the best result that the land is capable of giving, will he give more labour and skill to it if he is to get nothing more from it? I think not. How, then, can you expect a hired man to do his very best, to work harder, and try to improve himself, if he is to get no advantage? He gets his minimum wage in any case.

11. It may be said, "The minimum wage is not the maximum, and that remains as a stimulus." But as the employer has to employ some men who are not worth the minimum, he has, in order to make an average which will pay him, to give his best men less than their full value. And besides, "horsing," which means working harder than the average, is denounced and often punished by the unions. And Mr. Webb says, "It is a necessary element of the collective bargain that one man shall not underbid another by taking a less wage, or doing more work for the same wage." And so there is now little or no difference between the minimum and maximum wage. All are on nearly the same level, instead of being estimated and paid individually their value, as bargained for between themselves and their customer, the employer, or his foreman, according to their skill and industry. Competition is weakened or abolished. The present high standard of efficiency has been reached by the keen stress of competition over many generations. Without competition efficiency must decline indefinitely. And indeed it has already done so.

12. Many employers have told me that the standard of work is much lower than when they were young. Apprentices formerly got only what the employer thought them worth when their time was up, and got advances gradually. So they learned their trade, and went on improving themselves for long afterwards. But now apprentices play themselves, because they know that when their time is up they must get the full minimum wage if they are employed at all, and they have no inducement to improve afterwards. And so, both directly and indirectly, by lowering the standard both of quantity and quality, the minimum wage rule is a great cause of un-

employment. This rule and the Workmen's Compensation Acts are the chief reasons for the demand for old age pensions. These things press heavily upon employers and they cannot afford to employ men who from age or other causes are not in possession of all their faculties and are therefore not able to give full output to machinery and are specially liable to cause and to suffer from accidents. We hear great complaints that men over forty can hardly get into a new employment. The trades unions having driven these men out of employment, now find them a burden on their funds, and want to put the support of the older men on the taxpayer.

13. If trades unions are successful, as they claim to be, in raising general wages above the normal rate, the rate which would be fixed by the unaided operation of the law of supply and demand, to the extent of that rise they cause unemployment. But they do not raise general wages. If they sometimes manage to raise the wages in their own restricted trades a little it is by means which deserve no sympathy. It is by forcing men and women out of the organised and better paid trades, to scramble for the employment that is left for them outside. This increases the competition among unskilled workers, and lowers their wages unfairly. This is a cause of what is called sweating, for which employers are unjustly blamed, though they are quite powerless to prevent it. They cannot pay more than the market rate, and avoid failure. Sweating is largely the fault of the trades unions.

14. Now, I have no fault to find with trades unionists as men. They do their best according to their lights. But they base their practice on false theories of economics. They think abundance and cheapness an evil, and scarcity they think to be a good thing. They cannot see beyond the first effect of an increased production, a local and temporary unemployment, and they conclude that the cure for unemployment is to produce less. All their policy is in that direction. Besides the incidental effect of some of their principles, there are many trades union rules in restraint of production. I never heard of one intended to increase it. This, of course, is all wrong. Increased production and abundance is the parent of increased employment. Capital for employment comes from the savings of surplus production. Check that production and you reduce employment. Produce! produce! produce! is the first and last word in industrial economics. The law of supply and demand, working in a multitude of individual transactions, will give to each member of the community the nearest possible approach to his just share. (See Professor Smart, who cannot be called an unsympathetic economist, on "The Distribution of Income.") A much nearer approach to exactitude in a true economic division would take place, and unemployment would be much reduced if labour were more mobile. But the chief obstacles to this mobility are the trades union rules.

15. I think it is a truism to say that the amount of employment depends on the amount available for paying, and actually employed in paying, wages. Nothing that can be said against the wages fund theory (which controversy Professor Marshall says is mainly a dispute about words) can alter the fact that that amount in any particular part of the world depends on the inducements offered to the capitalist in that place as compared with what it is evident he can get by investing elsewhere. But if that be so (and the slightest acquaintance with the habits and motives of investors shows the principle in operation), then what we may still call the wages fund is, at any particular time and place, not unlimited, and any section of the working classes that gets more than a competitive wage does so at the expense of another section which is either sweated or unemployed. What is called sweating is caused by trades unions excluding people from the skilled trades, and reducing the wages fund from which they would be better paid. As long as the banker and private investor, who are behind the *entrepreneur*, can direct their unemployed capital to any part of the globe by merely signing a cheque, so long I believe that a scientific squeeze on the capitalist, so nicely adjusted that he can be compelled to submit to a diminution of interest and profit and still keep his capital here in undiminished quantity, is quite chimerical.

16. The cure for want of employment does not lie in appeals to the Government for work or help. Ever charity should be most carefully given. The cure lies in peace and retrenchment, and in giving free play to

APPENDIX No. XCVIII.—*Continued.*

economic laws, which are as inevitable as the laws of gravitation, as inexorable when resisted, as beneficent when submitted to. Our workers should give up their unions, work full time at the reduced market rate of wages, the rate at which all the available labour would be taken up. This would increase general production, reduce prices and bring out more demand, to be followed again by good times, full employment and high wages. Hard work and saving are the only cure for bad times, either for individuals or communities. Edmund Burke warned his contemporaries that Government interference in such matters would be mischievous and dangerous, as it would teach people to depend on Government and not on themselves, and in the inevitable disappointment that would follow, to turn to riot, anarchy and revolution. That was one of the causes of the fall of the French Monarchy of his day, and again, fifty years later, of the second French Republic, when it established municipal workshops. It is as true now as it was a hundred years ago, and if we follow the same course we shall reach the same catastrophe.

17. The conclusion of the whole matter is this, that the way to increase employment is to attract employers. The trades union policy is calculated to drive away employers. The union is quite unnecessary, as the true wage is much more exactly arrived at without it. The true policy of the workers would be to welcome employers, who are just their customers, into the shop, and treat them so well that they will come again in greater numbers. Once in the shop (that is, tied to works which they must keep going) their competition for workers would force them to pay higher wages than will ever be got by combination and collective bargaining, while it would restore friendly relations instead of the hateful ones now so common between the parties.

18. But now, if I were asked if there is no means of bringing peace into the industrial world, instead of that war, which I have argued is so great a cause of unemployment, I say yes, there is a way, but it is at present so far removed from practical politics that I have not mentioned it till now. But yet it is perfectly simple, just, practicable and efficacious. It is a return to individual bargaining. There is a letter of Cobden's in which he deprecates unions, either of men or masters. But he says, "If the masters are obliged to combine, I hope they will do so for self-defence only." I take that as my keynote, and I say that there should be, in every trade where there is a trade union, a strong association of masters with a large central fund. Their power should be used for defence only; not to reduce wages or to lengthen hours, not to strengthen them in dealing with the men, for that would be collective bargaining, which I think so mischievous.

Their business should be to ensure the freedom of the labour market, the greatest possible mobility of labour, and to give the law of supply and demand free play. And their method should be to fight every strike, large or small, without the slightest regard to the merits of the dispute. They should say to the men, "You may be right, the conditions may not be good enough. If they are not, some of the men will gradually drift away to other jobs, and the conditions will be improved to replace them. The employer is tied to his mill, and must get workers to keep it going. To get them he must pay the market wage. The strike is, therefore, unnecessary and therefore wrong. Go back to your work. We shall fight this principle out to the very end." If that were done there would be a few big fights, but the masters would win. They are not stronger in peaceful individual bargaining than the men, but they are stronger in fighting a strike. Very soon the men would get tired of the game and would work on quietly. The unions, both of masters and men, would decay. To be an employer would once more be an honoured, as well as a profitable, position. There would be more employers and more employment, and from their competition higher wages.

19. I have said nothing about drink, because it is a constant factor as a cause of unemployment. But I believe that it is a gradually diminishing cause. And I should not be inclined to try to hurry the improvement very much by coercive methods. I should trust more to the higher powers of the human mind, to the increased "strength of the people." Individual freedom is a necessary condition of any moral improvement. Here again trades unionism is mischievous. We are told of the improved moral status which trades unions give to their members. It is a delusion. A very large proportion of the members are forced into the unions, and kept there by the fear of violence and boycotting, and unwillingness to lose the money they have contributed to the benefit funds. They are absolute slaves to a more cruel and degrading tyranny than that of any employers. The right to cast a vote once a year for the election of union officials, and occasionally on a strike is, for moral and intellectual training, a poor substitute to the individual for the continuous personal management of his own affairs.

20. My main contention, then, is that a large part of what is called sweating and unemployment is caused by trades unions under the influence of an economic error, namely, that increased employment comes from scarcity. The very reverse is the case. Increased employment comes immediately from increased competition among employers for workers, and that again comes from increased capital and increased production.

APPENDIX No. XCIX.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY MR. GEORGE B. ESSLEMONT, M.P., J.P., TOWN COUNCILLOR, ABERDEEN.

1. Previous to my election as Member of Parliament for Aberdeen (South) I was for many years connected with local boards. I am a Justice of the Peace for the city of Aberdeen. Have been member of the Town Council, Senior Magistrate, 1905-6. Served on Harbour Board, School Board, Distress Committee. Trustee and manager of savings bank, and have acted on committees of management of various charitable and benevolent institutions.

UNEMPLOYMENT.

2. *Extent.*—I submit (*Appendix No. XCIX. (A)*), table showing number and classes of registered unemployed persons in Aberdeen from June 1st, 1906, to March 31st, 1907. It will be noted that about three-fourths consist of unskilled labourers. The total, 1,250, does not represent the full extent of unemployment during the period, as very few

of the better class artisans with trade union connections registered at the labour bureaux. In the majority of the registered cases I am of opinion that unemployment is chronic, but a considerable proportion would be in fairly regular work except during the winter months, when out-of-door employment of all kinds is very uncertain.

3. *Causes.*—In Aberdeen the chief cause of unemployment during the past two years has been the collapse of the building trades. In other departments the trade of the city is, and has been, in a satisfactory condition. I see no immediate prospect of revival in these depressed trades, as the number of unoccupied houses shows that the supply has largely outrun the demand. In addition, several large public works and buildings are now completed, and nothing of a similar character is likely to be undertaken for some considerable time. In the majority

APPENDIX No. XCIX.—Continued.

of cases of chronic unemployment the cause is traceable to general inefficiency, physical defect and irregular habits.

4. *Effects*.—The effect of unemployment on the respectable and efficient labourer and artisan is very bad. It forces the individual into debt or to accept charity, and generally undermines his self-respect.

5. *Remedies.*—With reference to remedies, I produce statement regarding relief work afforded by the town council and Harbour Board in recent years. The results from an economic point of view were in several cases disappointing. This was caused to some extent by men “going easy,” but was chiefly due to the fact that the men were not picked, and as a consequence quite a large number had never before engaged in the class of work to which they were allocated, while some were unfit for any sustained manual labour. The new road at Girdleness cost £5,264. Had the work been done in the usual way by contract or by the corporation workmen, the burgh surveyor estimated that the work could have been completed for £3,500.

6. In the case of the Harbour Board, an effort was made to select the most suitable men. The works in the aggregate cost £2,258, and the harbour engineer is of opinion that a sum of £890 would have been saved if they had been executed in the ordinary way.

7. In addition to the works undertaken, the town council during the past three years voted sums amounting to £300 for relief of distress. The chief constable, with the assistance of his staff, distributed the provisions. This method was found to work very well, many pressing and most deserving cases being relieved.

8. The total amount voted for relief work by the town council and Harbour Board during the past three years has been £11,042. (*See Appendix No. XCIX. (B).*) In addition, the distress committee has requisitioned the town council for the sum of £1,450 in payment of administration and emigration expenses.

9. Had it not been for the sympathy and co-operation of local boards and the grants from the "Queen's Fund," the work of the burgh distress committee would have been much circumscribed. Various appeals to the public were made, but the response was disappointing. The consequence has been that the cost of administration relatively to the real work done has been proportionately high. I am of opinion that the work could quite well have been done by a committee of the town council, and that all the necessary clerical work could have been accomplished without the appointment of special officers.

10. I am of opinion that the Act of 1905 has not been a success. I think that the constitution of the distress committee is objectionable. The duty of relieving unemployed persons should be imposed on the local authority, which alone can initiate works of public utility. I am satisfied that this course would be more effectual and economical.

11. *Labour Farms or Colonies* are in my view satisfactory only when it is found necessary for personal reasons to divorce the individual from an undesirable environment. Any form of relief which involves the separation of a man from his home and family is objectionable.

12. *Emigration* of unemployed persons with dependents presents a serious difficulty. If wives and families are left they usually become chargeable to the parish, and cases of subsequent complete desertion have been not infrequent. On the other hand, the cost of sending away whole families is very heavy.

13. It is difficult to suggest practical remedies for unemployment. In consequence of its conglomerate nature it is impossible to legislate with success directly upon it. Sound education and thorough technical training during youth are essential to continuous success in any trade. It is seldom that the thrifty, industrious and temperate suffer serious hardship. There is urgent need for further legislative restrictions on the sale of intoxicating liquor, and I strongly advocate the isolation and curative treatment of inebriates of both sexes.

POOR LAW.

14. There has been an alarming increase of pauperism in Aberdeen during recent years. I produce Return (*Appendix No. XCIX. (C)*), showing number of paupers and dependents as at May 15th, 1907, and corresponding figures for the previous five years, table showing ratio of pauperism in Aberdeen, Glasgow, Edinburgh, and Dundee for the past six years, total amount expended on aliment and clothing to outdoor poor during the like period.

15. I also submit (*Appendix No. XCIX. (D)*) particulars of payments to outdoor poor as at May 15th, 1907, showing the number of recipients and the various allowances, with particulars of the earnings of the various families whose incomes from other sources exceed £1 a week. The total number of persons in receipt of parochial relief at above date was 2,087, with 1,463 dependents (*See Appendix No. XCIX. (E.)*) Of the 2,087, no less than 785, more than one-third of the whole, were between the ages of sixteen and sixty years.

APPENDIX No. XCIX. (A).

Handed in by Mr. George B. Esslemont, M.P., Aberdeen.

TABLE SHOWING NUMBER AND CLASSES OF REGISTERED UNEMPLOYED FROM JANUARY 6TH, 1906, TO MARCH 31ST, 1907.

General labourers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	636	Millworkers (men)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	27
Dock „	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	22	Tinsmiths	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	22
Shipyard „	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	14	Blacksmiths	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7
Engineers' „	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9	Engineers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
Woodyard „	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	Clerks	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	19
Masons' „	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	17	Bakers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8
Plasterers' „	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	Butchers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7
Carters -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	32	Tailors	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5
Stone polishers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	27	Upholsterers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
Masons, dressers or finishers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	55	Cabinetmakers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Masons, building	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	72	Sundry trades	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	123
Painters	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	24	Charwomen	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	54
Joiners -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	19	Millworkers (women)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10
Plasterers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9									
Slaters	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6									
Plumbers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2									
														Total	-	-	1,250

APPENDIX No. XCIX. (B).

Handed in by Mr. George B. Esslemont, M.P., Aberdeen.

MEMO AS TO WORK, &c., PROVIDED BY THE TOWN COUNCIL AND HARBOUR BOARD FOR
UNEMPLOYED WORKMEN, 1904-07.

TOWN COUNCIL.		HARBOUR BOARD.	
<i>From Common Good :</i>		<i>Formation of Clyde Street :</i>	£
Donation distributed at discretion of Chief Constable - - - - -	300	Estimate by contract, £360 ; cost by relief - - - - -	485
Donation to funds of distress committee for work - - - - -	250	<i>Formation of Midchingle Road :</i>	
New road at Girdleness (estimated by surveyor to have cost £3,500 if carried out by contract) - - - - -	5,264	Estimate by contract, £204 ; cost by relief - - - - -	433
Pitching at sea beach (no estimate made)	1,969	<i>Formation of S. Esplanade East :</i>	
Work filling up Ferryhill Dam (no estimate made) - - - - -	177	Estimate by contract, £804 ; cost by relief - - - - -	1,340
		Estimate by contract, £1,368 ; cost by relief - - - - -	£2,258
			1,368
		Excess of relief over contract :-	£890
<i>From Police Department :</i>		<i>Abstract.</i>	£
Drainage at Stewart Park (no estimate) -	32	Town Council—Total expenditure -	8,784
Road at links (estimate by surveyor, £700)	792	Harbour Board—Total expenditure -	2,258
	£8,784		£11,042

APPENDIX No. XCIX. (C).

Handed in by Mr. George B. Esslemont, M.P., Aberdeen.

I.—Return showing Number of Paupers on Outdoor Roll and the number of their Dependents as at May 15th, 1907, together with the corresponding figures for the past Six Years.

Year.	Paupers.			Dependents.
	Males.	Females.	Total.	
1907 - - - - -	407	1,121	1,528	1,463
1906 - - - - -	382	1,115	1,497	1,353
1905 - - - - -	370	1,076	1,446	1,320
1904 - - - - -	345	1,019	1,364	1,200
1903 - - - - -	274	958	1,232	1,169
1902 - - - - -	268	912	1,180	1,087

II. & III.—Table showing the Ratio of Pauperism per 10,000 of Estimated Population in Aberdeen, Glasgow, Edinburgh and Dundee for the past Six Years.

Year.	Ratio.			
	Aberdeen.	Glasgow.	Edinburgh.	Dundee.
1907 - - - - -	231	224	176	173
1906 - - - - -	227	232	183	193
1905 - - - - -	230	240	187	207
1904 - - - - -	223	235	181	197
1903 - - - - -	211	224	182	194
1902 - - - - -	202	219	179	195

IV.—Annual Amount expended on Aliment and Clothing to Outdoor Poor during the past Six Years.

Year.	Amount.	Year.	Amount.
	£ s. d.		£ s. d.
1907 - - -	17,386 13 2	1904 - - -	14,537 4 5
1906 - - -	16,959 8 4	1903 - - -	13,335 3 1
1905 - - -	15,481 6 10	1902 - - -	12,713 3 7

V.—Table of Payments to Outdoor Poor as at May 15th, 1907, showing the Number of Recipients and their Allowances.

3s. and under - - - -	678 recipients.	8s. 6d. to 10s., inclusive - - -	54 recipients.
3s. 6d. to 5s., inclusive - - -	306 „	10s. 6d. and over - - - -	25 „
5s. 6d. to 8s., „ - - -	187 „	(Highest allowance, 16s.)	

APPENDIX No. XCIX. (D).

Handed in by Mr. George B. Esslemont, M.P., Aberdeen.

FAMILIES WHO HAVE INCOMES FROM OTHER SOURCES OF £1 A WEEK AND OVER.

Register Number.	Parish Allowance.	Family Earnings.	Total Income.	Number of Persons in Family.
	s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	
7-557 - - - - -	6 0	1 1 0	1 7 0	8
1-39 - - - - -	2 6	1 2 0	1 4 6	3
4-638 - - - - -	4 0	2 0 0	2 4 0	6
6-326 - - - - -	3 0	2 9 0	2 12 0	8
6-427 - - - - -	4 6	1 0 0	1 4 6	8
6-984 - - - - -	10 0	1 2 0	1 12 0	8
6-1,003 - - - - -	3 0	1 18 0	2 1 0	7
6-678 - - - - -	8 0	1 6 6	1 14 6	8
5-272 - - - - -	3 0	1 4 0	1 7 0	7
1-785 - - - - -	2 0	1 0 0	1 2 0	2
7-882 - - - - -	3 0	1 1 0	1 4 0	3
7-115 - - - - -	5 0	2 1 6	2 6 6	10
6-902 - - - - -	5 0	1 5 0	1 10 0	4
7-511 - - - - -	6 0	2 5 0	2 11 0	10
7-849 - - - - -	2 6	1 0 0	1 2 6	2
3-684 - - - - -	4 0	1 4 0	1 8 0	6
7-289 - - - - -	2 6	1 18 6	2 1 0	5
6-442 - - - - -	6 0	1 18 0	2 4 0	6
7-551 - - - - -	7 6	2 3 0	2 10 6	9
5-93 - - - - -	6 0	1 14 0	2 0 0	7
6-2 - - - - -	8 0	1 13 0	2 1 0	9
2-222 - - - - -	4 0	1 7 0	1 11 0	4
4-344 - - - - -	2 0	1 9 0	1 11 0	4
6-396 - - - - -	3 0	1 12 0	1 15 0	11
4-829 - - - - -	10 0	1 1 0	1 11 0	10
5-638 - - - - -	6 0	1 0 6	1 6 6	7
4-350 - - - - -	4 0	1 5 0	1 9 0	6
6-38 - - - - -	3 0	2 5 0	2 8 0	8
5-160 - - - - -	4 0	2 1 0	2 5 0	9
2-251 - - - - -	2 0	1 2 0	1 4 0	4
4-312 - - - - -	4 6	1 7 0	1 11 6	6
4-812 - - - - -	2 6	2 0 0	2 2 6	9
5-815 - - - - -	6 0	1 18 0	2 4 0	7
4-115 - - - - -	3 0	1 11 6	1 14 6	5
2-223 - - - - -	4 0	1 3 6	1 7 6	6
6-78 - - - - -	2 6	2 6 0	2 8 6	8
7-202 - - - - -	4 0	1 8 0	1 12 0	7
7-350 - - - - -	2 6	1 5 6	1 8 0	3
5-606 - - - - -	1 6	1 13 0	1 14 6	6
4-739 - - - - -	4 0	1 5 6	1 9 6	5
3-586 - - - - -	4 0	1 0 0	1 4 0	6
4-768 - - - - -	3 0	1 9 9	1 12 9	3
3-383 - - - - -	6 0	1 2 0	1 8 0	6
4-736 - - - - -	6 0	1 16 0	2 2 0	7
7-253 - - - - -	6 0	1 2 0	1 8 0	7
5-17 - - - - -	12 0	1 14 0	2 6 0	12
5-329 - - - - -	6 0	1 14 0	2 0 0	8
6-61 - - - - -	4 0	1 1 6	1 5 6	5

APPENDIX No. XCIX. (D).—*Continued.*Families who have Incomes from other Sources of £1 a Week and over—*continued.*

Register Number.	Parish Allowance.		Family Earnings.			Total Income.			Number of Persons in Family.
	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	
6-399 - - - - -	4	6	1	3	6	1	8	0	7
6-752 - - - - -	3	0	1	12	0	1	15	0	7
7-329 - - - - -	3	0	1	0	0	1	3	0	5
4-831 - - - - -	6	0	1	7	0	1	13	0	8
7-188 - - - - -	3	0	1	0	0	1	3	0	4
6-349 - - - - -	4	0	1	5	0	1	9	0	6
1-602 - - - - -	4	0	1	15	0	1	19	6	6
1-208 - - - - -	2	0	1	9	9	1	11	9	3
6-954 - - - - -	6	0	2	6	6	2	12	6	9
23-377 - - - - -	4	0	1	7	0	1	11	0	7
3-614 - - - - -	2	0	1	4	0	1	6	0	3
6-943 - - - - -	2	6	1	6	0	1	8	6	3
5-4 - - - - -	6	0	1	6	0	1	12	0	7
6-821 - - - - -	4	0	1	3	0	1	7	0	5
6-43 - - - - -	4	0	1	1	6	1	5	6	6
5-308 - - - - -	3	0	1	0	0	1	3	0	5
4-59 - - - - -	4	6	1	3	0	1	7	6	7
3-939 - - - - -	2	0	1	2	0	1	4	0	4
7-572 - - - - -	3	0	1	0	0	1	3	0	7
5-341 - - - - -	2	0	1	4	0	1	6	0	8
4-877 - - - - -	4	0	1	3	6	1	7	6	6
6-24 - - - - -	7	6	1	13	0	2	0	6	8
7-588 - - - - -	2	6	1	2	6	1	5	0	6
6-331 - - - - -	2	6	1	0	0	1	2	6	2
6-343 - - - - -	8	0	1	14	0	2	2	0	9
7-321 - - - - -	6	0	2	7	0	2	13	0	8
5-496 - - - - -	2	0	1	15	0	1	17	0	9
25-411 - - - - -	6	0	1	0	6	1	6	6	9
5-117 - - - - -	2	6	1	10	0	1	12	6	5
7-125 - - - - -	4	0	1	3	0	1	7	0	4
5-925 - - - - -	9	0	1	1	0	1	10	0	7
3-845 - - - - -	3	0	1	3	0	1	6	0	6
7-836 - - - - -	3	0	1	12	0	1	15	0	9
5-207 - - - - -	3	6	1	6	0	1	9	6	6
4-151 - - - - -	3	0	1	5	0	1	8	0	6
3-457 - - - - -	3	0	1	16	0	1	19	0	6
7-52 - - - - -	3	0	1	5	0	1	8	0	6
4-109 - - - - -	4	0	1	14	0	1	18	0	8
4-934 - - - - -	4	0	1	8	0	1	12	0	5
4-294 - - - - -	5	0	1	15	0	2	0	0	9
6-703 - - - - -	2	6	1	10	0	1	12	6	7
6 950 - - - - -	5	0	1	12	0	1	17	0	10
5-659 - - - - -	4	0	2	6	6	2	10	6	9
3-669 - - - - -	4	0	1	14	6	1	18	6	8
3-82 - - - - -	3	0	1	3	0	1	6	0	7
7-587 - - - - -	3	0	1	9	6	1	12	6	5
5-530 - - - - -	6	0	1	12	0	1	18	0	7
7-249 - - - - -	3	0	1	8	0	1	11	0	5
7-566 - - - - -	4	0	1	8	0	1	12	0	6
6-300 - - - - -	6	0	1	4	0	1	10	0	5
4-419 - - - - -	3	0	1	18	0	2	1	0	10

APPENDIX No. XCIX. (D).—*Continued.*Families who have Incomes from other Sources of £1 a Week and over—*continued.*

Register Number.	Parish Allowance.	Family Earnings.	Total Income.	Number of Persons in Family.
	s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	
3-486 - - - - -	4 0	1 8 0	1 12 0	6
4-853 - - - - -	4 0	1 7 0	1 11 0	7
3-193 - - - - -	4 0	1 6 0	1 10 0	8
7-754 - - - - -	2 0	1 10 0	1 12 0	8
7-344 - - - - -	3 6	1 13 6	1 17 0	7
7-100 - - - - -	8 0	1 3 6	1 11 6	7
7-481 - - - - -	5 0	2 10 0	2 15 0	10
5-870 - - - - -	4 0	1 0 0	1 4 0	3
7-401 - - - - -	4 0	1 5 0	1 9 0	8
6-887 - - - - -	2 6	1 13 0	1 15 6	3
7-833 - - - - -	3 0	1 6 0	1 9 0	5
5-557 - - - - -	4 0	1 6 6	1 10 6	7
6-297 - - - - -	6 0	3 0 0	3 6 0	12
4-397 - - - - -	4 6	1 6 0	1 10 6	7
6-761 - - - - -	8 0	1 3 1	1 11 0	7
7-368 - - - - -	6 0	1 4 0	1 10 0	6

APPENDIX No. XCIX. (E).

Handed in by Mr. George Esslemont, M.P., Aberdeen.

ABERDEEN CITY PARISH.

Number of Persons on Outdoor Roll, May 15th, 1907:—

Males.	Females.	Total.	Dependents.
407	1,121	1,528	1,463

Number of Persons between the Ages of 16 and 40 Years (not inclusive) in receipt of Outdoor Parish Relief, May 15th, 1907:—

Males.	Females.	Total.
129	444	573

Number of Persons in Poorhouse, May 15th, 1907:—

Males.	Females.	Total.	Children.
269	228	497	62

Number of Persons between the Ages of 16 and 60 Years (not inclusive) in the Poorhouse, May 15th, 1907:—

Males.	Females.	Total.
112	100	212

APPENDIX No. C.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO DISTRESS DUE TO UNEMPLOYMENT, BY MR. JAS. GOLDIE, MANAGING DIRECTOR OF JAS. GOLDIE & SON, LTD., BUILDERS AND CONTRACTORS, GLASGOW.

1. I am late Deacon Convener of the Trades of Glasgow ; am presently Hon. President of the Building Trades Exchange ; and have been an employer of labour for over forty years.

2. My statement of views are based on the conditions of labour in the building trade, including brick-making and quarrying.

EXTENT AND CAUSE.

3. While not a "season" trade in the ordinary sense, it is liable to complete stoppage from long-continued frost or other severe weather.

4. Excluding workmen who are idle from choice, the unemployed is not great, and consists of men who are unable, either from age or other causes, to work up to the level of the standard rate of wages, and are in consequence the first to be paid off and last to be taken on when the volume of trade fluctuates.

REMEDY.

5. Were trades unions to permit all such to work at rates within their capacity, employment would be more equitably distributed and any distress in emergencies almost disappear.

6. *Special Work.*—Where temporary relief work is provided it should always have as a basis a labour test ; the deserving will not object to this, and it at once separates the two distinct classes—those who want work and those who do not. Such special work should never be managed by a municipality, nor subsidised by local rates.

7. *Labour Farms or Colonies.*—A large proportion of unemployed are men idle from choice—partly through drink and vice—but who come into prominence and clamour loudest when work is not to be had. These men's mode of living is a menace to the community. While most are irreclaimable, some might be dealt with in a labour colony, where, freed from evil communication, they might work themselves back to respectability. The labour colony I would strongly recommend.

8. *General.*—The difficult part of the whole problem, to my mind, is what to do with the man who will neither work nor want—whose life, while he is outside the work-house, is bordering on crime, and when inside the work-house looks upon it as a sanatorium. Drastic measures should be taken to compel this man to work for his living.

APPENDIX No. CI.

**STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO UNEMPLOYMENT BY MR. J. M. HODGE, PARTNER IN
THE FIRM OF MESSRS. KEAY & HODGE, FRUIT-GROWERS IN THE BLAIRGOWRIE
DISTRICT OF PERTHSHIRE.**

1. There is during the winter time in this district a considerable amount of distress due to want of employment, because the people to a large extent are dependent upon outside work. The only relief given is given by the parish council and by charitable people. I do not suppose, however, that it is in this connection that you want my opinion. I rather think my name has been suggested to you because we are large fruit-growers in this district, and we employ about 1,000 women from the cities in the summer time, women who might otherwise be unemployed at that time, and who in any case require a month in the country from a health point of view.

2. I enclose a circular which we are issuing this year, and which will give you a good deal of information in connection with the scheme. (*See Appendix No. CI. (A).*) The women are supposed to be respectable. Many of them are extremely poor. Some of them make very good wages, and this is an advantage to themselves and to their friends, whom they have left in the towns behind them. I think I may say that practically the whole of them benefit from a physical point of view. Our scheme might be largely developed if there were some organisation in the different towns of Scotland to develop it. It would undoubtedly mean congenial, healthy employment to thousands of city women who can not possibly get a month in the country in any other way.

APPENDIX No. CI. (A).

Handed in by Mr. J. M. Hodge, Blairgowrie.

A MONTH IN THE COUNTRY FOR WORKING GIRLS.

Messrs. Keay & Hodge, fruit growers, in the Blairgowrie district of Perthshire, offer employment in raspberry gathering on their model fruit farms at Essendy, to 1,000 respectable women and girls for about one month during the season 1907.

The farms are situated three miles from Blairgowrie, in one of the loveliest districts of the Perthshire Highlands, where the air is particularly pure and bracing. The Essendy estate lies between the beautiful Lochs of Marlee and Clunie, and is surrounded by fine hill scenery. On Saturday afternoons, the workers are encouraged to organise expeditions to the famous Beech Hedge, Meikleour, and to other places of interest in the neighbourhood.

On week nights concerts are held in the dining-hall. A part of the hall is reserved for recreation, and will be available for writing, reading, etc.

The scheme was started in the summer of 1903 by Messrs. Keay & Hodge with the object of improving the conditions of work, and attracting a superior class of women to an important and growing industry. It offers a delightful, pleasant, profitable, and bracing country holiday to village, town, and city working girls and women. Hundreds have availed themselves of the opportunity of thus spending a month in the country. The results of the experiment have been very gratifying to all concerned, and the gain in health and strength to the workers very marked indeed.

LODGINGS.

These are provided by the firm to the workers at a charge of 1s. per week. The workers are lodged in buildings specially erected for them. These comprise a large dining-hall, refreshment bars, well-lighted and ventilated dormitories, containing iron bedsteads with comfortable bedding. The beds accommodate two persons each; there is accommodation for washing and drying clothes. There are also lavatories, toilet basins, boot brushes, blacking, and mirrors.

BILL OF FARE.

Meat or mince and potatoes	-	-	-	3d.
Soup	-	-	-	1d.
Pudding	-	-	-	1d.
Ham or meat sandwich, each	-	-	-	1d. and 2a.
Porridge and milk	-	-	-	1½d.
Tea or cocoa, per cup	-	-	-	½d.
Bread and butter, per slice	-	-	-	1d. and ½d.
Plate of cold boiled ham or meat	-	-	-	2d.

Eggs, fish, cheese, milk, cakes, sweets, etc., also on sale.

Messrs. Keay and Hodge have arranged this year to have the catering and dining-hall arrangements directly under their own control. The comfort and convenience of workers will be carefully attended to.

WAGES.

The fruit is picked at ½d. per lb. The wages may run, with favourable conditions of the weather and crops, to 3s. or 4s. a day, or even more. First-class pickers make over 5s. a day. Wages are to be paid daily.

RAILWAY FARES.

Each worker is supplied with a coupon, which on presentation at the principal Caledonian and North British Railway station booking offices, entitles holder to travel

to Blairgowrie at single fare for the double journey. On their arrival at Blairgowrie conveyances are provided by the firm to drive the workers and their luggage to the farms.

TIME FOR STARTING.

The time for starting is usually about the *third week of July*, this is determined very much by the weather. One week's notice will be given. Railway time table and coupon for ticket will be enclosed with exact date.

TERMS OF ENGAGEMENT.

The application form enclosed must be carefully filled up and the number of weeks the worker can remain, clearly stated in the spaces provided for that purpose. On receipt of fee the worker is registered in our books, and supplied with regulations, and registration ticket, which must be presented at Blairgowrie before entering the conveyances. The duplicate half is given up to the superintendent on arrival at farms. The worker retaining the other half during residence. It is delivered up on departure, and fee returned. No worker can be engaged for a less period than two weeks.

CLOTHING.

Workers are advised to provide themselves for working purposes with cotton blouses, sun bonnets or straw hats for good days. These, however, are not suitable for showery weather, and pickers should, whatever else they bring with them, bring a thick woollen skirt with thick bodice, strong boots, or clogs, old jackets or waterproofs. Old gloves, and stockings from which the feet have been cut are very necessary for protecting the hands and arms from the prickles of the bushes. A few pairs will be found most useful.

ARRANGEMENTS.

The entire arrangements are under the supervision of our experienced manager and his wife, who are resident at the farm. In cases of serious sickness that cannot be dealt with by the manager's wife, the services of a doctor has been specially retained for the workers' benefit. An isolation ward is provided. Post office and shop on the premises.

ENROLMENT.

Those wishing to enrol are invited to fill up accompanying application form, and return it at the very earliest, as the applications will be dealt with in the order received. Address: "Manageress, Isla Cottage, Blairgowrie." As it is the desire of Messrs. Keay & Hodge to maintain, in the interest of the workers themselves, a high standard of character and conduct, only women of guaranteed respectability will be engaged. A satisfactory reference from a clergyman (either Protestant or Catholic), an employer, or some other well-known person, must be given.

It has been found to be a pleasant and suitable arrangement for a mother and daughters, sisters, or a group of friends to go together. In no case will young children be allowed to accompany their mothers. Girls under thirteen years of age cannot be accepted; girls under sixteen years of age must be accompanied by a parent or guardian.

APPENDIX No. CII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO UNEMPLOYMENT BY MR. ALEXANDER JEWELL,
SUPERINTENDENT OF THE DUNDEE LABOUR EXCHANGE.

1. From October 31st, 1906, to May 15th, 1907, I have had 635 applications on the unemployed list, classified as follows:—

Males	-	-	-	-	-	-	625
Females	-	-	-	-	-	-	10
Total	-	-	-	-	-	-	635
Married	-	-	-	-	-	-	400
Single	-	-	-	-	-	-	140
Widowers	-	-	-	-	-	-	85
Females	-	-	-	-	-	-	10
Total	-	-	-	-	-	-	635

2. So far as can be ascertained, the character of the above-mentioned is good with the exception of eight males whose character was found to be bad.

3. The period of unemployment lasts for from one to twelve months. It is periodic in the individual, and chronic in the city.

4. The causes of distress due to unemployment may be stated as follows:—Drink, thriftlessness, and low wages, especially the last, as the wages even for tradesmen are lower in Dundee than elsewhere.

5. At many of the homes I have visited I have found the people selling their furniture and pawning their household effects, which would require to be redeemed after the owners got employment. Thus they are kept continuously in a state of chronic poverty, which has a very depressing effect upon the individual.

6. I would suggest the following as remedies:—Labour farms or colonies, more means for distress committees to deal with the question of finance, etc.

7. Prior to the passing of the Unemployed Act, 1905, the municipality opened a labour bureau for unemployed, and in 1904 provided work as follows:—

Names on register	-	-	-	-	1,643
Tickets issued for works	-	-	-	-	916
Commenced work	-	-	-	-	556

8. The Unemployed Workmen Act, so far as my experience goes, is found to be cumbersome.

9. Through the agency of the distress committee, 274 were employed during the past winter for a period of over two months each.

10. The labour bureau is to be kept open all the year round for the registration of the unemployed. A list of names has been handed to many employers of labour throughout the city. Only a limited number of employers have taken advantage of the labour bureau, they having always been in the habit of either advertising or taking men in from the gates.

APPENDIX No. CIII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO UNEMPLOYMENT BY MR. D. LAIDLAW, OF MESSRS.
R. LAIDLAW & SON, LIMITED, ENGINEERS AND IRON PIPE FOUNDERS, GLASGOW.*Causes of Distress due to Unemployment.*

1. My experience in connection with a section of our workmen who are paid by piece and make very large wages, ranging on average about 60s. a week, has been for many years, that whenever they have been off work, for probably no more than a week, they come in wishing money to be given them. You can easily see that if men of this class were at all provident there would be no necessity for them to do this, making as they do wages very much bigger than tradesmen, such as fitters. The cause of this distress must, therefore, be laid down to their extremely improvident habits, and the amount of money that they spend on drink. Of course there are men belonging to the same section who are generally well off.

2. Also when I was a member of the Stevenston Parish Council in the County of Ayr for six years, I had frequent opportunities of hearing of cases exactly similar. The police there have often told me that men who were making the biggest wages in the district were living in houses that could only be described as hovels, and in the most abject state of disgraceful poverty even when employed. When unemployed the matter was much worse, and all this was caused simply by their squandering of money, principally in buying drink. On the other hand, with respectable people the causes of distress arise entirely through any savings that they may have made being all used up during unemployment, and their being often compelled, when long unemployed, to pawn or sell their various articles of furniture.

Effects of Distress due to Unemployment.

3. The effects of such distress is, of course, to throw a large amount of extra expense on the Parish Council Poor Law authorities, expense which, in the case of the improvidence to which I have referred, could be to a

large extent obviated, as, of course, it is in the case of the decent people with some sort of self-respect, who do everything in their power to support themselves by selling their own belongings before coming on the parish council. So far as my experience of such work went, it was generally the improvident people who had no compunction whatever in applying for relief, and who naturally caused the greatest amount of expense; it was generally with the greatest reluctance that respectable people made any such application.

Remedies for Distress due to Unemployment.

4. As regards special work provided by municipalities prior to the Unemployed Workmen Act, in many cases it seems to me the work that was provided was work that was specially inaugurated in order to give the employment; in short, was work that was not necessary work in any sense of the term. The community was, therefore, saddled with the expense of this work, which was often undertaken out of a pure charity, and not with any idea of being of permanent utility. In the case of works undertaken that were of permanent value, the work as a rule was not so well done as it would have been by men whose trade or occupation it was to work at it, as all sorts of men were taken in to do the work. The result of it not being so well done was, of course, increased expense to the community. The same remarks, it seems to me, would almost apply on all fours to provided work of any kind, whether under the new act or not.

5. Trades union unemployment benefit is undoubtedly a great factor in relief of distress for tradesmen, and my experience in Ayrshire was that where it was a question of tradesmen falling into distress, the amount required by tradesmen who were members of trades unions (if required at all) was, of course, very much less than by those who were not. I expect that this will be found of general application all over the country.

APPENDIX No. CIII.—*Continued.*

6. As to remedies to be employed to combat such distress, it is a very difficult matter to speak, as in many cases the relief does not reach the people for whom it is intended. During the construction, for instance, of the Caledonian Underground Railway in Glasgow some years ago, it was common knowledge that many of the labourers there employed were in the habit of going to the soup kitchens, which were at that time in operation to relieve distress, and receiving their ration along with those who had a better right to it. Unless, therefore, some system can be devised to prevent those who are not in need from obtaining assistance, all such remedies where anything is given free, very largely defeat themselves. Where clothes are distributed as one society does in Glasgow, to clothe poor children, even with all the precautions of marking them to prevent their being pawned, in many instances they find their way into the pawnbrokers' hands.

7. While it is impossible to make men either sober or thrifty by Act of Parliament, it seems to me that Poor Law authorities would require to get some more drastic powers of dealing with cases of distress due to notorious improvidence and insobriety. From my experience, already referred to, there was often a tendency to deal so leniently with cases of this sort that on several occasions I had to remind the members of the parish council that we were not an organisation for the distribution of charitable relief. In Germany, I understand, they have some methods of compulsion which produce results such as we cannot obtain in this country, and it seems to me that compulsion of some kind will be necessary to deal with the evils as they at present exist. At present such characters go in and out of the poor-houses at will, and there is no power either to refuse or to detain them.

APPENDIX No. CIV.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO UNEMPLOYMENT BY MR. ROBERT T. LEITCH,
SECRETARY OF THE DUNDEE FREE LABOUR BUREAU.

1. In my official capacity as honorary secretary of the Dundee Free Labour Bureau, I am not in a position to deal with the questions you refer to in the syllabus as applying to unemployment generally in the town, but as secretary of the above-named bureau, which deals with dock labour and riverside labour generally at this port, I can give you a little evidence which may be of some assistance to your Commission.

2. Briefly, we have about 700 dock labourers during the six winter months, which is the busy period at our docks here; during that time these dock labourers may average about 15s. weekly wage. During the six summer months, when trade is slack at the docks, the number is reduced to about 300 men, the weekly average wage being about 10s. A large number of the younger men usually migrate to the country during the summer months, where they find employment as casual labourers in

connection with building, farm work, or otherwise. During the whole year employment is very precarious, and considerable distress, due to unemployment, is frequently in evidence.

3. There is, however, no trades union in the district from which those in distress can draw any benefit while unemployed. Many of the dock labourers are married men with families, and the young boys and girls, after they pass the half-time age of twelve, find employment as half-timers in the local mills and factories. The women in the families, if too old to work in the mills, frequently find employment at sack-sewing at home, at which they can make a few shillings a week. The lot, therefore, of the married dock labourer with a family is, on the whole, more favourable than is the case with single men who have to find employment for themselves otherwise during the slack summer months.

APPENDIX No. CV.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO UNEMPLOYMENT BY MR. JAMES MACFARLANE, OF
MESSRS. MACFARLANE, LANG & CO., BISCUIT MAKERS, GLASGOW.

1. The number of unemployed bakers in Glasgow may be pretty accurately stated at from 550 to 600. They belong almost entirely to the class known as "table hands," *i.e.*, ordinary journeymen, *who, when in constant employment, earn a minimum wage of 34s. per week.* The character of these men (*i.e.*, the non-constant men) can be described as for the most part unsteady.

2. The question as to the period of duration may be answered by describing the conditions of the baking trade in Glasgow. The quantity of bread required varies from day to day, and the average daily demand on the first five days of the week is doubled, and sometimes more than doubled, on Saturday. Employment is, to a large extent, affected also by the demand for early morning bread, and employers who, for example, require twenty men to turn out their day's work, instead of employing twenty constant men, will work with possibly fifteen constant men, and as against the other five, draw from the unemployed section ten men whom they employ for the first half-day only, and these are engaged and paid from day to day. Therefore of the 550 to 600 unemployed, a considerable proportion obtain half-a-day's work during a part of the week, and they are all probably employed all day on Saturday.

CAUSES.

3. Looking to the wages paid in the baking trade and the number of hours worked in the week, the causes of distress due to unemployment I should consider chiefly due to want of thrift on the part of men when young and able to keep a good situation.

EFFECTS.

4. The unemployed section of operative bakers gradually become confirmed in unsteady habits, and among them there are very few cases where a little help would be of much service.

REMEDIES.

5. *Trades Union Unemployed Benefit.*—This undoubtedly is a good means of affording help where it is needed, and where assistance would be properly taken advantage of, and is one way of the men co-operating to obtain what I believe is the only effective remedy for distress due to unemployment, *viz.*, thrift.

6. The same remarks might apply to municipal insurance, but when I state that we are just on the point of raising our minimum wage to journeymen to 35s. per week, that one class of men who have more responsible work earn from 38s. to 40s., another from 45s. to 50s., and that foremen are paid up to as high as £5 and £6 per week, I think with the facilities which are offered on all hands for providing against old age or misfortune, no man of steady habits need be absolutely without help when he comes through age to be incapacitated for work. The men work an eight hours' day, forty-eight hours per week.

7. I enclose a Statement with regard to the state of trade over Scotland, from which you may be able to obtain some additional information. (*See Appendix No. CV. (A).*)

APPENDIX No. CV. (A).—Continued.
Handed in by Mr. James Macfarlane, Glasgow.

DETAILED ACCOUNT AS TO MEMBERSHIP, ARREARS DUE TO NATIONAL FUND, FUNERAL CLAIMS PAID, STATE OF TRADE, &c.
FOR QUARTER ENDING 8TH APRIL, 1807.—continued.

Name of Branch.	Minimum Wage.	Membership.		New Members Enrolled.	Entries by Clearance Cards.	Clearance Cards Granted.	Arrears due National Fund.	Amount paid in Funeral Claims.	State of Trade.	Date when Returns were Forwarded.
		Working.	Unem- ployed.							
Hawick	26	23	2	1	—	—	—	—	—	April 20
Helensburgh	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Inverness	28	35	6	1	—	—	—	—	Quiet.	April 27
Irvine	30	12	—	—	—	—	—	—	V. Good.	April 22
Inverurie	—	6	2	3	—	—	—	—	Good.	April 15
Kirkintilloch	32	22	—	—	1	—	—	—	F. Good.	April 22
Kilsyth	32	13	4	1	—	—	—	—	Fair.	April 10
Kilmarnock	30	119	19	2	1	—	2 5 0	5 10 0	Quiet.	April 16
Kilwinning	30	38	5	3	1	—	—	—	Fair.	April 9
Kilbirnie	32	15	3	—	—	—	—	—	Fair.	April 18
Kirriemuir	—	10	—	1	—	—	—	—	Quiet.	April 20
Leven and District	27	25	1	6	—	—	—	—	Fair.	April 17
Leith	28	69	31	32	—	—	—	—	Fair.	May 4
Motherwell	34	36	4	4	—	—	—	—	Quiet.	April 20
Musselburgh	29	23	3	1	—	—	—	—	Fair.	April 17
Monrose	—	12	—	—	—	—	—	—	V. Good.	April 25
New Cumnock	—	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	Fair.	April 24
Penicuik	28	8	1	—	—	—	—	—	Dull.	April 9
Paisley and District	34	127	60	10	—	—	—	—	Fair.	April 24
Partick	34	32	17	—	5	—	—	9 10 0	Fair.	April 16
Peebles	28	8	1	1	2	—	—	—	Dull.	April 11
Ferth	30	75	19	1	—	—	—	—	Fair.	April 24
Port-Glasgow	—	16	4	—	—	—	—	—	Fair.	April 11
Shotts	—	10	1	—	2	—	—	—	Fair.	April 16
Slamannan	32	9	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Stirling and District	31	26	4	1	—	—	—	—	Quiet.	April 11
Stranraer	29	16	3	—	1	—	—	—	Fair.	April 11
Troon	32	15	6	—	—	—	—	—	Fair.	April 26
Thornhill	—	1	2	—	—	—	—	—	Quiet.	April 13
Tranent	29	30	—	6	—	—	—	—	—	April 18
Vale of Leven and Dumbarton	34	71	18	3	1	—	—	2 10 0	Fair.	April 19
Wishaw	34	43	6	4	1	—	—	—	Fair.	April 17
West Calder and District	31	19	3	—	2	—	—	—	V. Quiet.	April 15
Wick	—	32	6	3	1	—	—	—	Fair.	April 16
Totals,		3,572	1,288	371	66	105	£15 16 8	£82 10 0		April 18

Total Membership, 4,860.

APPENDIX No. CVI.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO UNEMPLOYMENT BY MR. R. B. MACOUAT, OF THE RIVET, BOLT, AND NUT COMPANY, GLASGOW.

1. I am of opinion that facilities should be given for employing more people on the land, and I hail the introduction of the Small Landholders Bills as an important step in this direction.

2. Regarding the lower strata, or what may be called "Unemployables," increased powers should be given to local authorities to acquire land, and to equip farm

colonies for the purpose of giving these wasters an opportunity of getting back to the employable class.

3. I am aware that this would not solve the difficulties that arise in times of severe trade depression for which other remedies would have to be provided, but as to what these should be I am not prepared to offer an opinion.

APPENDIX No. CVII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO UNEMPLOYMENT, BY MR. THOMAS MASON, PARTNER OF THE FIRM OF MESSRS. MORRISON AND MASON, BUILDERS AND CONTRACTORS, POLMADIE, GLASGOW.

1. At the present time I represent the Merchants' House in the Town Council as Lord Dean of Guild. Some years ago I was also in the Town Council: (a) as Deacon Convener of the Trades House; and (b) as representative of one of the City Wards. I am also a Director in Sir William Arrol & Co., engineer and bridge builders; Young's Paraffin Oil Works; Fleming and Fergusson, ship builders—all employing a large number of workmen. Generally the following remarks apply to the workmen employed in these large works.

2. In the execution of numerous large contracts, and the employing of a considerable body of men, both tradesmen and labourers, I have come to the conclusion that many men who, from some cause or other, have fallen into the lower stratum, are none too willing, when given the chance, to avail themselves of the opportunity of regular work. I am also of the opinion that few men who are willing and able to work, are unable to obtain employment. An employer of labour, of course, when given the choice, naturally selects the man who seems best able to discharge the work required; consequently the tradesman or labourer who, from whatever cause, has been out of employment for a considerable period, is frequently, from his general appearance alone, passed over.

3. Dealing with the extent of distress due to unemployment in the building trade, I think that can undoubtedly be generally classed as periodic—only to an infinitesimal extent chronic—the building trade being one which

periodically is subject to booms and depressions. That trade in Glasgow is at the present time at a very low ebb, with little prospect of early improvement. This can probably be attributed to the fact that, owing to recent over-building in the city, and migration of the townspeople to the suburbs, the number of unlet houses in the city, over 14,000, is quite unprecedented. Slackness in the building trade proper has, of course, an immediate effect on allied trades, viz.: painters, plasterers, plumbers, etc. It is also, too, at once felt at the brick-fields.

4. In connection with the building trade, I would strongly advocate the adoption of a scheme of idle benefit. Any such provision, however, would require to be very carefully safeguarded against abuse, to which it would be very liable.

5. Generally, I am of opinion that a large amount of unemployment is due not only to drink but to want of thrift in times of prosperity.

6. The man who, when in regular employment, does not fail to make provision for the reverse state of matters which inevitably at some time follows, will be the first to obtain employment when the slack period is over. Not only will he be physically better able for work than his thriftless companion, but his appearance will favour him when applying for employment.

7. For the man who wanders over the country with no desire for work and quite happy without it—the habitual vagrant—I recommend a penal colony.

APPENDIX No. CVIII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO UNEMPLOYMENT IN THE PAINTING TRADE BY MR. JOHN ORR, OF MESSRS. JOHN ORR & SONS, DECORATORS, GLASGOW.

1. There must always be a considerable amount of distress amongst the painters during the winter months; but this is quite chronic in the painting trade, and has always been. Outside work is at a standstill, and people, except under exceptional circumstances where houses are changing hands, will not do any interior work during the winter, on account of discomfort.

2. In large towns and cities there is always a large amount of public work to be done, which helps, to some extent, to mitigate distress.

3. Our municipalities might do a great deal more by way of letting their contracts for painting work to be executed during the winter months—such work as museums, baths, electricity works, slaughter-houses,

hospitals, etc. The Government also could do a good deal in connection with Post Offices, Inland Revenue Offices, etc.

4. Painters as a rule, who are careful and thrifty (and I think the majority are), need never be much idle, especially in large towns, if what I say in paragraph 3 were carried out. In small towns it might be otherwise.

5. It is impossible for me to say with any degree of accuracy in how far drink and improvidence have to do with this chronic distress in the winter season, but no doubt these two things, especially the former, is accountable for some of it.

APPENDIX No. CIX

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO UNEMPLOYMENT BY MR. GEORGE RANKINE,
SUPERINTENDENT OF THE CURR NIGHT REFUGE, DUNDEE.*Extent (Navvies, Shipyard Labourers and Boys).*

1. During the last twelve months there have come to Dundee and its neighbourhood, seeking work at ship-building, Fife Railway, and Arbroath Waterworks, hundreds of Scotch and Irish navvies, hundreds of navvies from North of England and hundreds of labourers from the Clyde. The latter contingent was partly composed of young men under twenty, who thus made their first acquaintance with the privations of the road.

2. This rush occurs occasionally, depends on the state of trade in general in some measure, but is greatly emphasised by any local demand such as the railway or water-works.

Causes.

3. Where there is a true home life, thrift, and sobriety, the family stands by the unemployed member, and the unemployment becomes little more than an inconvenience that is soon remedied. But when men and boys are thrust forth from home life and home ties by the impatience and abuse of those who might have seen them through the period of unemployment it is generally found on inquiry that there has been a want of thrift and a decay of natural affection at home, and there is little difficulty in tracing these to the still deeper root—the baleful ever-spreading custom of week-end drinking.

Effects.

4. These effects manifest themselves in the absence of home ties; in the refusal—determined and often irrevocable—to apply to relations for help; in the utter denial of their existence; in a rushing here and there after employment in desperate earnestness; latterly in an aimless wandering to and fro; still later in such a deterioration of the man, morally and physically, as makes any tragedy possible.

Paragraphs 3 and 4 apply chiefly to the city labourer.

Remedies.

5. Much evil and distress might be avoided by each municipality providing work for its own unemployed, so as to render the privations of the road unnecessary.

6. Also by the provision of thorough information where work is to be found, for hundreds take the road, misled by advertisements which can only be characterised as false.

7. The labour farm or yard serves to discriminate between the worker and the idler. *But it is necessary to compel the idler to work until he begins to like it.*

8. The teaching of temperance and thrift to the children and youth of the nation, and legislation in the interests of temperance.

9. Consequently the encouragement and promotion—rather the insistence on temperance principles among teachers of children.

10. The settlement or rather retention of the country labourer in the country by every possible means. Why should it be necessary for men of Skye and Ross, men of Ulster, men of Yorkshire—men—genuine labouring men of the most splendid physique—to wander up and down the country, homeless and without home ties, in search of work. It is surely the most pitiable sight a patriot can look on, to see young men of twenty-four years, some of them discharged soldiers, six feet and upwards, applying for a night's shelter, as they are homeless and friendless and do not know where next to seek for work. These remarks apply to the country labourer as distinguished from the city labourer. His native strath offered him no inducement to stay, nor does it now offer any inducement to return. He is also, for many obvious reasons, ashamed to face the old folks at home.

APPENDIX No. CX.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE ON BEHALF OF THE SCOTTISH FIREWOOD MANUFACTURERS' ASSOCIATION, BY MESSRS. JNO. & W. D. HALL, F.S.A.A., ACCOUNTANTS AND AUDITORS, GLASGOW, SECRETARIES OF THE ASSOCIATION.

1. As secretaries of the Scottish Firewood Manufacturers' Association we have for a long time been endeavouring to get the charitable and philanthropic institutions and the parish councils who make firewood to work in harmony with us in fixing a standard size of bundle and a standard price per gross to the shopkeepers.

In Glasgow it has been customary for some time to supply the bundles of wood with the one end dipped in rosin, but recently the market price of that commodity has risen so much that the firewood manufacturers found it quite impossible to continue supplying rosined wood at 4s. per gross of bundles which has long been looked upon here by the shopkeepers as the price at which their supplies of wood should be obtained.

3. Accordingly at a meeting of our Association in June, 1905, it was resolved to dispense with the use of rosin in the manufacture of firewood for the following reasons, viz. :—

(1) It is quite unnecessary.

(2) The danger attending its use, and the frequent fires which have occurred in consequence.

(3) The high rates of premium charged by insurance companies when it is used; and

(4) The high price at present ruling in the market for rosin, which renders the sale of firewood at its present price at a profit quite impossible.

4. We communicated with the charitable institutions and the parish councils, inviting them to co-operate with us in this matter and in the fixing of prices and dealing with questions affecting the trade which might arise from time to time.

5. We may say, however, that we have received little or no consideration at the hands of the charitable institutions, whilst the parish councils have refused to discuss the matter with us, or remedy our grievances in any way whatever.

6. As you are doubtless aware, these charitable and philanthropic institutions—the principal of which in this locality are the Church Army Home, The Church of Scotland Committee on Social Work, and the Charity Organisation Society—get their work done by vagrants, tramps, and other wastrels in exchange for, in some cases, a night's lodgings, a meal or two of food, with, perhaps, a small money payment, whilst the parish councils do not make any payments in cash in name of wages, as the whole work is done by their inmates composed as they are of the classes already referred to.

APPENDIX No. CX.—*Continued.*

7. It is needless to say that as the charitable institutions are subsidised by subscriptions from a generous public, and as the parish councils do not require to pay wages at all in cash, and are subsidised by the public rates, none of these bodies require to earn a profit on their trading, and they are well able, as they do, to compete unfairly with the private traders who, of course, are all ratepayers.

8. The private traders had never any difficulty in meeting the demands of the public for firewood, so that it follows that any trade the institutions and parish councils secure is consequently diverted from, and harmful to the private traders.

9. So clamant has this unfair competition and the underselling become that numbers of the employers are being driven out of the trade, and their employees—both men and women—who at the best could only earn a meagre livelihood have had to seek relief from the very institutions which have wrought such havoc, or have become a charge upon the parish poor rates.

10. We may say that all our negotiations with the charitable institutions and the parish councils have been of the nature of an appeal to their sense of fairness, but it is quite evident from the way our advances have been treated that some action based upon or supported by direct legal authority must be taken before we can expect redress.

11. We feel convinced that it was never contemplated by the Legislature that competition with private traders should be entered into by parish councils, and that measures should be adopted forthwith to put a stop to it.

12. We take it that the Truck Acts apply to all employers of labour whether these be charitable institutions, parish councils or ordinary bodies, and it is quite clear that the Acts are totally disregarded by these public bodies.

13. If, however, such institutions and the parish councils do not come within the scope of the Act, our members are unanimous in asking that the Act be amended in such a way as will rectify this clamant injustice.

APPENDIX No. CXI.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO UNEMPLOYMENT BY MR. THOMAS SCRIMGEOUR, OUT-DOOR SUPERINTENDENT OF THE ABERDEEN DISTRESS COMMITTEE.

1. I was an inspector of the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children for over six years. During the first one and a quarter years I was stationed in Glasgow, and was afterwards transferred to Aberdeen, where I was inspector for five years. For the past eighteen months I have been outdoor superintendent of the Aberdeen Distress Committee, and my duties have consisted of visiting the homes of applicants, and dealing with the men making application for employment at relief works.

2. With regard to the extent of distress due to unemployment, of 1,310 applicants registered, 880 are general labourers, 220 are artisans (more or less skilled) connected with the building trade, sixty-six are women, mostly casual workers, while the remaining 144 are tradesmen, almost of every class. The majority are of good character. A goodly percentage are of advanced years.

3. From October to March, inclusive, depression is marked. With nearly 50 per cent. unemployment is chronic, *i.e.*, the same individuals need relief again and again; with the other 50 per cent. it is periodic, and short periods of relief tide them over the periods of distress.

4. Distress is caused by want of steady employment, by insufficient earnings, by improvidence and intemperance, but chiefly by the men being irregularly or only casually employed. Depression in the building trade has been acute during the past year.

5. The effects of distress due to unemployment are the physical, mental and moral deterioration of the individuals, suffering of their dependants and the creation of a spirit of reliance upon others, and a growing tendency to accept charitable assistance by a class who formerly did not care to do so.

June, 1907.

6. Special work provided at different periods by municipalities, while it has no doubt afforded relief to large numbers, has not been of lasting benefit.

7. The operation of the Unemployed Workmen Act has also afforded a great amount of relief (over £3,000 being spent), and in many cases has tided the applicant and dependants over the period of depression until he is again able to get work for himself; in other cases the applicant is in the same position as formerly—in a chronic state of distress through unemployment. The work provided by the Aberdeen Distress Committee has consisted chiefly of stone-breaking and road-making. The majority of the applicants employed at road-making performed the work allotted to them with efficiency and nearly up to the standard of men employed at this class of work.

8. In connection with the work of stone-breaking, while a large number of men performed the work in a satisfactory manner, a considerable proportion, either from lack of experience or from physical disability, did not do efficient work, and a considerable loss resulted on this class of work. During the early part of the year the weather was very severe, and as the situation of the work was much exposed, this may to some extent account for the loss.

9. The most that can be said in favour of emigration is that, on the whole, it has been the best class of applicant who has availed himself of this provision in the Act. With one or two exceptions the family has been left behind. So far as can be learned, those emigrated are doing well.

10. The labour bureau has not been taken advantage of by employers to any great extent, probably because labour is so plentiful.

11. Members of the various trades unions, whom I presume were in receipt of unemployed benefit from their union, have not registered with this committee.

12. The training of the younger men on labour colonies is worthy of a trial.

APPENDIX No. CXII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO UNEMPLOYMENT BY MR. ALEXANDER SMELLIE,
OUTDOOR MANAGER WITH MESSRS. JAMES CURRIE & CO., SHIPOWNERS, LEITH.*Extent.*

1. As many of the casual labourers who work with us also work with other shipowners and stevedores I cannot give the actual numbers, but approximately we employ from twenty to 250 daily, that is to say, on those days when there is little work doing we may have only twenty men employed and when we are exceptionally busy there may be 250. About half of the 250 may be good workers and fairly steady, but I do not think that I am far wrong when I say that about three-fourths of the remainder are just the opposite, and it is this class who suffer in dull times, as their earnings are largely spent in dissipation, leaving them unprovided for the proverbial rainy day. Dock labourers are recruited from all classes. A few have been so almost from boyhood, but the majority are men who have failed at other occupations, such as bakers, butchers, grocers, blacksmiths, coopers, moulders, coachmen, sailors, firemen, etc., and a good many are discharged soldiers.

2. Work is fairly plentiful throughout the year with the exception of a month or two in the winter when there is, no doubt, some distress due to unemployment, but such distress is insignificant when compared with that due to and caused by dissipation and unwillingness to work. Distress from this cause is chronic.

Causes.

3. The chief cause is that the supply of dock labour exceeds the demand. The docks seem to be the refuge of most of those who cannot obtain work at the occupations to which they have been accustomed, which makes it a hardship for those who depend upon dock labour alone for their livelihood; but I have no doubt that temporary work at the docks has enabled many a one to keep the wolf from the door until he could obtain employment at his legitimate trade. I am also of the opinion that the Workmen's Compensation Act and co-operation have added to the casual labour class, thereby increasing the competition.

Effects.

4. Distress due to unemployment no doubt adds to the criminal classes and inmates of poor houses.

Remedies.

5. Seeing that one of the chief causes of unemployment among casual labourers is the competition from discharged soldiers, which has been intensified since the short service system was introduced into the Army, this evil would be got rid of if the Government would make it their duty to see that these men were provided with employment on leaving the Army instead of being thrown on the country, many of them to become vagrants and

criminals. I think that the men are entitled to better treatment.

6. As the skilled tradesman out of work also enters largely into competition with the casual labourer, this hardship would be mitigated if the workmen could get work at their own trade, and this might be brought about by increased outlets for manufactured goods.

7. As regards unemployed wastrels it is possible that a municipal factory, labour farm or colony, where the men could earn sufficient to maintain their families until more remunerative employment offered, might be beneficial; but as steady work is not what these men want, I am afraid such an institution would be of little use unless the men were coerced to work.

8. Taking the question of unemployment generally, I am of opinion that much of it is the offspring of modern legislation. Too much has been done for the working man and this has not been for his good. Looking back a quarter of a century I would ask any unbiassed observer if, notwithstanding the many Acts of Parliament passed since then, presumably for his good, he has improved either morally or physically or does he take a greater interest in his work. Does he take the same pride in his work which made the British workman famous all the world over? If the answer be given honestly it must be no, and in face of so much foreign competition may this not be a fertile cause of unemployment? He has now a great deal of leisure time and has got rid of the expense of educating his children, and it has been proposed that he should even be relieved of the expense of feeding them. I am afraid that the majority of them do not employ their leisure time profitably, neither do they spend wisely the money that should have been used in educating and feeding their children. Such legislation has a tendency to demoralise and destroy the spirit of independence, but it is evident that it is now too late to recede and he would be a bold politician who would suggest a change. Considering the result of the legislation I am convinced that if the Education Act had been passed in a different form the result would have been more beneficial. I would certainly have given the children of the working man free education, and I would also have given them free meals. I would even have given them free clothing (a great many of them need it greatly, especially in the winter time) if the parents were incapable even under compulsion of providing such; but I would have made this proviso, that those who were so relieved should be disfranchised. This would have acted as a stimulus and an incentive to the working man who wished to do well and have a voice in the government of the country, and it would also have had the effect of showing among the working class those who were predisposed to well-doing and those who were not.

ADDENDUM.

ANSWERS BY THE ABOVE-NAMED WITNESS TO QUESTIONS SUBMITTED BY PROFESSOR SMART.

Question I.—Trade unions among dockers: if strong or weak? Your own policy regarding them?

Answer I.—There is a trade union among dockers at this port, but it is not strong, the great majority being non-unionists. When we employ men we ask no questions, but give work to unionists and non-unionists alike, when we can provide it.

Question II.—Old soldier dockers: what proportion of the whole?

Answer II.—Of the men employed by us as dockers, I think that discharged soldiers form from 15 to 20 per cent. of the whole.

Question III.—The nature and number of your own staff of dockers: the forty-six week men: how paid? (Please make it clear that the 20-250 mentioned are outside of this staff.)

Answer III.—With regard to our permanent stevedoring staff, we have five foremen who are paid a weekly wage without any allowance for overtime, and we have also forty-six experienced men who are paid weekly, but at a rate per hour, their ordinary pay being 7d. per hour, and overtime 8d. per hour. These comprise shoot-end men, winchmen and cranemen, hold-men, and quaymen, and although paid weekly, they only get payment for the time they work. They are not included in the number of casual labourers.

APPENDIX No. CXII.—*Continued.*ADDENDUM—*Continued.*

Question IV.—How the dockers are taken on: if any preference is given; rate of wage per hour, etc.; wage of overtime?

Answer IV.—We usually appoint a foreman to superintend the work at each steamer, and it rests with him to employ as many casual labourers as are required. The head foreman allots the experienced winchmen, shoot-end men, hold-men, and quay-men, to each steamer. Casual labourers are paid at 6d. per hour, with 25 per cent. more for overtime, which counts from 6 p.m. to 6 a.m., but when a man of this class acts as shoot-end man or quay-man, which is sometimes the case, he gets 6d. per day or part of a day extra.

Question V.—If the trade of Leith is steady throughout the year, and what staple imports and exports it depends on?

Answer V.—With the exception of a month or two in winter, the trade of Leith is pretty steady throughout the year. The staple imports are sugar, flour, case and bale goods, flax, hemp, timber, manure salts, grain, manufactured iron, oil, glassware, etc., and the principal exports are coal, pig-iron, salt herrings, fresh herrings, machinery, sulphate of ammonia, oil, case and bale goods, etc.

Question VI.—What lines have staffs of their own?

Answer VI.—The following shipping lines in addition to ours have their own stevedoring staff at this port:—

George Gibson & Co., owners of the Rotterdam, Antwerp, and Ghent steamers.

North of Scotland Shipping Co.

M. Langlands & Sons, agents for the Liverpool, Moray Firth, Aberdeen, etc., steamers.

London & Edinburgh Shipping Co.

Question VII.—What kind of ships are worked by stevedore contractors: if wage the same as with you?

Answer VII.—The lines that employ stevedore contractors are:—

W. Thomson & Co., owners of the St. Petersburg steamers.

James Cormack & Co., owners of the Riga, Windau and Archangel steamers.

G. V. Turnbull & Co., agents for the Aarhus, etc., steamers.

Henderson & McIntosh, agents for the Montreal steamers.

All tramp steamers.

The ordinary docker's pay with contractors is the same as with us, but some of them pay 9d. per hour for overtime. Their work is intermittent, however, the men employed by us getting much more constant work.

Question VIII.—How the Compensation Act affects you: as doing your own insuring?

Answer VIII.—The Compensation Act has not affected us greatly, although we do our own insuring. We have now done our own stevedoring for about fifteen years, and from the first until the passing of the Compensation Act gave every man who was injured at least half-pay, and that from the time of the accident until he was again able for work. As we use the best gear, and exercise strict supervision, serious accidents are few, considering the number of men we employ, and the nature of the work. The Act has, however, prevented us from employing, as we used to, elderly men, or men who suffer from any disablement, however slight.

Question IX.—If there is any specialisation among the dockers, and if different rates of wages are accordingly paid?

Answer IX.—There is no specialisation among the dockers we employ other than that the experienced men who form our permanent staff get a higher pay.

APPENDIX No. CXIII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO UNEMPLOYMENT BY MR. J. S. TEMPLETON, SENIOR PARTNER OF THE FIRM OF JAMES TEMPLETON AND CO., CARPET MANUFACTURERS, GLASGOW, WHICH EMPLOYS OVER 2,600 WORKPEOPLE IN ITS FOUR MILLS, OR RATHER GROUPS OF MILLS.

1. The evils of want of employment do not come much under my personal notice for the reason that during the past thirty years our looms and machinery have been well kept running. I can therefore only express some general opinions which I have formed from experience other than my own.

2. In the first place let me say that want of employment is to a considerable extent due to the discouragement of manufacturers by the Government. There must be employers as well as men and women to be employed, and capable employers with adequate capital are as necessary to success in procuring the means of employment as capable generals with sufficient commissariat are necessary for success in war. But it seems to me that the trend of recent domestic legislation has taken the direction of harassing employers with petty, vexatious, and costly obligations, and has even taken the direction of supporting workpeople when they arbitrarily and wrongfully try to interfere with and coerce their employers. We want statesmen of wide views, such as Colbert, the great Minister of Louis XIV., who did so much to promote the industries of France. We want also more of the spirit of the people of the United States, who nursed their infant manufactures until they have become, as they are to-day, immense in volume and splendid in excellence. I may say parenthetically that I believe that the production of carpets alone in America is more than double that of this country, and we all know how America stands relatively to Great Britain in the production of iron and steel.

3. Possessing, as I believe I do, much general knowledge of the fabrication of textiles, I am painfully observant of the large quantities of cloths imported from France, Germany, and Austria which could be, and ought to be, made by ourselves. Why should we not help our young men to become manufacturers of such goods and so

provide employment for the people of this country? In one word, let us deal with unemployment by prevention rather than by cure. [As to this cf. page 10, vol. 5, of "The Cambridge Modern History."]

4. But whatever be the causes of want of employment, whether discouragement to capitalists, closure of markets, growth of population and the like, it is an evil we can never wholly escape. How is it to be met under present circumstances? My answer must turn very much on the following consideration. We ourselves are part of the scheme of things we call Nature. A struggle for existence pervades all life. The weak perish. Nature is ruthless to the few in order to be merciful to the many. Have we not therefore reason to ask ourselves whether we are not thwarting a really beneficent law when we try to support lives which are past all cure? In other words, when human beings have become spoiled by vice, by self-indulgence, by inveterate laziness, and have resisted every appeal to their conscience and reason, does there not come a time when we should stand aside and let Nature take its course? The practical issue of this line of thought is that philanthropic societies and municipalities, in providing work for the unemployed, should do so under carefully restricted conditions and with great discrimination. In my opinion no work should be offered to men known to be habitual drunkards, wife beaters, cruel to their children, constant loafers or incorrigible criminals. I am persuaded that philanthropy, which is sentimental rather than scientific, does harm and not good.

5. What I have now written is, I fear, not a specific answer to the headings and sub-headings of your syllabus. If so, I quite expect that my letter will be consigned to your waste basket. At the same time I would respectfully submit that the settlement of sound principles should precede all remedial action and that it is to some of these fundamental principles that I venture to call attention,

APPENDIX No. CXIV.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO UNEMPLOYMENT, BY MR. A. TRAN, FOREMAN OF THE GLASGOW CITY COUNCIL'S RELIEF WORKS AT WESTERHILL.

1. Relief work started on November 19th, 1906, with thirty-five men, and increased week by week up to 400 men—the maximum. Since the work started up to the present date, upwards of 850 men have been given employment at Westerhill.

2. *Wages.*—Men start at 12s. per week, rising to 15s. per week, according to zeal and ability. One-fourth of the men were able to attain the higher rate of pay; half of the men being in receipt of 13s. 6d. per week; remainder, 12s. per week.

3. *Nature of Employment.*—The men are engaged in excavating and removing a large hill, the material being suitable for brick-making purposes, the stones being removed and the strata mixed and weathered in the process. After removal the ground to be utilised as a building site, being unsuitable in its existing form for that purpose. The men, being unaccustomed to the work, take some time to adapt themselves to the use of the pick and barrow, a very small percentage having had experience in the work previously.

4. *Return compared with Outlay.*—The small return for the outlay is accounted for partly owing to the inexperience of the men, the spirit of the men to do as little as they can get off with, a good many of the men being unemployable, and the ground being priced on contract method of removal, or manual power against steam.

5. A considerable number of the men are chronic unemployed, and remained at the relief work as long as permitted, their age, appearance, and health being against them in securing employment elsewhere. These men would be more suitable for a labour colony than a temporary relief work.

6. The majority of the men found the relief work of great assistance during their period of idleness, and were thankful for the temporary employment.

7. The men work from 8 a.m. to 4 p.m., with one hour for meals during winter; from 7 a.m. to 5 p.m., one hour meals; from April 1st with no alteration in the rate of pay for the two extra hours' work.

8. During wet and stormy weather, of which there is a considerable amount in the West of Scotland, the men are permitted to remain at the huts until it is seen there is no possibility of clearing up for the day; they are then permitted to leave the work. Total number of days lost with wet weather, during which no work was done, nineteen days, no reduction being made in the men's pay.

9. The men also have the privilege of getting away occasionally to seek employment, of which they take full advantage.

10. I have no doubt that overtime and piece-work have a good deal to do with scarcity of labour. Workmen, as a rule, are apt to skulk every opportunity they get, and the solution from the master's point of view is piece-work, which is the really most effective solution to securing a fair day's work.

11. The writer has been on work where it was quite common for men to work thirty and even forty hours on end, with the usual break for meals, such as bricklayers, miners, labourers, etc.

The work here alluded to being drainage schemes, tunnelling operations and public works.

APPENDIX No. CXV.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO UNEMPLOYMENT BY MR. ROBERT WILSON, MEMBER OF THE PARISH COUNCIL OF URR; EX-TOWN COUNCILLOR OF THE BURGH OF DALBEATTIE; EX-MEMBER OF THE CENTRAL BODY AND DISTRESS COMMITTEE UNDER UNEMPLOYED WORKMEN'S ACT; SURVEYOR AND SANITARY INSPECTOR FOR THE BURGH OF DALBEATTIE; EXPERIENCE AS JOINER AND BUILDING CONTRACTOR; SUPERINTENDENT OF WORK UNDER THE UNEMPLOYED WORKMEN'S ACT.

Extent.

1. Unemployment in 1905-1906 extended over twenty weeks, and towards the close of 1906 and early in 1907 over ten weeks.

2. In 1905-1906 250 workmen were out of work; 1906-1907, fifty workmen, principally quarry labourers.

3. Unemployment is periodic but irregular.

Causes.

4. Its causes may be stated as follows:—Local and general depression in the granite industry caused by slackness in the building trades; a tendency on the part of corporations to restrict expenditure; the completion of a number of Corporation and other tramway schemes; and, in some measure, by foreign competition.

Effect.

5. Closing (temporary) the local quarries and consequently throwing the workmen out of employment.

Remedies.

6. So varied are the causes that lead to the want of employment that to find a remedy for the evil appears to me a very difficult matter

7. But to mitigate the distress caused by the want of employment when it arises should not be beyond the scope or powers of any corporate body (granted that legal powers have been given to enable them to do so). Experience leads me to the conclusion that to mitigate this evil local authorities should be given the power to purchase (if necessary by compulsory sale) waste or other lands in their respective districts, so that when distress through want of employment arises useful work could be given (without delay) in improving such lands. Our difficulty here has been to find useful work for the unemployed.

8. In small communities such as ours, where the unemployed applicants for work and their circumstances are well known to the members of the distress committee, the inquisitorial particulars required by the Unemployed Workmen's Act should be relaxed or omitted; necessity and residence should be the only qualification demanded. The average wage earned by the general labourer makes it almost impossible, even with the greatest care and economy, to provide for times of distress caused by the want of employment. The application of the Unemployed Workmen's Act in this district has been beneficial and satisfactory in results.

Part V.—*continued.*

SCOTTISH UNEMPLOYMENT.

APPENDIX No. CXVI.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY MR ROBERT BAIRD, GLASGOW.

1. I have been general manager and secretary to The Scottish Mine Owners' Defence and Mutual Insurance Association, Limited, since it was reconstituted in 1898 to deal with claims for accidents under the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1897, The Employers' Liability Act, 1880, and at Common Law; and which embraces in its members the principal iron and coal masters of Scotland.

2. I have also been secretary to the Lanarkshire Coal Masters' Association since it was formed in 1886 to deal with wages questions and disputes with workmen in connection with their employment.

3. I am also secretary to the Coal Owners' Members of the Conciliation Board, which was formed in 1900.

4. For fifteen years I was general manager and secretary to a colliery company, and for eight years afterwards was managing director of another colliery company.

5. I am sixty-one years of age, and have had a life-long connection with collieries, my father having been a colliery manager, so I have had ample opportunities of seeing the conditions under which workmen live at collieries, and also, although to a less extent, at iron works.

6. So far as collieries are concerned, there is very little to say on the subjects upon which information is desired by the Commissioners, but the following are my views with regard to the questions put to me:—

UNEMPLOYMENT.

(1.) Its extent:—

7. In coal mining it cannot be said that at any period of the year is there any number of workmen thrown entirely out of employment. In the recurring periods of depression which overtake the coal trade in a cycle of years it is not the custom to discharge workmen; but, instead, the pits do not work so steadily as in better times, and idle days are more frequent. For many years back I would say that, so far as Scotland is concerned, the average time lost in these dull times would be less than a day per week for perhaps three to four months in the summer season in Lanarkshire and Ayrshire, and a similar period in the spring in Fifeshire, when the demand for shipping coal is usually at its lowest. The periods of depression continue for a much shorter time now than they formerly did, and at present the supply of miners is scarce, and therefore full time is being worked in every district in Scotland.

8. The number of workmen engaged in coal mining in Scotland last year, according to the Government Returns, is 94,381 underground and 21,318 aboveground. The idle time referred to applies more particularly to underground workers, but when the miners are thrown idle the aboveground workers are more or less affected thereby, and the majority of them work only the same number of shifts as the miners.

9. In coal mining there is no overtime worked. The miners have a certain daily output of coal, which they reckon as their day's work. This varies with the condition and thickness of the coal seam, and when that fixed quantity is obtained they go home, irrespective of the number of hours worked.

10. The number of days worked per week varies in the different coal districts of Scotland.

11. In Lanarkshire, with few exceptions, the miners work only five days a week, which they rigidly observe, even although there may be a brisk demand for coal, and they could get working every day. So rigid are they in observing the idle day that, even although a day's work may be lost in the other days of the week, through want of waggons or other cause, they will remain idle on their fixed idle day, to the serious loss of themselves and their employers.

12. In Fifeshire and the Lothians eleven days a fortnight are worked, and in Ayrshire, until recently, six days a week were worked; but by a resolution of the Miners' Federation the number of working days has been recently reduced to eleven per fortnight.

(2.) Its causes:—

13. It is difficult to say what is the specific cause of the periodical times of dulness. The coal trade, like every other trade, is affected by the ebb and flow of depression and prosperity which affect the trade of the country.

14. To a considerable extent the coal trade of Scotland is affected more directly by the state of shipbuilding and by the condition of the iron and steel trade. It is also affected in most districts by the demand for shipping coal abroad, which, of course, fluctuates with the state of trade in other countries.

(3.) Its effects:—

15. When trade is dull, and the demand for coal falls off, prices fall, and the coal owners are forced to reduce wages. In former times the fall of wages was sometimes pretty severe, but for the past five years a minimum wage has been in operation, equal to 5s. 6d. per day in Lanarkshire, Fifeshire, and the Lothians, and consequently the effects of dulness have not been so much felt as formerly.

16. I would say that any miner who wished to work during the past ten years was able to earn not less than from 20s. to 30s. per week at any time; and at times, of course, very much more could be earned. In 1900 the wage per day rose to 8s., and at present it is about 6s. 9d.

(4.) Its remedies:—

17. For miners and colliery workers generally there is absolutely no need for the Unemployed Workmen's Act. More or less work can always be had, and for many years back they have been able to earn sufficient to keep themselves and families without the help of outside agencies. Of course, during periods of dulness their income is less than usual, and they may be forced to economise their expenditure, but that is a condition applicable to all grades of society.

18. As a class, miners are rather improvident, and when wages are good the great majority of them do not make any provision for the dull times that are sure to follow, and just spend on food, clothing, and drink in accordance with their income. There are, however, a few who take advantage of the good times by laying past for the inevitable "rainy day," but they are the exception to the general rule.

APPENDIX No. CXVII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY MR WALTER BELL, PRESIDENT, EDINBURGH TRADES AND LABOUR COUNCIL.

1. Being a joiner to trade, and a member of the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners for twenty years, I have taken an active part in the work of the society, and have served on the management committee of this district to promote the betterment of our conditions. I have represented the Edinburgh first branch in the Trades Council for fifteen years, and have taken a prominent part in their deliberations. The objects of the council are to assist in organising trade societies, to endeavour to bring about an amicable adjustment in cases of dispute, to agitate for a reduction of the hours of labour, to petition Parliament on such questions as may affect the right and interest of the working classes.

UNEMPLOYMENT.

2. The numbers of men out of employment vary greatly, and it would probably be about the mark to say that in Edinburgh during the past winter (1906-7) there have been from 3000 to 5000 unemployed. The class of men out of work included nearly every branch of industry.

3. Edinburgh is largely a residential town, the principal industries being building, printing, and brewing. Unskilled labour, of course, always suffers when the skilled trades are depressed, and unskilled labourers have bulked largely in the city's unemployed army.

4. The extent over time is difficult to arrive at, as there is always a reserve army of unemployed. The worst months in Edinburgh for the building trades are December, January, and February.

5. The causes of unemployment are many. Among the foremost is the constant displacement of labour by the introduction of machinery, divisional, female, and boy labour. This is accentuated by the formation of syndicates

and joint-stock companies, which have as one of their objects the securing of the latest improved machines, so as to employ less labour.

6. These causes help to create a large class of men whose skill is rendered useless, and who go to swell the ranks of the unskilled labourer.

7. The effects of unemployment are a greater competition for work, thereby reducing the standard of living all round. Further, poverty, misery, pauperism, crime, prostitution, and underfed children may be reckoned as the effects of unemployment.

8. With regard to the remedies for unemployment, the first thing to realise is that the unemployment has become chronic, and must be dealt with by the State. The most effective step would be the reduction of the hours of labour to eight per day.

9. In regard to the Unemployed Workmen's Act, the great defect in the Act has been the restriction placed upon Distress Committees in regard to the payment of wages. Another point is that when the Distress Committee supplies men from their labour exchange to the Town Council of Edinburgh for necessary work, the men are only paid 2s. 6d. per day, the Distress Committee paying half from public subscription or Government Grant.

10. Distress Committees should be given power to rate, or should be given funds by the Government for the employment of men and the payment of their wages.

11. Distress Committees should have compulsory power to acquire land not in cultivation.

12. The Government should help, by instituting schemes of afforestation, foreshore reclamation, building harbours of refuge, etc. etc.

APPENDIX No. CXVIII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY REV. DUNCAN CAMERON, MINISTER OF THE PARISH OF BRIDGE OF ALLAN (STIRLINGSHIRE).

CONDITIONS OF EMPLOYMENT IN THE COUNTIES OF INVERNESS AND ARGYLL.

1. A small proportion of the working classes in the country districts are shepherds and gamekeepers. The number of shepherds is decreasing, as farms are turned into deer forests. The number of gamekeepers and deer-stalkers is increasing for the same reason. Both the shepherd and gamekeeping class are well off, and are employed throughout the year—the amount of their work, of course, varying at different periods of the year. The great proportion of the working class in the country districts are crofters. A croft means a certain amount of arable land, varying from several acres to thirty. Along with the croft generally goes the right to pasturage on common hill grazing. The right is in proportion, as a rule, to the size of the croft. Generally speaking, the proceeds from the cultivation of a croft are not sufficient for the maintenance of a crofter and his family, and the crofter cannot be profitably employed on his croft the whole year round. He usually combines some other employment with the cultivation of his croft, such as road-making, work on the larger farms, work on the moors, and, along the seaboard, fishing. Labour on the croft is done throughout spring, summer, and autumn. It is during these seasons, too, that employment additional to croft culture can be got. The consequence is that the care of the croft is sacrificed, to a considerable extent, to the exigencies of employment. The winter for the crofter is more or less an idle time, and in many cases he runs into debt then and cripples himself for the future.

2. Where work external to the croft is obtainable, the crofter is fairly well off. Where there is difficulty in

getting work, and where the crofter has to rely upon the croft for the maintenance of himself and his family, his lot is a poor one. The crofter in Lochaber, for instance, can as a rule get work on the railway or on the moors, and he is comfortable. In the south of Mull work is not available, and the consequence is that the crofter and his family are poorly housed, poorly fed, and poorly clothed. At the same time, it would be a great mistake to suppose that the crofter is in a worse plight than the man who lives on the wage earned in casual labour in the great towns. The poverty in the crofting districts of Inverness-shire (mainland) and Argyllshire is not so debasing or so sordid as the poverty in some of the working-class districts of Glasgow.

3. The tendency for all crofters is to become discontented with their lot. The crofting system was suitable to a simpler age than ours. Wherever the modern standard of living among the working classes is accepted, the crofter becomes discontented with his lot. This is very marked in districts where communication with the South is good. But even in districts where the communication is not quite so good, *e.g.* Ardnamurchan, there is discontent with the life on the croft, and the younger generation are rapidly leaving the homes of their fathers. It is commonly supposed that it is education that is causing the crofter to look with disfavour upon his life on the croft. I am rather inclined to think that it is the spirit of the age rather than education that is responsible for this. Education is as well imparted in the Outer Hebrides as in Lochaber, but Lochaber is accessible to the ideas of the Lowland folk and the Outer Hebrides are not, to the same extent at least. In the Outer Hebrides the people are inclined to remain on the land; in Lochaber they are not.

APPENDIX No. CXVIII.—*continued*.

4. I am convinced that there is no future for the crofting industry in the Highlands. The inclemency of the weather and the poverty of the soil make it impossible for the crofter to win from the croft a living up to the standard of the ideas of his class in the Lowlands. As the crofter occupies a high place, morally and intellectually, among the working classes of this country, this fact will inevitably lead to depletion of the population in the Highlands.

I am aware that I have not answered directly the question as to the condition of unemployment in the Highlands. As a matter of fact, I do not think it could be answered directly, owing to the unique conditions of life there. To say that a Highlander is unemployed during the winter is not to say that he is in straitened circumstances. The question resolves itself into this: whether or not the conditions of existence are sufficient for a reasonably comfortable life. The exodus from the Highlands proves, I think, that in the estimation of the Highlander it is not.

5. There is no doubt whatever that the Crofters Act has been a great boon to the crofting community. Where the crofter has been able to amass a little money, he very often spends it on improving his croft, and, sometimes with and sometimes without the help of the proprietor, rebuilding or renovating his house. But even the improved holding does not attract his children. Well educated, of good character, of pleasant manner, and infected by the spirit of the age, they go to the South, and, as a rule, succeed very well there. Though holding somewhat advanced views on the land question, I confess I do not think that land legislation, even of the most drastic kind, would keep the crofter on the soil.

6. There are village communities in Inverness-shire and Argyllshire—e.g. Fort-William, Tobermory—where the villagers have small crofts, which they cultivate when not engaged in employment of any other kind. As a rule, this class of crofter is able to get work as an artisan or labourer, and is fairly well off. Being intelligent and energetic, when work fails him he leaves the village and gives up his croft altogether. The croft, in his case, however, is merely accessory, and not essential. In villages such as I describe there is the usual helpless residuum of weak and unenterprising men, who may or who may not have a small holding, and who are poor and ill-fed and ill-clothed.

7. Such communities as Oban, Grantown, and Kingussie are enriched by the stream of tourists and summer and autumn residents, and need not come within review. During the summer and autumn months many men in these places make sufficient money to keep them in comparative comfort during the remainder of the year. But it is not a desirable way of living, inasmuch as the money is too easily got, and makes an indolent life during winter and spring possible. In the tourist and summer resorts generally there is a good deal of money which filters into the hands of the whole population one way or another. Except when the season is bad, there is always a sufficiency of the means of existence in such places.

8. On the seaboard of Argyllshire—from such places as Tignabruaich, Ardrishaig—men go on to pleasure yachts during the summer and autumn months, and may earn in this way sufficient to keep them during the winter and spring months. Of course, in the Loch Fyne districts a large part of the population are fishermen. When the fishing on Loch Fyne and in the neighbourhood is good, the fishermen and their families are well off; when it is not, there is much distress.

9. There is what may properly be called industrial life in Ballachulish and Easdale, where there are slate quarries, in Kinloch-Leven and Foyers, where there are, or are soon to be, aluminium works. In Kinloch-Leven and Foyers advantage is taken of the great water-power available. In all these places the wage is sufficient, the people are comfortable, and the standard of living is good. The best hope of the Highlands, I am firmly convinced, lies in the direction of developing the use of the vast water-power now running to waste. I do not think it is possible to combine industrial with crofting labour. The industrial should have a plot of ground, but not a croft, which he has neither the time nor the skill to cultivate properly. Round these industrial centres the crofting industry might flourish, the crofter giving his time and energy to the cultivation of his croft alone. The crofter might make a fair living from the sale of the produce of the croft, provided it were sufficiently large, to the people of the industrial community. The development of industries such as aluminium would bring a new life into the rather stagnant existence in the Highlands. Afforestation also would employ a certain number of people, and certain

parts of the Highlands are adapted to the growth of timber.

10. My conclusions are:—

(1) That the future of the crofting industry is exceedingly doubtful, if indeed it is not doomed.

(2) That the livelihood provided by the croft is not up to the modern standard of living among the working classes.

(3) That when the crofting industry is supplemented by employment external to the croft, the crofter and his family are, as a rule, ambitious and enterprising, and the crofters of the younger generation almost invariably turn their thoughts to the South and leave the croft.

(4) That the best hope of maintaining a population, cultured and prosperous, in the Highlands, lies in the direction of making use for industrial purposes of the vast water-power in the North.

(5) That afforestation of land in the Highlands would provide a good deal of employment.

(6) That the combination of croft culture with lucrative employment outside the croft usually ends in neglect of the croft, and even in dislike of the culture of the croft; that in order to provide anything like a livelihood, the croft would require to be developed into a small farm, and that the crofter should give his undivided energy and attention to its cultivation.

SOCIAL WORK OF THE CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.

11. I understand that the Master of Polwarth is to speak in detail of the work of the Social Work Committee, of which he is convener. I therefore will confine myself to the statement of some conclusions at which I have arrived in regard to the operations of the Social Work Committee of the Church of Scotland:—

(1) That compulsion ought to be brought to bear upon lads whose present occupation and mode of life almost invariably lead to their becoming afterwards merely loafers and criminals. That the Church is more likely to reform these youths and set them on the way of a good and useful life than the State.

(2) That while it may be expedient to compel idle and vicious men, who cannot give a proper account of themselves and their prospects, to go into labour colonies provided and maintained by the State, it seems advisable that there should not be any compulsion used in getting them to go to labour homes and labour colonies provided and maintained by the Church. That should they be suitable and willing to go to church homes or colonies, they should be obliged to stay there until such time as it may be expedient to set them free; that the Church should not attempt, and is not qualified for, the management of labour colonies, intended to be more or less places of detention and forced labour for the habitual and incorrigible loafer.

(3) That there is a great field open for the peculiar work of the Church—that is, the restoration of character—among fallen and vicious women; that this work can be effectively done by means of agencies such as the Church of Scotland has at present in operation; that the apparently hardened and hopeless characters should be sent to colonies under the control of the State.

(4) That the relations of the Church and State in dealing with the vicious and unfortunate are exceedingly difficult to define; that it would be as great a mistake for the State to ignore the Church as for the Church to ignore the State in the matter; that, broadly speaking, a line of demarcation between their spheres of operation can be found in the distinction between the reform of character on the one hand, and detention, with a view to useful labour, of the idle and vicious on the other.

(5) That the experience of the Social Work Committee of the Church of Scotland shows that the labours of the committee have resulted in the reformation of character.

(6) That the question of character lies at the root of a considerable amount of the poverty in our great cities.

APPENDIX No. CXIX.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO UNEMPLOYMENT, BY MR F. M'CULLOCH CRAIG,
GLASGOW.

1. I am fifty-three years of age, and for over thirty years I have been an employer of labour as a stevedore, loading and discharging ships in the harbour of Glasgow. My father preceded me in the business.

2. *Unemployment.*—I should say there will be somewhere between 6000 and 7000 labourers about the harbour, and I consider unemployment is chronic as regards about one-half of them.

3. Several remedies might be suggested—for example, when night and day work is being done at a ship, the men

should be changed, *i.e.* the day men not being allowed to continue working through the night, and *vice versa*. This would permit a greater number of men to find employment.

4. I would further remark that were the whole of the labourage at the harbour in the hands of the Clyde Trust or the Corporation of Glasgow, in my opinion matters would be very much better than they are at present. There are, of course, other minor points that might affect unemployment.

APPENDIX No. CXX.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY MR CHARLES DOUGLAS, AUCHLOCHAN, LESMAHAGOW,
LANARKSHIRE.

1. The problem that confronts us in relation to the non-employment of the able-bodied poor is twofold. It presents two distinct aspects which it is fatal to confuse, and which yet cannot be considered quite separately.

2. There is, on the one hand, the lack of demand for labour, with its periodic aggravations.

3. On the other hand, there is an unemployable element in the population. There are, that is to say, a number of persons who are unfitted to maintain themselves, not by age, youth, illness, or accidental misfortune, but by moral, mental, or physical incapacity for labour.

4. It is disastrous, either in theory or in practice, to confuse these problems, or to treat them as if they were the same—to apply the same measure to those who are idle because there is an inadequate demand for efficient labour, and to those who are idle because they are inefficient. In the one case we are dealing with a difficulty which is primarily economic, while in the other case the problem is complicated by personal factors which lie outside strictly economic consideration, because they involve a departure from that normal reaction of human nature upon circumstances which economic theory postulates.

5. Yet it is necessary to consider these separate problems together. We see, when we examine them in detail, how closely they react upon one another. The problem of unemployment is, as has been said, fundamentally economic. On the other hand, in its actual occurrence it is determined by and has an influence upon the personal no less than the economic condition of the population. It is, no doubt, erroneous to regard unemployment as a mere effect of the inefficiency of the unemployed. On the other hand it is, broadly speaking, true that the incidence of unemployment is determined largely by the relative efficiency of the competitors for work. It is also true that the inevitable tendency of unemployment is to reduce the industrial efficiency of the unemployed persons.

6. Remedial or palliative measures to deal with unemployment ought to be so devised as to meet these aspects of the case.

7. It is scarcely open to doubt that the amount of unemployment in normal periods is capable of being very greatly reduced by better organisation. A well equipped system of labour registries, managed in such a way as to attract the confidence of employers and employed, and making full use of modern facilities for communication and transport, would greatly increase the mobility of labour and correspondingly reduce unemployment. Such a system appears, indeed, to be an essential part of the administration of an industrial community. Its cost would be insignificant in proportion to its advantages.

8. In times of trade-depression, due to lack of demand, such a remedy would no doubt be inoperative; and it is in such times that the real problem of unemployment occurs.

9. It is generally agreed that neither poor relief nor maintenance by charity properly meets the case of unemployment. They do not offer an adequate substitute for work; since, even apart from their effect on character, they do nothing to maintain the efficiency of the worker; and this objection applies also, though in a less degree, to any scheme of unemployment insurance. Any form of charitable maintenance is open to the objection that it confuses the case of the incapable with that of the man who, in normal circumstances, is not unfit to take a place in the economic process, but who is excluded from it by a lack of demand for labour.

10. It must be admitted that relief work, as now understood, is open, in some degree, to the objections which have been indicated.

11. There is an inevitable element of charity in all payment for work at rates which are in excess of the market value of its product; and it is not open to dispute that any relief work paid for strictly according to its value would fail to yield an adequate maintenance for efficient labour. It must be recognised, further, that many forms of relief work are likely, speaking generally, to impair rather than to increase the efficiency of all who engage in them, with the doubtful exception of purely unskilled labourers.

12. The justification for expenditure on relief works, in excess of the actual value of their material result, must be found in the obligation to maintain those who would otherwise be in want, or in the view that the public interest requires the maintenance of available labour in an efficient state, just as it requires the compulsory education of children, or the provision of opportunities of technical instruction at the public cost.

13. The justification which rests on the obligation to provide a maintenance is, of course, precisely that which warrants any other form of charitable maintenance; and a preference for relief work over any other form of relief must depend on its being cheaper, better for the character of the recipient, or less attractive, and therefore less likely to be taken advantage of needlessly. It is by no means certain that relief work is the cheapest form of relief, or that its influence on industrial character is better than that of other forms. It is quite evident that, in order to make it substantially less attractive than ordinary unskilled labour, its conditions must be such as seriously to impair the efficiency of the labourer. To make its conditions deterrent is inevitably to make them injurious, and to defeat an essential part of its object.

14. Relief work has, in point of fact, an object which differentiates it from mere eleemosynary aid. It aims at the maintenance of the labour which it employs in a state of industrial efficiency; and in so far as it attains this object it is a proper expenditure of national resources. Its title to a national support, which is not given to any form

APPENDIX No. CXX.—*continued.*

of poor relief, can only be justified by the specific national service which it should render in maintaining the efficiency of labour.

15. This is a service of most vital importance. We have seen that unemployment has a highly adverse influence on the efficiency of the unemployed; and we have also seen that, speaking generally, the labour which falls most readily out of employment is that which is least efficient, and which is therefore most likely to undergo deterioration in unfavourable circumstances. There is thus a very strong case for the encouragement of special precautions to maintain the efficiency of the unemployed. Their case forms the danger point of the efficiency of labour.

16. While the mere maintenance of the ordinary poor is left to the locality to which they belong, provision for the unemployed is increasingly recognised as a function of the central government. Experience shows the desirability of greater uniformity in the treatment of this problem than is likely to result from its being dealt with purely as a matter of local administration; and its issues are in reality national rather than local. The object of the central government in dealing with unemployment through local authorities ought to be to prevent it from degenerating into a form of poor relief with a labour test. It very readily assumes this character; and in so far as it does so it fails to remedy the evils of unemployment. When no better form of relief work than the usual unskilled labour can be provided, it is vital that, at all events, the character and efficiency of this work should be maintained. When the administrative difficulties of piecework are insuperable, efficient supervision makes it possible to grade the labourers in groups in such a way as to stimulate their energy. It is also, from this point of view, of the utmost importance to confine relief work to the capable and industrious unemployed.

17. If it be regarded, as it should be, as a means for the maintenance of efficient labour, only those should be admitted to it who can and do, in ordinary times, maintain themselves by their own labour; and the industrial record of all applicants for it should be carefully examined. No automatic check or deterrent can take the place of a thorough scrutiny of the persons admitted to relief work; and the admission to it of the incapable, idle, or unemployable is fatal to its utility in maintaining efficient labour.

18. It is desirable that all grants made by the central government for dealing with unemployment should be carefully restricted to such work as is really calculated to serve the purpose of maintaining industrial efficiency, and should not be devoted to the mere purpose of relieving poverty. In this way local administrators would be stimulated to develop methods of securing the essential objects of relief work in order to obtain state assistance in providing work for those who must otherwise be dealt with as ordinary paupers at the expense of the locality.

19. A period of unemployment might even, in many cases, be made an occasion for the re-education of those affected by it. In particular, it might sometimes be utilised to train them in rural pursuits. Some labour might in this way be redirected to work upon the land; and, in other cases, rural work might be usefully learned as a supplementary or subsidiary occupation. The improvement of transport from industrial centres gives an increased opportunity for the combination of urban and rural occupations; and this might substantially mitigate the incidence of unemployment, and especially of that which is seasonal in its character.

20. Both on account of the influence of the unemployables in aggravating unemployment and on more general grounds, active measures should be adopted for dealing with them. Charity and poor relief are useless to them, and merely aggravate their incapacity by enabling them to evade the necessity for exerting themselves. Their position should be so regulated as to give them, on the one hand, the utmost opportunity of becoming efficient producers if they can; and, on the other hand, if they fail to become fit for a place in the ranks of free labour, to reduce the burden which they lay on the whole community, and especially on the poorest of its efficient members.

21. In relation to unemployment and its periodic treatment, the unemployables create one of the greatest of practical difficulties. The task of providing for the unemployed who, in ordinary times, habitually and continuously live by their labour, is enormously complicated and confused by the presence, in any period of unemployment, of a large number of men who are not capable of so maintaining

themselves. Relief work not only confers on these men no permanent benefit; it becomes, from their employment in it, less useful to those for whom it is intended. But they not only make it more difficult to alleviate unemployment when it occurs. They tend to bring it about. They are constant uneconomic competitors for employment in unskilled labour. They do not maintain themselves by it. But they are, in greater or less degree, constantly driven to seek it; and their competition for employment by which they do not live is a factor that constantly tends to drag down the reward of unskilled labour. It depresses the standard of life at precisely the point at which it most needs to be maintained and at which its maintenance is most difficult.

22. The unemployable are a steady burden on the resources of the community. Whether they live by charity, or seek occasional refuge in the poorhouse, or in whatever way they obtain their livelihood, they are in point of fact being maintained. They receive a livelihood, for which no return has at any time been made to the resources of industry as a whole. But they are chiefly a burden upon the poorest people in the community. They belong or gravitate to the poorest class, and are often related to its industrious members. Poverty drives together those who may have nothing else in common. It compels them to live near to one another. It gives them certain common anxieties and common interests. The unemployables are largely maintained by the poorest wage-earners.

23. A society which fails to separate those who maintain themselves, however poorly, by their labour from those who make no return for their maintenance misses a distinction not only vital to its own well-being, but essential to a just consideration for its poorest members. That two classes so fundamentally distinct in their whole relation to society as the self-maintaining poor and the unemployables should be left to live under the same conditions and in habitual unavoidable association, is a sheer social misfortune. The unemployables are a danger to society as a whole. They are the curse of the poor. It is on all these grounds a vitally important object to separate from the industrial population those who are unemployable; and this must be accomplished by establishing labour colonies.

24. The institutions which we speak of as labour colonies, taken together, present a broad and diversified effort to deal with social difficulties. They aim at the segregation in industrial institutions of the "unemployable" or inefficient element in the population, at the provision of work and maintenance for those who are out of employment, at the restoration to industrial efficiency of those who, through physical or moral deterioration, have become unfit for labour, at the employment on the land of those who cannot maintain themselves otherwise.

25. To one or more of these various objects each colony addresses itself.

26. I need not recapitulate the list of colonies—some fifty in number—in which, in various countries, those objects are being pursued, or recount in detail the methods that are adopted.

27. But it may be useful to distinguish the colonies that exist according to the methods which they employ, in order to discover how the various types of colony relate themselves to the problems which confront us. The fundamental distinction which meets us on the threshold is that between free and compulsory colonies—between those into which a man enters and in which he remains of his own free will, and those to which he is sent by legal compulsion. This is a distinction which differentiates the whole methods and results of the institutions. It is also one which ought to govern their relations to the State.

28. Of compulsory colonies, perhaps no more typical instance could be studied than Merxplas, the "Beggars' dépôt" of Belgium. Merxplas is the colony to which those who have shown themselves incapable of industrial life are relegated for periods of from two to seven years. The Belgian law proceeds on the principle that vagrancy and begging—as proofs of industrial incapacity—are a social danger requiring repression and treatment. It provides for this purpose five colonies, two for women and three for men. Of the colonies for men, two at Hoogstraeten and Wortel form a "House of Refuge," where men are sent on first convictions for vagrancy, and where, also, infirm paupers are provided for. To Merxplas those who have become habitual beggars—the idle, the disorderly and those incapacitated by alcoholism—are sent to be subjected to the discipline of labour under strict control and regulation.

29. Merxplas is thus a great community of 5000 men who have, for the time at least, proved themselves incapable of

APPENDIX No. CXX.—*continued.*

employment. Its colonists are there because they have been adjudged unfit for free industry. They work, under close supervision, at various tasks—metal work, carpenter's work, the making of mats, tiles, cow hair yarn, and boots, and a variety of other occupations. A large, well-managed farm employs nearly 1500 men. The industrial part of the work is highly successful; and it provides, on the one hand, for the most economical maintenance of 5000 men who would otherwise contribute nothing to the cost of their own livelihood; while, on the other hand, it prevents the deterioration and loss of skill which idleness, either at large or in a work house, brings with it. Utilisation of all labour is the principle of the colony. Those who are fit for no other occupation drive great wheels, which are made to do duty for mechanical power. The whole industry of the colony is as self-sufficing as it can be made. The food of the colonists and materials of manufacture are produced as far as possible on the farm. The fabric and maintenance of the colony are almost entirely the work of its inmates. Superfluous products are utilised by State departments. Buying and selling are reduced to a minimum.

30. Encouragement is given to those who are industrious by small wages, which are paid in a token currency, and may be spent on such luxuries as tobacco and white bread.

31. Two facts stand out in the results of the Merxplas colony. The physical condition of the inmates is much better than it would be outside the colony, and they work with greater vigour and interest than would naturally be expected.

32. On the other hand, of those who enter the colony only a small number ever return to the free life of the community. If they escape, their custodians are not perturbed, since the cause which brought them there once will bring them back; and if not, so much the better. But 90 per cent. of the inmates of this great sinister scrap-heap of human life are habitual and hopeless inefficient.

33. It does not need to be pointed out that an institution of this type serves no direct purpose in relation to unemployment, and plays little part in the restoration of its individual inmates to a place in society. It does maintain, with the least possible cost and injury to society, and in a fair degree of physical comfort, those who have failed to support themselves by free labour.

34. Of Free Colonies the principal development is that which has taken place in Germany since 1882, under the inspiring influence of the venerable Pastor von Bodelschwing. The German labour colonies are, in principle, institutions of Christian charity for the relief and restoration of men who have lost their power to maintain themselves, but who are able-bodied and willing to work.

35. They aim primarily at the moral elevation of the colonists. Their discipline is maintained by no punishment except dismissal. They are subsidised by grants from provincial governments and municipalities and by private donations. The average number of colonists is about 4000; and their periods of residence range from a few weeks upwards, a considerable proportion remaining for periods longer than a year. There seems to be a growth of opinion among those who conduct the colonies in favour of retaining some, at all events, of the colonists for long periods. This is a natural outcome of the fact that no less than 60 per cent. of the admissions in each year are of men who have already been inmates of a colony, while upwards of 10 per cent. are of men who have had to seek refuge already more than four times.

36. It appears from all this that these colonies are actually engaged in the task to which they already set themselves—that they are giving an opportunity of returning to industrial life, to men whose characters imperil their position as free workers.

37. Amid many diversities certain characteristics belong to all these voluntary colonies.

38. They are, to begin with, genuinely free institutions in their whole management and tendency. Beyond the order and discipline necessary for their efficient management, and the performance of a reasonable amount of labour, they require nothing from their inmates.

39. They maintain, in the face of all difficulties, an atmosphere of hopefulness; and they rely for their result on persuasion and encouragement. Such institutions depend for their whole success on the inspiration and personality of the men who preside over them. The direction of each colony is in the hands of a House Father, carefully trained for the duties of his post; and all who have seen anything of the German colonies unite in their admiration of the

House Fathers, whose unremitting labours keep alive the spirit of their institutions.

40. Among the Free Colonies we find a broad distinction between two groups—a smaller group of Town Colonies, of which the chief are in Berlin, Hamburg, and Magdeburg, and a larger group of farm colonies scattered throughout Germany.

41. The Berlin colony is a typical example of the former group. Founded in 1883, it is capable of accommodating about 140 inmates.

42. Its principal object has been to employ men out of work; and it has, of course, been found very difficult to do this, in town conditions, without competing with ordinary employment. Straw-work, mat-making, brush-making, and simple joiner-work have all been tried; and firewood splitting occupies those who can do nothing else. In this colony the practice is to charge each inmate a small sum for his maintenance (5s. 3d. per week), and to pay him a small daily wage (rising from 6s. to 12s. per week), as an inducement to industry. The wages paid are, usually, accumulated to give the colonist a fresh start in life. The colonists are for the most part townsmen, and the great majority are unskilled labourers. A considerable proportion of those who come to the colony come as the result of drunkenness.

43. Among farm colonies two types must be distinguished, which are organised to carry out somewhat different objects.

44. There is, in the first place, the ordinary farm colony which exists in order to receive men who have become incapable of self-support, and to restore them to the ranks of industry as soon as possible. Of this set of colonies that of Wilhelmsdorf, Bielefeld, is a typical example.

45. This colony, which was founded in 1882, is in fact the prototype of voluntary labour colonies. Its inmates are employed in labour on the land and in the maintenance of the colony itself. Apart from ordinary agricultural work, they carry out, on a large scale, the work of land reclamation by spreading a subsoil on the surface soil of a peat moss.

46. A large proportion of the colonists—perhaps 60 per cent.—are men who, at one time or another, have been imprisoned; and a proportion, probably as great, have been debilitated by alcoholic excess. Under the influence of the House Father the spirit and discipline of the colony are admirable. But its practical difficulties are very great, and are representative of those of Free Colonies as a whole.

47. These institutions, in serving the purpose for which they are intended, inevitably contain a very large proportion of men who, if not actually belonging to the criminal class, are but little removed from it. These men come to the colonies, as a last resort, weak, dispirited, and demoralised. A long time must pass before they are actually capable of maintaining themselves. Many of them, however, weary of the labour and discipline of the colony before they have even reached that point. Others return to ordinary labour as soon as they have become capable of remunerative employment. In these circumstances, and with the additional fact that admission to colonies is most sought after in winter when farm labour is difficult, the average cost of a colonist's maintenance is much greater than the average value of his labour. It is a further result of the short average stay of colonists that only a small proportion (perhaps 20 per cent.) seem to be permanently benefited by the fresh opportunity that is given them of returning to self-supporting labour.

48. It is probably this last fact which has led to the formation of a farm colony of another kind in Schäferhof. This colony, which is in close connection with the Hamburg Town Colony, differs from other voluntary farm colonies in endeavouring to retain its inmates for much longer periods instead of returning them as quickly as possible to the open labour market. It encourages colonists to contract for a two years' residence; and the average stay of last year's inmates, including newcomers, was well over eighteen months each. The object is not to replace men in the circumstances in which they have previously failed, but to re-establish their character by a prolonged discipline, and to give them a thorough training in agricultural work to fit them for country life. They are kept constantly and closely at work; but good provision is made for their recreation; they are encouraged to work by such wages as they can earn; and they are promoted, as they improve their position, from the larger dormitories to rooms where they have greater privacy. In particular, they are treated with very great consideration and confidence. The result of all this appears in the working of

APPENDIX No. CXX.—*continued.*

the colony. The longer residence and better average experience of the colonists makes for a much higher level of agricultural work than is possible when a very large proportion of the men employed are new to their work, and debilitated by alcoholism or by prolonged and recent poverty.

49. Schäferhof is an actively conducted farm—specialised for dairying and pig-breeding, but carrying on general agricultural operations. Its colonists profit by its vigorous and successful management; and their prolonged stay enables them really to acquire a new occupation. More than half of them have previously been unskilled labourers, while the rest belong to various trades. Those who have special trades practise them so far as the needs of the colony require. For all alike the work of the farm and of land reclamation is the staple employment.

50. It is not surprising that in its eight years of work Schäferhof should present a satisfactory record, though the maintenance of labour which cannot be usefully employed in winter makes financial profit impossible here as in other farm-colonies.

51. The great majority of the Schäferhof colonists—upwards of 80 per cent.—are, or profess to be, single men, while almost all the rest are widowers, or are divorced or separated from their wives. It is evident, indeed, that no colony conducted on such lines as Schäferhof can, in any but most exceptional circumstances, admit men who have family obligations.

52. An attempt to provide, on somewhat similar principles, for families, is carried on in the Dutch colonies of Willemsoord and Frederiksoord, which were established in 1818. In these colonies men who have been for the most part unskilled labourers, and who have failed to support themselves, are first established as labourers, in separate cottages. They work on the colony farm for small wages; and after a period of probation they are promoted to be “free farmers,” cultivating small holdings of about six acres on what is practically a life tenure, subject to good conduct. They pay a small rent, and also repay in annual instalments the cost of the stock which is supplied to them on credit. The farms on the whole are in good condition, and the debts of the farmers to the colonies are diminishing. On the other hand, the colonists are not self-supporting, and their condition is unprogressive. The opportunity given to them of entering on agricultural work does not lead them to seek a larger sphere outside the colonies. The net result is that, at some cost to the Dutch public, a certain number of men who have failed as unskilled labourers are maintained by a subsidy as small farmers. But the colonies do nothing to restore those who enter them to a position in free industry.

53. It appears, from a general view of free labour colonies, that the circumstances which call them into existence are such as to prevent them from being, even approximately, self-supporting. They are, in their actual working, institutions to deal with labour which is relatively inefficient, and which returns to the outside labour market whenever it becomes really capable of self-support. Their help is most necessary at the time of year when it is most difficult to employ labour with advantage. They are thus not profitable organisations of labour. Their employment of it is to be regarded either as relief employment or as a discipline for the restoration to industry of men who have for the time ceased to be self-supporting.

54. It appears from this general description of labour colonies that we must recognise under that name two distinct types of institution, which ought to be considered separately. We need not differentiate them according to their industrial character, which, from the point of view of their social effect, is of secondary although considerable importance. We define them, rather, in their bearing upon the character and future of their inmates, and find in this the fundamental distinction between them. That distinction lies in their relation to the will of the colonists. For when we examine the work of labour colonies we have left the field of economic action. We are considering that which economic theory deliberately excludes—labour which is incapable of maintaining itself. We are aiming at that which lies beyond economic calculation—the modification of character. We need not, therefore, make the industrial distinction between labour colonies our chief consideration. We consider them as institutions related to the will of their members.

55. Here the very plainest division immediately presents itself—a division which is morally fundamental. For some colonies are compulsory while others are free.

56. There is all the difference in the moral world between an institution which a man enters of his own accord—even if physical need be his reason for doing so—and one to which he comes at the bidding of the law; and the difference is not merely formal or imaginary. In point of fact it pervades the institutions. They take their character from the basis on which they rest. They maintain, throughout their administration, the same relation to the will of those with whom they deal which they originally had. I do not believe that it would be possible to find better administration than exists in such institutions as the Belgian Colony of Merxplas, or the similar institution of Rummelsburg, near Berlin. Firm, careful, humane, the governors of those great institutions do all that can be done by officials for the welfare of those who are committed to them. But within the whole admirable system of administration is the hard central fact of compulsion.

57. The inmates are brought by compulsion, and kept by compulsion. Punishment lies behind the whole discipline. Obedience rather than consent is sought. Incessant watchfulness pervades the moral atmosphere. This is inevitable. It is not possible to alter the compulsory character of a compulsory institution, nor to carry on its work by methods alien to the principles on which it rests.

58. In the free colonies all this is different. Here there is no compulsion. Men come of their own accord. They come because they have found the outer world, for the time at least, too much for them. Fault or folly or misfortune, or the common combination of all three, has driven them to take shelter. As they have come freely, they remain at liberty. If a contract, or a debt for necessary clothing holds them, it is legally a flimsy bond. They are in reality bound only by their consent to stay. Even the discipline of the house is supported by no punishment. If a man will not work, or if he will not be orderly, he goes. But while he remains he obeys freely. No force is used except persuasion. Instead of watchfulness, there is confidence—confidence carried to the utmost possible limit, and sustained by constant hopefulness. This method of administration is only possible in free colonies; for where compulsion begins there confidence and persuasion end. The methods are not merely different, but opposite. The fundamental distinction between the types of labour colony—the free and the compulsory—is in the relation which they respectively bear to the development of free action and self-respect in their inmates. It follows from this that they are adapted to quite different purposes. They are not interchangeable institutions. They are fitted to deal with essentially different cases.

59. In so far as labour colonies are to be regarded as curative or restorative institutions, designed to bring back to efficiency men who have lost their place in industrial life, they ought to be so conducted as to give the utmost possible encouragement to free effort and the largest scope to personal liberty, and to make the least possible inroad upon self-respect and the sense of responsibility. These are, in the end, the only forces on which we can reckon for improvement in men who are on the verge of becoming unemployable. Any discipline which fails to develop them, or which makes inroads upon them, defeats the object of qualifying men for a future life of free labour. Freedom, no less than labour, is an essential part of the curative treatment of the man who has for the time become unemployable.

60. On the other hand, there is a point at which compulsion becomes the inevitable duty of the State. The interests at stake are too large and too vital to be indefinitely sacrificed to the uncertain hope of reforming by persuasion men who have continuously failed to support themselves by labour; and when freedom has failed, and compulsion comes in, all the resources of humane administration can only temper and not obviate the use of compulsory methods.

61. Compulsory labour colonies have become an essential part of the administration of an industrial State. They offer the only possible means by which society can be protected against the sinister influence of the unemployable population which forms an element in every industrial community.

62. The first steps must be to prevent by law every form of begging, vagrancy, and mendicancy, to investigate the means of livelihood of the constant procession of small offenders, and to exclude from ordinary poor relief and transfer to labour colonies men who are physically capable of labour. In this way, we should reveal at once the unemployable members of the community, and in labour colonies where they would make some contribution to their

APPENDIX No. CXX.—*continued.*

own maintenance, they might be detained for specified periods with great advantage to themselves and their neighbours.

63. Such institutions as these would inevitably be compulsory labour colonies, with legal restraint and legal compulsion as the basis of their organisation and discipline. They would provide for the finally unemployable person with the least possible hardship to himself compatible with the general welfare.

64. It ought to be recognised that commitment to compulsory labour by the State is society's last resort in dealing with those who are habitually incapable of maintaining themselves—a resort only to be adopted when their free life and labour have become inconsistent with the public interest. But while compulsory labour colonies are thus the final stage of industrial failure, they should still, so far as their character permits, be reformatory in their tendency. They ought to maintain the industrial efficiency of their inmates. They ought to establish (as is partly done in Mexplas) a rigid classification and separation of those who are committed to them, so that the young and the first offenders shall not have their chance of recovery finally destroyed by contact with the habitually idle and vicious.

65. They ought to provide some gradation of treatment, so as to encourage every impulse to greater industry ; and they should be so administered as to allow men to return to free labour whenever there is reason to hope that they may do so with success.

66. But, when all this has been done, the compulsory labour colony remains no more than a cheaper and more efficient type of poorhouse prison for those who are capable of labour under compulsion, but cannot maintain themselves at liberty. It remains true that, in the vast majority of cases, reclamation of character ends where compulsion begins, and that institutions to which men are sent by compulsion, and in which they are governed by compulsion, offer only a slight and fugitive hope of returning them, as capable workers, to the industrial community.

67. It follows from this that other institutions are required to supplement the work of Compulsory Labour Colonies—institutions designed not to detain the inefficient, but to restore their capacity for labour, and to give them a fresh opportunity of regaining a place in society. If we were provided with such institutions, they would form a refuge for those who, having by fault or misfortune failed to maintain themselves, were willing to make an effort to return to free industry rather than be consigned to compulsory detention and labour.

68. In this aspect free labour colonies are to be regarded as, in a broad sense, educational. They may not only give an opportunity of physical and moral recuperation, but may also help men who have become inefficient through failure to adapt themselves to industrial change. They may give to such men an opportunity of equipping themselves anew for self-support by learning a new occupation.

69. In particular they may do something to enable men to return to rural occupations, and to seek a new career in them either at home or, still more hopefully, in our

agricultural colonies where there is a demand for their labour. It is in this direction that some existing labour colonies find the best outlet for the men whom they train.

70. There are many reasons for this kind of training. There is, to begin with, a good demand for agricultural labour ; and experience goes to show that even town-bred men—more particularly labourers—can be made useful farm workers within a reasonable time. Many of those who have become unemployable, for a time, are men who cannot make headway against the difficulties of town life, but who may more easily maintain themselves in the simpler conditions of the country.

71. Free Labour Colonies may do, perhaps, their best work in redirecting labour that has fallen out of efficiency in town to the life and pursuits of the country ; and they may usefully turn to account periodic crises of unemployment by taking the opportunity, which these occasions offer, of giving a training in rural work.

72. It is for this, among other reasons, that farm colonies are to be preferred to town colonies. But this preference is also to be justified on more general grounds. The open air work of the country is more recuperative than the employment in workshops which town colonies offer. Many men have become inefficient and demoralised partly through the strain of town life. It is an even more important matter for the effectiveness of labour colonies that the conditions of country life afford the most natural opportunity for that free and confident treatment of colonists, without which the best results can never be obtained.

73. It remains a difficult practical question how labour colonies may best be administered. Compulsory colonies must essentially be State institutions. They ought to be directly managed by a public authority ; and their administration ought to be kept in close association with that of the prisons. Specialised as they must be to deal with a type of industrial failure not equally prevalent in all districts, and having for their primary object not the relief of their inmates, but the advantage of the population generally, they should be provided and administered not by local authorities, but under a department of State ; but whether they should be administered by local or by central bodies, or by both together, they require an authority in their administration, and a stringency in their discipline, which can only be secured under statutory provision and by public control. They must be regarded as an essential part of the government of an industrial community.

74. With free colonies it is otherwise. Their essential function is reclamation. Their essential methods are persuasion and encouragement. But these are not to be best attained in State institutions. The State should encourage free colonies, subsidise them, utilise them as alternatives to its compulsory colonies, or as places of probation for those who are unemployable, but who seem likely to surmount their failures without compulsion. But their effective management calls for methods which cannot be secured through direct State action. They depend for their usefulness on the moral impulse of those who conduct them, and on religious influences by which the spiritual life of their inmates may be roused to the task of reformation and reinstatement.

APPENDIX No. CXXI.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY MR J. G. DUNLOP, JOINT MANAGING DIRECTOR, MESSRS JOHN BROWN AND COMPANY, LIMITED, SHIPBUILDING AND ENGINEERING WORKS, CLYDEBANK.

1. There are over 8000 workmen employed by the company at the present time.

2. On looking over a considerable period of time, I have to inform you that there has been no general unemployment in connection with this establishment for a number of years, and the same may be said of the other large establishments in this district.

3. A large number of the workmen employed here do not reside in the locality, and when, through scarcity of work, we are compelled to dispense with the services of a number of our men, we make it a point, so far as practicable,

of retaining those who reside in the district ; so, confining my remarks to this district alone and to the period under review, I would state as follows :—

(a) The extent of the unemployment and the numbers involved have been comparatively small, and the classes are shipyard workers, *i.e.* boiler-makers, engineers, carpenters, joiners, mechanics in general, and labourers. A percentage of our workmen have, at times during progress of contracts, been unemployed, but such unemployed should be termed periodic.

APPENDIX No. CXXI.—*continued.*

(b) The chief cause of unemployment, when existing, is, of course, general depression in trade, also old age and strikes; there are also a considerable number of men who are irregular at their work, the causes being sickness, and probably intemperance, and in the case of those employed out of doors, bad weather.

(c) Unemployment, at all times, has a demoralising effect, and when prolonged, men lose heart, the results being wretched homes and destitution.

(d) The Unemployed Workmen's Act is not in operation here.

4. In the case of tradesmen who are getting up in years and unable to turn out as much work as younger men, I would point out that they are debarred from accepting

work at a less wage than the minimum allowed for an able-bodied man; and if this restriction was withdrawn, it would have the effect of keeping many elderly men from being ranked among the unemployed when trade is good.

5. The Workmen's Compensation Act, which is at present a heavy burden on many employers of labour, and will be more so when the amended Act comes into force, should certainly be taken into consideration, as employers demur to employ old men and those having physical defects; and had the Act provided for these men (in the case of accidents) being only entitled to compensation on a reduced scale, I may say there would not have been the same hesitation in employing them, whereas at present these men form a considerable portion of the men who have difficulty in finding employment.

APPENDIX No. CXXII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY MR W. GORDON, TOWN CLERK, ABERDEEN.

UNEMPLOYMENT.

1. The amount of unemployment in Aberdeen has been on the increase during the last few years. During the past winter (1906-7), the number of persons who registered themselves at the Distress Committee's Labour Bureau was over 1200. This figure, however, does not by any means represent the total number of those who were out of work.

2. The majority of the unemployed are unskilled general labourers, but there is also a large number of artisans belonging to the building trades who are unable to find employment at the present time.

3. With regard to the labouring class, the period of depression extends from November to April, as a rule. In the case of those employed in the building trades the amount of work available has been steadily decreasing for the last three years.

4. The result of this depression, which is common to most branches of trade in the city, has been that a large number of the better skilled tradesmen have emigrated,—chiefly to Canada and the United States—over 900 having emigrated from Aberdeen during the past winter.

5. I am unable to supply any information in regard to the working and results of the Unemployed Workmen Act, as the administration of the statute has not come under my observation.

6. Appended is a list of the works which have been carried out by the Corporation for the relief of unemployed workmen, from 1893 to 1904.

LIST OF WORKS CARRIED OUT BY THE CORPORATION OF ABERDEEN FOR THE RELIEF OF UNEMPLOYED WORKMEN, FROM 1893 TO 1904.

		Cost.	
1893	Laying out Public Park . . .	£1501	4 6
	Construction of reservoir . . .	596	10 4
1894	Laying out Public Park . . .	218	16 6
	Construction of reservoir . . .	762	0 0
1900	Re-dressing granite footways . . .	544	1 7
1904	Construction of new road . . .	583	16 4
	Pitching along sea beach . . .	552	13 4

APPENDIX No. CXXIII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY MR ALEX. GRACIE, FAIRFIELD SHIPBUILDING WORKS, GOVAN, GLASGOW.

1. I regret that personally I am not able to give much information on the subject of the "unemployed," but, from my experience in charge of large works, I would like to make the following remarks:—

2. *Unemployment.*—With regard to the question as to the connection between the extent of overtime and unemployment, I beg to say that overtime is not chronic, but only periodic, to enable contracts under definite stipulation as to time to be fulfilled. Employers do not have overtime if they can possibly avoid it, on account of the higher rates to be paid, which are not contemplated in the estimate of cost.

3. There are two chief causes operating towards unemployment:

(1st) That trades unions, by fixing a minimum

rate of wages, make it necessary to engage only such men as can reach a certain standard of work equivalent to the wages to be paid, thereby leaving out men who either by age or incapacity are unable to reach that standard. If employers were free to engage men and pay them according to what they received from them in work, there would be many employed who are at present out of work, and who formerly could obtain employment up to their ability; and who, before trade unions became so aggressive, did have more or less regular work.

(2nd) Employers' liabilities have so largely increased through the Workmen's Compensation Acts that they are unable to give employment to men who are even slightly below the full standard of efficiency either by reason of age or physical defect.

APPENDIX No. CXXIV.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY MISS AGNES HUSBAND, MEMBER OF DUNDEE DISTRESS COMMITTEE, DUNDEE SCHOOL BOARD, AND DUNDEE SOCIAL UNION; LATE MEMBER OF DUNDEE PARISH COUNCIL.

1. I beg to say that apart from an intense interest in my own class, having lived in close contact with the people most affected by unemployment for the past twenty years, I served a three years' term as member of the Parish Council, am an adopted member of the Distress Committee, and have been a member of the School Board for the past year, also a member of the "Dundee Social Union," and was one of the committee of inquiry into the social and industrial conditions of Dundee, and can testify to the conscientious manner in which a most exhaustive investigation into these conditions was carried through and embodied in a perfectly authentic "Social Union Report."

UNEMPLOYMENT IN DUNDEE.

Extent.

2. The full extent of unemployment in Dundee cannot be gauged with any exactitude by members of Distress Committees. Skilled workmen very rarely register with the Bureau, though it is known that during the months from October till March inclusive, the acute period, large numbers of these were idle in 1905-6, which marked the beginning of a reflux from a rather lengthened spell of dull trade, so the 740 registered during that time represented mostly unskilled labour, just as in 1906-7, with the reflux to really good trade, the acknowledged condition for the past year, the 567 registered were mostly the same class. Chronic I should say as to lack of work, though periodic as to individuals.

Causes.

3. There are several minor causes, such as "dull trade," "wages disputes," "losing work through sickness or misadventure." But the main two causes are due to local conditions of work, which demands a preponderance of low-paid labour, such as "women and girls," "boys." The women's wages, approximating to the lowest men's wage, forms not only a competing factor in regard to wages, but also excludes them from many suitable processes of work.

Effects.

4. These are extremely far-reaching and of vital importance. Even in a year of good trade it means an

army of children underfed and in winter insufficiently clad. It means the children uncared for even if the mother is able to earn enough money for food, and the result is a steady increase of backward and truant children, hampering the cause of education. Through stress of condition the parents are forced to seek exemption either for full or half time in very large numbers, and the need is so apparent that the School Board cannot refuse. The increase in number exempted in 1906 was 609, and in 1905 was 446. These in the case of boys, while relieving the parent at the moment, soon become the same competing factors as the woman, but with a worse feature—for the man at eighteen or twenty is required in much smaller numbers. The surplus gets shunted on to the mass of casual labour, and becoming dependent on women through the prevalence of immature marriages, rapidly degenerates to the unemployable; while the girl, disadvantaged from the first, becomes the ignorant, incompetent mother.

Remedies.

5. Outside the Distress Committee the most potent remedy would be to better regulate the conditions of work by a general shortening of the hours of labour, and a still further shortening during a dull period so as to keep the greater number employed.

6. The vital drawback to the Unemployed Workmen's Act is the want of funds. A legally constituted Board required to do vitally important work with the mere cost of its machinery assured, finds itself—but for the provision of appeal for assistance to the Town Council, which may or may not be in a position to respond—in an extremely helpless condition. Fortunately the Dundee Town Council had the opening of new streets under consideration, and were willing to assist the Committee as far as possible in providing the work. But it was felt that the Town Council, when there was great need, had done as successfully the same thing without the new machinery.

7. Two outstanding facts about the working of the Act are—

- (i.) That the unemployed and the unemployable are not one and the same thing, very few indeed of the latter having made application for work; and
- (ii.) That there exists a genuine desire for work.

8. The one really good result of the Act is in establishing the right to work.

APPENDIX No. CXXV.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY MR JAMES M. JACK, GENERAL SECRETARY, ASSOCIATED IRONMOULDERS OF SCOTLAND.

UNEMPLOYED.

The Cause of Unemployment.

1. In my opinion unemployment is largely due to—

- (1) The influx from the country to the industrial centres.

Suggested remedy.—An extensive measure of land reform, whereby this influx might be stayed, and that men accustomed to working on the land may be induced to go back to the land. Further afforestation of waste land, as also reclamation of foreshores.

- (2) Displacement of labour by machinery, the speeding-up process, and the general increase in methods of production.

Suggested remedy.—A curtailment of the hours of labour to, say, eight per day, which would have the effect of spreading the work over a greater number of people.

- (3) The periodic and systematic working of overtime.

Suggested remedy.—That the curtailment or abolition of overtime should be the aim of employer and employed, and thus bring about a more even distribution of work. Both parties declare against it, and in the different localities by conferences it could be put down, as it is cruel to see men for six or eight months in the year that may be working *double time*, and for the remainder of the year aimlessly walking our streets, and which is true, while in almost every instance the money earned by working overtime is ill-gotten gain, and does not benefit as it should—in short, it may be termed seasons of hunger and burst, upsetting the habits of people entirely, and in too many instances tending from intemperance to debauchery, and next in order to unemployment, and latterly to unemployables. Of course it will be said employers want to take all out of their running

APPENDIX No. CXXV.—*continued.*

plant possible, but the system is degrading, and to my knowledge fills our streets with the unemployed. Hasten slowly would be better, as it would be a spreading of all the work.

The Working of the Unemployed Act.

2. So far as my knowledge goes, this Act has not been a success, largely due to the inherent faults in same; as, for instance, while a committee may acquire land by purchase or leasing, by rating with the sanction of Local Government Board up to 1d. per £ of rental, and through its power of rating, borrow money for this purpose.

3. But they cannot apply any of the money to pay wages

to the unemployed; and this is a remedy desired, as the voluntary contributions cannot be found to pay wages, and it is a mistake to have to lean upon voluntary effort.

4. Then there is the question of emigrating the unemployed with their families, the cost of which I have heard stated to be in Glasgow something like £25, 10s. per family. I am not in favour of emigration, as those looked upon as eligible are not the class we want to get rid of, they being the desirous-to-work class, while the wasters are refused when they apply.

5. Emigration, in my opinion, is the most futile, while the most costly, of all schemes. Better to give powers to spend money in experimenting and paying wages for, say, market gardening and other such schemes.

APPENDIX No. CXXVI.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY MR WM. LONGAIR, LORD PROVOST OF DUNDEE.

DISTRESS DUE TO UNEMPLOYMENT.

Extent of Distress due to Unemployment.

A. Numbers, Classes, and Character of Persons Affected.

1. In all, 635 persons—625 males and 10 females—applied during the year, from 15th May 1906 to 15th May 1907, to the Dundee Distress Committee for employment. It is believed that this number does not really represent the extent of unemployment in the city, for the reason that Dundee is an industrial centre, where employment is found in mills and factories for a large proportion of female workers, who may be to a large extent the wives and daughters of the temporarily unemployed. The applicants were mostly of the casual labouring class, although a considerable number are ordinarily employed as masons' or bricklayers' labourers, a class which commands a fair wage while in employment. The building trade is somewhat depressed at the present time, and, consequently, a considerable number of these labourers are idle.

B. Period of Duration: whether Chronic or Periodic, &c.

2. In my view the question of unemployment is more acute in the winter season than in the summer time, when out-door labour is usually more plentiful.

CAUSES AND EFFECTS OF DISTRESS DUE TO UNEMPLOYMENT.

3. The untrained labourer usually lives from hand to mouth, and, unless he has the female members of his family to fall back upon in times of distress, he must seek relief from philanthropy or the Parish Council. The effect of such a state of matters usually is that the furniture in the household is sold to supply the necessary means of livelihood; then usually follows the removal to a lower class of dwelling-house, and if the period of unemployment be unduly prolonged, the poorhouse is the usual resort.

4. Among the unemployed who registered at the Dundee Labour Exchange were several men who were well qualified labourers. A selected party of twenty were sent recently to the Loch Leven Water Power Works at Ballachulish, and the contractor, Sir John Jackson, Limited, wrote to the Town-Clerk, under date 15th July 1907, as follows:—

"We have tried unemployed from several towns, and in most cases they have only stopped a few days, and proved quite unsatisfactory. We are, however, glad to say that up to the present your men are the best 'unemployed' we have had, and if in the course of another week or ten days we find they are still going to be satisfactory, we will ask you to send us another 40-50."

It is right to say, however, that the majority of these men left the works two or three days after their arrival and never returned, giving as the reason for their leaving that they were not provided with proper accommodation or proper food supplied.

REMEDIES FOR DISTRESS DUE TO UNEMPLOYMENT.

A. Special Work provided by Municipalities prior to the Unemployed Workmen Act.

5. For many years prior to the passing of this Act the Town Council of Dundee found work for large numbers of the periodic unemployed in such work as making new streets, sewers, breaking road metal, and other similar work. In this way the Town Council was able to confer a vast amount of benefit upon people in need of work. So much so was this the case that it is believed the Town Council were able, before the passing of the Act, to provide in a better manner, and at less expense, for the relief of the unemployed than under the somewhat cumbrous procedure now necessary under the Unemployed Workmen Act. As regards the work of making new streets, it is not thought that more of this can meantime be done, as already the streets are many years ahead of present requirements.

APPENDIX No. CXXVII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY BAILIE J. H. MARTIN, J.P., VICE-CHAIRMAN OF DUNDEE DISTRESS COMMITTEE; MEMBER OF DUNDEE TOWN COUNCIL, ETC. ETC.

1. I am a Justice of the Peace, a member of the Dundee Town Council, have held office as a Magistrate for a number of years, am Vice-Chairman of the Dundee Distress Committee, am President of the Dundee Gospel Temperance Union (formed 1838).

EXTENT OF UNEMPLOYMENT.

2. From 31st October 1906 to 25th March 1907, 567
429—IX.

enrolments were made at the Labour Exchange, viz.—

(1) Unskilled labourers,	559
(2) Tradesmen,	8
Total,	567

As showing the extent to which those applying one year recur again the next, it may be noted that our last

APPENDIX No. CXXVII.—*continued.*

year's total enrolment was 779. Of this number 336 are again enrolled in the above total of 567. Then, again, of these 336, no fewer than 114 had work from the Distress Committee last year. It has been found that not a few of the unemployed have withheld their names from registration this year owing to their having discovered that only urgent cases could possibly be dealt with.

3. The cases are periodic :—

559 were idle from 1 day to 6 months,
8 " " 1 week to 3 months.

4. In addition to the above, concurrent unemployment (not enrolled) may be cited :—

- (1) Women workers—casual labour.
- (2) Artisans—according to season and nature of trade.

CAUSES OF UNEMPLOYMENT.

5. Of the 567 enrolled, the following causes were given by the men themselves :—

Dull trade, ...	400
Disputes as to wages, etc., ...	59
Sickness and bad health, ...	100
Slept in, and had places filled (millworkers), ...	8
Total, ...	567

6. Of the 400, a considerable number are sure of employment at the harbour during the busy months there.

7. From my experience in the J.P. Court, as also my knowledge in general of the social conditions of the people, I would add that unemployment is not unfrequently caused by intemperate and lazy habits.

8. The abundance of female employment in our mills, etc., has a tendency towards creating a class of idle men (husbands of the workers), who quickly avail themselves of the opportunity of enrolment, in the hope of securing easy benefits.

EFFECTS OF UNEMPLOYMENT.

9. The effects of unemployment may be summarised thus :—

- (a) Depletion of the home.
- (b) Removal to a lower-class dwelling.
- (c) Wives forced to find any sort of labour.
- (d) Children neglected, and obliged to become street vendors.
- (e) Men discouraged and rendered hopeless, afraid that the law will deal with them for seeming neglect of their children.

Generally speaking, a lowering effect on character, making them regardless and reckless.

REMEDIES FOR UNEMPLOYMENT.

10. So far as Dundee is concerned, the greater part of unemployment is in connection with the unskilled labourer, and that only for a part of the year.

11. There is likely always to be a sufficient amount of work available, provided the loss which is sure to accrue by the employment of unskilled and unaccustomed hands could be guaranteed.

12. In my opinion, this is the weak point of the Unemployed Workmen's Act. It trusts to this deficiency being made up by voluntary efforts, whereas experience has proved that the general public will not respond.

13. Then again, the burden of making such provision is too heavy to lay on the local taxes, and the Act should be so amended as to provide the necessary funds for its efficient working from imperial sources.

14. It should further be borne in mind that work such as has been provided in Dundee—viz. (a) laying out of new streets, (b) construction of sewers, and (c) stone-breaking—is such as would fall to be done sooner or later in the ordinary way, and to that extent the relief of distress takes away work that would come to the ordinary worker in the natural course of events.

15. Developments on the lines of afforestation or reclamation of land and foreshores would seem to obviate this difficulty.

APPENDIX No. CXXVIII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY MR W. H. BLYTH MARTIN, J.P., TOWN CLERK AND CLERK TO THE DISTRESS COMMITTEE, DUNDEE.

1. I am the Town Clerk of Dundee, and have, since its institution, been also the Clerk to the Distress Committee in this city. I am a Justice of Peace for the county of Forfar, and also for the county of the city of Dundee, and I have for many years past taken an interest in all social problems, particularly in those which seem to form the subject of the present inquiry.

UNEMPLOYMENT.

Its Extent.

2. The number of unemployed registered at the Labour Bureau from 31st October 1906 till 22nd March 1907 was 567, classified as follows :—

559 unskilled labourers (1 day to 6 months).
8 tradesmen (1 week to 3 months, all periodic).

3. The number of unemployed registered last year was a little larger than this year, the number registered to April 1906 being 779.

Its Causes.

4. 400 idle from dull trade; 59 idle caused by disputes, re wages, etc.; 100 idle from bad health; 8 slept in and lost their employment. It is difficult to specify the real causes of unemployment.

5. There is abundant outlet for female labour in Dundee in the jute mills and factories, and in this way men who are unwilling to work in certain cases remain idle, living on the earnings of their womenkind. Any loss of work, therefore, by their women relatives results in compelling such men to seek for work, and they are then driven to

enrol at the Bureau. It is to be feared that the drunken habits of certain of the unemployed count to a large extent for their being out of work, and in the case of not a few their indolent roving habits contribute greatly to the want of employment, while others, it must be confessed, are thrown out of work owing to circumstances over which they have no control, and through no fault of their own.

Its Effects.

6. As to the effects of non-employment it is unnecessary to say anything except this: that not only is it very depressing and discouraging so far as the person employed is concerned, but the fact of his being unable, though willing, to earn a livelihood, and to provide for those who may be dependent upon him for support, has a most deleterious effect upon such dependants. The want of employment has also, doubtless, an injurious effect upon the constitution.

Its Remedies: with an especial Reference to the Working and Results of the Unemployed Workmen Act.

7. The Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905, has proved, so far as Dundee is concerned, a most unsatisfactory Act, unworkable and practically a failure. The Act enjoins us to enrol all applicants, and make elaborate inquiry into their circumstances. The difficulty created by the Act is this—that the Distress Committee are only allowed to provide work and pay wages therefor out of voluntary contributions, and as but few voluntary contributions have been received in Dundee, the Distress Committee

APPENDIX No. CXXVIII.—*continued.*

are not in a position to pay wages without receiving a substantial Grant in Aid from Government.

8. It is respectfully suggested that the Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905, should be amended to the following effect:—

(a) That it should be so amended as to give Distress Committees power to pay the wages of the unemployed out of the rates, the rate contribution to be limited as at present.

(b) That it should be so amended as to give Distress Committees compulsory powers to acquire land, subject to the consent of the Local Government Board being obtained.

(c) That vagrants and loafers should be dealt with by the Government establishing penal colonies or otherwise, as such a course, if adopted, would greatly facilitate the work of the Distress Committee.

(d) That powers be extended either to Parish Councils or Distress Committees to relieve temporary distress without pauperising recipients. And

(e) That the record papers for keeping a record of every application required under article vi. of the regulations of 14th November 1905 are far too elaborate, as they contain no fewer than seventeen questions which fall to be answered by each applicant for employment. Experience has proved that the answering of so many questions is obnoxious to many applicants, and that they resent the multiplicity of questions. In Dundee, many of the applicants refuse to answer the questions, and leave the Bureau and never return. The following suggestion may also be worthy of consideration. Although a goodly number of the unemployed are able-bodied men and fit for engaging in such work as street-making and stone-breaking, yet there are doubtless a number who could not tackle such laborious work, but who might manage work requiring less muscular strength. The kind of work the Town Council or Distress Committee provide is not very suitable unless for the strong and able-bodied.

An Account of Municipal Relief Works for Unemployed prior to passing of Unemployed Workmen Act.

9. During the year 1887-8 work was provided for 70 unemployed men at Craigie Quarry. Of this number only about one-half took advantage of the offer. The men were paid at the rate of 1s. 6d. per cubic yard of whinstone broken. In 1892-93 work was offered to 417 persons. Out of that number 299 took advantage of the offer, but 101 of these only continued at work from one to fourteen days, showing that out of the gross number of 417, 198 had taken real advantage of the work provided. In 1895 a register was opened and 206 names were enrolled. The Committee considered the matter, but saw no cause to provide work in the meantime. In March of the same year 188 men were taken on to clear snow off the roads. In 1904-5, 1643 names were registered, 916 cards for work were sent out, and in response thereto 556 men commenced work.

10. The present position of Distress Committees in Scotland cannot continue. It seems absurd that a body of representative men should be called together, instructed to open a register, receive 700 applicants, investigate the applications, and find nearly all applicants deserving and necessitous, and yet, for want of voluntary contributions, be unable to institute any work to assist the applicants. Yet that is the position to-day. The result is that several members of the Dundee Distress Committee have resigned their appointment, and such a contingency as the whole Distress Committee resigning is a perfectly possible one. The Act has, on the one hand, dried up the springs of private benevolence, and, on the other hand, instructed the Committee to provide work with the contributions from private benevolence. The other alternative is for the Distress Committee to go on with the work, looking in faith to the Government repaying them out of some Grant the moneys they have expended. In this way personal responsibility is placed upon members of the Committee, a position which is manifestly wrong.

APPENDIX No. CXXIX.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO UNEMPLOYMENT, BY MR WILLIAM NICOL, J.P., MEMBER OF GLASGOW TOWN COUNCIL AND OF GLASGOW DISTRESS COMMITTEE.

1. I am a proprietor of lodging-houses in the east end of Glasgow. I am a member of the Corporation of Glasgow, a Justice of the Peace for the County of the City of Glasgow, and a member of the Glasgow Distress Committee. Prior to entering the Town Council I was a member of the Calton Ward Committee for over twenty years, and I have been intimately associated with the east end of the city for the last thirty years.

Prior to the formation of the Distress Committee I was for several years a member of the Corporation Committee on Relief Employment, and in the work of that Committee I took a very deep interest. I have been a member of the Distress Sub-committee on Relief Employment, and in that capacity I have given much valuable time and consideration to the numerous applications brought before me.

2. *Numbers and Classes of Men out of Work.*—Statements have already been furnished to the Secretary of the Commission, relative to the number of applications received from Glasgow this year and last, and I am prepared to speak with reference to these.

3. It is undoubtedly the case that, for several years back—I am speaking both as a member of the Corporation Relief Committee and also as a member of the Distress Committee—the proportion of skilled labourers who made application to participate in the relief work was very small: 15% would, I think, be a liberal estimate of applications from skilled labourers in each year, received during the three years prior to the present. For reasons which can be more fully explained under examination, I am prepared to state that the proportion of skilled labourers applying for relief has considerably increased during the past year.

4. A large proportion of the cases dealt with during the

last few years would, to my mind, be met with in almost any set of circumstances, provided relief works were opened by a Local Authority. It was the painful experience of myself and my colleagues who sat day after day investigating these applications, that we had numerous applications from men who had not worked a single hour between the closing of the relief work one winter and its opening the next.

5. From the foregoing it will be seen that I consider a certain proportion of the applicants come under what we might term the "chronic" class of unemployed, and this, I think, preponderates over the "periodic" class.

6. *Causes.*—Recent legislation—*i.e.*, the Workmen's Compensation Act—has undoubtedly largely contributed to the congested state of the labour market. Numerous illustrations which have come under my own notice can be given.

7. *Effects.*—The effects of unemployment are:—a general and very marked deterioration of the lower working classes, socially, physically, and morally; a growing feeling of unrest and dissatisfaction with surroundings; and a desire to emigrate. With regard to emigration: Selection Committees naturally send out the best specimens of the class coming before them, so that there is left a substratum of the mentally, morally, and physically degenerate.

8. *Remedies.*—With regard to the remedy, I am strongly of opinion that the establishment of labour colonies, both voluntary and penal, would go a long way towards the settlement of this question. At the same time, I recognise that there must always be a remnant which will be in-different and beyond the reach of ameliorating influences.

9. The opening up of large tracts of land for fruit and vegetable cultivation would, to my mind, go a long way towards a solution of this difficult problem.

APPENDIX No. CXXX.

STATEMENT AS TO UNEMPLOYMENT BY MR PETER REID, J.P., MEMBER OF DUNDEE SCHOOL BOARD.

1. I am a working printer and Trade Unionist of upwards of thirty years' standing. Was for four years President of Dundee Branch of Scottish Typographical Association, occupied a seat on the local Board of Management for a much longer period, and was recently elected the representative of a group of branches on the Central Executive at Glasgow. Was a member of Dundee Trades Council for fourteen years, during five of which I held the position of Secretary and for four years that of President, and also represented that body on the Dundee Technical Institute Committee. Am at present a member of Dundee School Board, and was for two years one of the representatives of the municipal ratepayers on Dundee Harbour Board. Am a Justice of the Peace for the County of the City of Dundee, and may be presumed to have some little knowledge of the state of employment in the city.

UNEMPLOYMENT.

2. *Its Causes.*—In Dundee, as in other communities, within recent years improved machinery and other labour-saving appliances have been largely introduced, thereby displacing various classes of workmen. In the building trades, for instance, considerably fewer masons (hewers chiefly) are required than formerly, owing to the stones being now dressed and prepared at the quarries and brought to the jobs merely to be placed in position. As in the building, so in other trades. In the staple industry, viz. jute manufactures, the system which prevails in the mills and factories is, in my view, largely responsible for increasing the unemployed list. Young lads after leaving school are attracted to that class of work by the comparatively high wages they receive to begin with. After several years, however, in the majority of cases—of course, there are exceptions: in the jute, as in other industries, ability

generally counts—they have either to be content with, for a man, a very small wage, or give place to the younger lads, when they go to swell the ranks of unskilled labour. The employment of married women in this industry is another contributory cause and one which will be very difficult to get rid of. They are employed to such an extent at present that their withdrawal would probably for a time seriously dislocate the industry.

3. *Its Effects.*—In Dundee the effects of unemployment are precisely the same as in other cities, whether the trouble be periodic or chronic. In the one case, the out-of-work is tided over the idle periods by other members of his family in employment, or, after his own little store (if he has one) is exhausted, is indebted to friends for assistance, and, of course, gets into debt. Beyond this, generally speaking, nothing worse happens than the miserable feeling one has who is willing and anxious to work, but cannot obtain it. In the case of the chronic out-of-work it not infrequently happens that he loses all desire for work and drifts into the "loafer."

4. *Its Remedies.*—A certain amount of good has resulted from the operation of the Unemployed Workmen's Act in the establishment of the Distress Committee of the Labour Bureau and the keeping of a register of those out of employment, and in endeavouring as far as possible to obtain work for them. Practically that is all. It is true, a proportion were found employment, at roadmaking principally. A great deal more, however, is necessary, to meet the wants of the case. Turning the unemployed into farm-workers is a remedy I favour. The establishment of a Farm Colony on similar lines to those of some of the Salvation Army would, in my opinion, materially help towards a solution of the unemployed question.

APPENDIX No. CXXXI.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO UNEMPLOYMENT, BY SIR CHARLES BINE RENSHAW, BART., BAROCHAN, HOUSTON (RENFREWSHIRE).

1. I have been engaged in business as a manufacturer in this county for nearly forty years, and during that period have been Chairman of a large School Board in the County, and a member of the County Council since 1889, and for many years I have farmed a considerable acreage of land. For fourteen years I represented the Western Division of the county of Renfrew in Parliament. I have therefore had special opportunities of knowing what the conditions in respect of employment have been, not only in the county itself but in the burghs situated within it. During the period I can speak of there has been a great increase in the population and wealth of the county and of the burghs within it, a substantial evidence of the latter being the fact that Glasgow, Paisley, Greenock, and Johnstone are all at this moment seeking to extend their boundaries.

2. General employment has been and is good throughout the county, and the condition and wellbeing of the working classes has greatly improved. This is largely due to the varied industries of the county and to the fact that any temporary or seasonal depression in one industry is frequently accompanied by expansion in others. The shipbuilding trade is one which has been subject to perhaps the most violent fluctuations, but this seems to be the case with this trade generally, owing to special causes which affect the demand for new steamers and ships, and the fact that comparatively few of those engaged in the industry build ships except against actual orders.

3. Overtime is worked in some industries, especially in the works engaged in making machines and tools, but this is mostly periodic, and the men engaged in the work possess special aptitude and qualifications which it would be impossible to find in casual labour.

4. There has been no general "unemployment" in the

county except such as is and must be due to the causes to which I have referred and to seasonal demand, or the effect of weather on such an industry as the building trade, in respect of which, however, the wages paid are high relatively to other trades, and with ordinary care in the busy months provision can be made, and is made by some, to tide over the periods during which work cannot be done.

5. As far as I am aware, the Unemployed Workmen's Act, 1905, has never been availed of anywhere in this district except in Glasgow, but no doubt if severe depression occurred now in such a trade as shipbuilding, recourse would be had to its provisions. In regard to this Act, I think there is a danger that if in the future employers of labour found a charge made on them under the provisions of the Act, or any considerable extension of the application of rates to the relief of "want of employment," that they would be less disposed to do what many do now, viz., work for stock during periods of depression in order to keep their workpeople employed. There is always a certain amount of risk in working for stock, as the particular class of goods or machinery made may not be in demand in a subsequent season, and it is more costly to make for stock, as it involves storage, loss of interest, etc.; and if employers who do their best in this way at present found they had also to help the unemployed of other industries, they might very possibly argue that their own employees should be equally assisted from the common fund—and in this way the number of unemployed might be largely augmented.

6. I think the establishment and support of labour bureaux, and assistance in migrating labour from localities where demand has slackened or ceased to exist to localities where it is wanted, is most valuable. Great local changes do take place. In this county at the early part of last

APPENDIX No. CXXXI.—*continued.*

century there were a great number of mills engaged in spinning cotton yarns, and many hands were employed. The last of these mills in the county has now ceased to work, and the industry has passed to Lancashire. In Paisley between 1839-41, I think, owing to a failure in the demand for a certain class of shawls made there, there was a period of great want and suffering which formed the subject of a Parliamentary inquiry. The trade in twisting cotton thread and many other industries are now most prosperous in Paisley, and from its bankrupt condition at the date to which I have referred it has become one of the wealthiest towns in Scotland, having regard to its population and area.

7. Industries must sometimes suffer from changing conditions of markets, from changes of fashion, and sometimes from the entire cessation of demand for particular articles, and everything that facilitates the rapid movement of those engaged in decadent industries to newer and more vigorous centres of industry must be valuable.

8. In regard to agricultural labour, there is difficulty in

some parts of this county in finding sufficient summer labourers, and casual and migratory labour from Ireland finds employment. In the autumn and winter months men engaged in field work in spring and summer could many of them find employment in thatching, draining, mole catching, dyke building, hedging, etc., if they were qualified, if there was only some central or co-operative system established by which this most necessary labour could be instructed and organised. If young men had some prospect of continuous employment which such a system would render possible, I believe they would more readily engage in agricultural work, which is more healthy and much less monotonous than much of the work in foundries or mills.

9. On this subject, however, it must not be overlooked that the long continuance of a high rate of income-tax and the severity of the death duties on owners of landed property militate against the employment of as large an amount of labour in estate management as used to be the case.

APPENDIX No. CXXXII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY CAPTAIN W. H. SHINGLER, SUPERINTENDENT,
CHURCH ARMY LABOUR HOME, EDINBURGH.

1. I have been connected with the social work of the Church Army in different parts of the United Kingdom for the last nineteen years, and what I may say on this matter will be from personal contact with the unemployed and also the unemployable. The information which I have got has been what I have gathered from the men themselves, when asking them the cause of their present state.

EXTENT OF UNEMPLOYMENT.

2. At the present time there are fifteen hundred unemployed men on the register.

3. The great majority of them are of the labouring class; a certain percentage of them will rank as unemployable.

4. In reference to the extent of overtime that is being made, from what I can gather it is only in cases of breakdowns or in urgent cases.

CAUSES OF UNEMPLOYMENT.

5. Its causes are many:—a great number of men are out of employment through their own fault; through drink; some through laziness; some men prefer temporary labour.

6. But one of its chief causes, I think, is that the working men do not consume their fair share of manufactured goods—that is, in proportion to their income.

7. They prefer to squander their money rather than purchase clothing, food, and other comforts of life, which would create labour for their fellow-workmen.

8. To a great extent they are producers, and not consumers.

EFFECTS OF UNEMPLOYMENT.

9. This greatly depends upon the man himself, as its effects are many.

10. Upon a *bona fide* unemployed man the effects are very depressing. I have known one or two cases where the worry and the trouble have brought about a physical breakdown.

11. In other cases the men have become chronic loafers, taking to drink and other vices, and in some cases entirely depend upon the labours of their wives.

REMEDIES FOR UNEMPLOYMENT.

12. I consider that the remedy is in the hands of the working men themselves and not with the Government.

13. One of the reasons of the present state of things is the deliberate waste of money, private and public.

14. On the list of the submerged tenth we find a large percentage of ex-soldiers, pensioners, and reserve men. In many cases, owing to the pension and the reserve money being paid quarterly, in twenty-four hours after receiving the pension the men are again penniless, and live on the general public for the next three months.

15. I think if arrangements could be made whereby these men, from the rank of sergeant down to private, could receive their pension and reserve money weekly, they would have a little each week to live on. More than one ex-soldier and reserve man have told me they wished they could draw their money weekly. There would not then be the same temptation for them to give way to their quarterly bout of drinking, which causes them in many cases to lose their situations, and to find themselves in the hands of the law. If this could be done I feel sure it would save thousands of our ex-soldiers and reserve men from want.

16. Another thing that I think we want is a distinction between the unemployed and the unemployable.

17. Further, all unemployed men that are found work by the Unemployed Committee ought to be compelled to show the same result of labour as if working for a private employer. Otherwise these men would prefer to work for the Distress Committee, although they may earn sixpence or one shilling per day less. If that rule was enforced there would be fewer applicants for relief work. The value of the work done by the unemployed was variously estimated by the Town Councils. In Glasgow, the total amount of the wages paid up to 15th May 1906 was £3634, 17s. 2d. The value of the work done was estimated by the Corporation at £1114, 4s. 4d., leaving £2520, 12s. 10d. to be paid by the Distress Committee. In Edinburgh the Distress Committee paid to the Corporation a sum of £1391, 7s. 6d., the total wages paid being £2927, 6s. 3d. In other words, the Glasgow Distress Committee paid 69·3 per cent. of the total wage bill, and the Edinburgh Distress Committee 47·5 per cent. In one instance the local authority appear to have been satisfied with the value of the labour given and paid the wages in full, making no claim on the Distress Committee.

18. In reference to the unemployable, nothing can be done for these men until the Government steps in and establishes a Penal Colony, where they can be detained and compelled to work until such time as they have proved themselves willing to support themselves and their dependants by their own industry. This includes women as well as men.

19. They would then become consumers as well as producers.

APPENDIX No. CXXXIII.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY PROFESSOR SIME, UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, DUNDEE.

1. The concrete problems of political and social organisation have a genuine interest for me; and in particular, for personal reasons, I have been brought closely in touch with the questions of employment and the conditions of the workers in our local industries.

2. At the present time the problem of unemployment is not a serious one. The jute and linen trades—our *main* industries—are enjoying a period of unparalleled prosperity. No machinery is idle, and several works which had been closed down have been re-started. Workers are being paid much higher wages than formerly. If any difficulty exists, it is that the employers cannot always rely on the regularity of their people. In this connection, it is suggestive that since the recent increase in wages irregularity of attendance has been more noticeable. I have heard several complaints on this point from employers.

3. It is, however, generally recognised that there is an element of serious danger in our industrial situation. Dundee is pre-eminently a city of one trade, and periods of depression, such as occurred in, *e.g.*, 1893-4, cause suffering of a very widespread character. From the report of the Dundee Charity Organisation Society (which, I understand, will be laid before your Commissioners), it will be noticed that the condition of the *jute* industry is strikingly reflected in the annual summaries. There has been much talk about the introduction of new industries, but, with the exception of the establishment of a linoleum factory, nothing has, so far, been done.

4. Those out of work at present are mainly unskilled labourers; the secretary of the Labour Home estimates

that these form 90 per cent. of the total. The general opinion is that a large proportion of these men prefer *not* to work; they are the usual parasites of society, and nothing short of sheer compulsion by the State would induce them to earn their livelihood by honest labour. The officials of the Charity Organisation Society report that work offered has been refused;—a *free* meal is always welcome! One characteristic of our local industry encourages this type of man. The women engaged in spinning and weaving receive a good wage; it is suggestive that a large proportion are married.

5. Apart from the usual causes of unemployment—trade depression, shiftlessness, drunkenness—there is a special reason why, in Dundee, there should always be a large number of unskilled workers out of employment. Much of the work in the mills can be done by boys; they are at first paid a higher wage than is earned by apprentices learning a skilled trade. They are tempted—their circumstances may compel them—to take what is for the moment more lucrative work. But there is no career before them, and ultimately they are ousted by younger workers. This difficulty is inherent in the conditions of our industry, and it is hard to see how it can be met. Nothing short of removing from such work the attractions of a higher wage, and the introduction of new or extension of existing industries involving skilled labour, will save the situation.

6. As to the general question of remedies in periods of depression, I understand that the local authorities are submitting to your Commission a report of the relief work carried on by them.

APPENDIX No. CXXXIV.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE BY MR ROBERT STIRTON, DUNDEE.

1. My only qualification for submitting a statement to you lies in the fact that I am a workman of forty years' experience, with some powers of observation. I am, however, no Gradgrind or statistician, and give you no references as you seek—persons, institutions, or documents,—so you must just take my replies to your inquiries at their face value. If they are of any use to you, I shall be glad; if not, there is no harm done.

EXTENT OF UNEMPLOYMENT.

2. During the last six years about 40 per cent. fewer men have been employed in the building trades of this district than during the six years previous to that time. Emigration may have disposed of one half of this number, one quarter may have fallen back on lower paid jobs in public works or foundries, and the rest intermittently employed.

3. The above refers to artisans or tradesmen; but labourers are similarly affected, and with less power of adaptation. Very few of them are able to emigrate, so the proportion of unemployed amongst them in times of periodic distress is much greater than amongst tradesmen.

CAUSES OF UNEMPLOYMENT.

4. The causes of unemployment (still speaking with special reference to the building trades) are mainly, I think, economic. Cheap money tempts men to speculate in building, a boom in which may last over five years. During this time many young men rush to learn the trade, to find that, when they have finished their apprenticeship, the boom is over, and no work for them to do in the particular branch for which they have fitted themselves, and much suffering and loss is entailed on them before they can adapt themselves to some other kind of work.

5. One feature of the problem is increasingly obvious, *viz.* that this power of adaptation becomes daily more difficult, and that a condition of unemployment tends more and more to become chronic; for during the last three

years, while the gross trade returns have been unprecedented for magnitude, the unemployed have been with us all the time in ever-increasing numbers.

6. The fact is, that in *every branch of industry* men are being displaced by machinery, which is continually being improved upon and made more effective, more productive, and worked as long hours as before, often by women and children, with the inevitable consequence that men must stand idly by, as there is little chance of adaptation in other directions when every industry has numbers of its skilled hands unemployed.

EFFECTS OF UNEMPLOYMENT.

7. The effect of this state of things is to reduce the rate of wages, through excessive competition for the opportunity to work, which in turn so affects the spending power of the mass of the people that home trade generally suffers. Capital absorbs *all* the advantages accruing from the use of improved machinery, labour and internal trade suffering loss.

REMEDIES FOR UNEMPLOYMENT.

8. While our commercial system is run on its present lines, it would seem that remedies are vain to seek. The Unemployed Workmen's Act is only a palliative of a very indifferent kind, offering only the roughest kind of work to men in many cases entirely unfit to perform it, and costing more than it would do in the regular way of contract, in spite of the fact that the men receive less for their work per hour. It is good so far as it, in a way, admits that men belonging to a country or nation are entitled to an opportunity of earning a living in their country, but it provides no adequate means for supplying this opportunity, and it is my opinion that, while the present system of land monopoly and trust and company monopoly continues, the rich are bound to become richer and the poor poorer, and the unemployed will, in spite of all efforts, continue to increase.

APPENDIX No. CXXXV.

STATEMENT OF EVIDENCE AS TO UNEMPLOYMENT, BY MR W. S. WORKMAN, GLASGOW.

1. I may say I have been a member of the firm of George Smith & Sons, of the City Line of Steamers to India, for over thirty years. Since 1901 we have been our own stevedores.

2. In the year 1894 we came to the conclusion it was in the interest of the line to employ Lascars in our fleet, as we found the British seaman most unreliable and unsatisfactory, principally through drink, and we have had no reason to regret the change. Of course our officers and quartermasters are British.

3. In connection with social work, I have come across the working-men in their homes, and know something of their difficulties and trials.

4. On board ship we could hardly wish a happier state of matters than at present exists, as we find everyone most interested in their work, the greatest harmony and loyalty prevails, and there is a disposition to remain in the Line.

5. In the stevedoring department the problem is a much more difficult one. At times, generally lasting only a few days and nights, we will employ five hundred hands, at other times we may only have the permanent staff of, say, twenty men employed.

6. Taking the whole year round, we give employment to about two hundred men per week.

7. The effect of such work is rather demoralising, and in some cases utterly bad, for a man may earn in two or three days and nights as much as will keep him for a week, and if he is disposed to be lazy, will not return to work until he has spent it all. Even a steady man must find it very difficult to regulate his household expenses, where he may be earning, say, £2 one week, and almost nothing the next. Again, it is very disheartening for the dock labourer to be hanging about doing nothing, or, in his anxiety to provide for his family, visiting one berth after another in the hope of finding employment, only to receive a rebuff, and perhaps to discover later in the day that had he remained where he first was he would have got a job.

8. No shipowner or stevedore could afford to keep a staff sufficiently large to meet all circumstances; and even with a regular line, the amount of work is so uncertain that what might be ample one week would be much too little the next.

9. As far as casual labour, such as stevedoring, is concerned, it would seem that what is wanted is, say, three or four bureaus (with perhaps a suitable place attached in which the men could rest) in a city like Glasgow, with telephonic connections with leading centres of work, so that the necessary men could be secured with the least possible delay.

10. The danger of this is, of course, the risk of the men spending their time in gambling or other amusements, and not being disposed to go off to work at a moment's notice on a job that is maybe not very inviting.

11. If the scheme, however, were under careful management, I can believe it would be worth the trial.

12. The working of the Acts relative to compensation to workmen is undoubtedly doing harm, as far as I have seen in connection with our own men. We naturally have covered our risk by insurance, and the company, as naturally, pay small claims rather than incur the heavy expense of defending a case in Court, even should the claim be absolutely unjustifiable. The result is, that for the most trifling damage, to which before the passing of the Acts no attention would have been paid, he knocks off work, and probably receives sufficient compensation to keep him idle for a week. This is not only demoralising to the men, but does not encourage that harmony which should exist between employer and employed.

13. There are men about the docks who make their living by acquainting lawyers of accidents.

14. With reference to young lads and girls, the Government might appoint some individual or board to guide the parents in providing suitable employment for them.

15. With our present system of compulsory education, the parents have little hold on their children up to fourteen, and by that time they have lost control or possibly interest in their training. After fourteen they become wage-earners, and soon treat their home merely as a lodging, paying so much for their board.

16. The effect of this want of parental control between the ages of fourteen and twenty-one is a great loss to the community in moral training, and something ought to be done to secure the interest of these young people between these ages in such pastimes as will materially benefit them, both morally and physically.

ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE POOR LAWS AND RELIEF OF DISTRESS.

LIST OF APPENDIX VOLUMES TO THE REPORTS OF THE POOR LAW COMMISSION FOR ENGLAND AND WALES, SCOTLAND, AND IRELAND.

APPENDIX VOL. I.—ENGLISH OFFICIAL EVIDENCE.

Minutes of Evidence mainly of the Officers of the Local Government Board for England and Wales. 1st to 34th Days: 8th January to 22nd May, 1906: Questions 1 to 14,880.

APPENDIX VOL. I. A.—ENGLISH OFFICIAL EVIDENCE.

Appendices to the Minutes of Evidence included in Vol. I., being mainly the evidence of the Officers of the Local Government Board for England and Wales.

APPENDIX VOL. I. B.—INDEX.

Index to Appendix Vols. I. and I. A.

APPENDIX VOL. II.—LONDON EVIDENCE.

Minutes of Evidence (with Appendices) mainly of London witnesses. 35th to 48th Days: 28th May to 23rd July, 1906: Questions 14,881 to 24,739.

APPENDIX VOL. II. A.—INDEX.

Index to Appendix Vol. II.

APPENDIX VOL. III.—ASSOCIATIONS AND CRITICS.

Minutes of Evidence (with Appendices) mainly of critics of the Poor Law and of witnesses representing Poor Law and Charitable Associations. 49th to 71st Days: 1st October to 17th December, 1906: Questions 24,740 to 35,450.

APPENDIX VOL. III. A.—INDEX.

Index to Appendix Vol. III.

APPENDIX VOL. IV.—URBAN CENTRES.—LIVERPOOL, MANCHESTER, WEST YORKS, AND MIDLANDS.

Minutes of Evidence (with Appendices) containing the oral and written evidence of the British Medical Association and of witnesses from the following provincial urban centres—Liverpool and Manchester districts, West Yorkshire, Midland Towns. 72nd to 89th Days: 14th January to 26th March, 1907: Questions 35,451 to 48,347.

APPENDIX VOL. IV. A.—INDEX.

Index to Appendix Vol. IV.

APPENDIX VOL. V.—URBAN CENTRES.—SOUTH WALES AND NORTH EASTERN COUNTIES.

Minutes of Evidence (with Appendices) containing the oral and written evidence of witnesses from urban centres in the following districts:—South Wales and North Eastern Counties, 90th to 94th Days: 15th April to 30th April, 1907: Questions 48,348 to 53,067.

APPENDIX VOL. V. A.—INDEX.

Index to Appendix Vol V.

APPENDIX VOL. VI.—SCOTLAND.

Minutes of Evidence (with Appendices) relating to Scotland. 95th to 110th Days, and 139th and 149th Days: 6th May to 21st June, 1907, and 13th January and 2nd March, 1908: Questions 53,068 to 67,565; 88,667 to 89,046; 94,629 to 95,323.

APPENDIX VOL. VI. A.—INDEX.

Index to Appendix Vol. VI.

APPENDIX VOL. VII.—RURAL CENTRES.—FRIENDLY SOCIETIES, ETC.

Minutes of Evidence (with Appendices) containing the oral and written evidence of witnesses from various rural centres in the South Western, Western, and Eastern Counties, from the Parish of Poplar Borough and from the National Conference of Friendly Societies. 111th to 122nd Days: 9th July to 7th October, 1907: Questions 67,566 to 77,734.

APPENDIX VOL. VII. A.—INDEX.

Index to Appendix Vol. VII.

APPENDIX VOL. VIII.—UNEMPLOYMENT.

Minutes of Evidence (with Appendices) containing the oral and written evidence of witnesses relating chiefly to the subject of "Unemployment." 123rd to 138th Days: 14th October to 10th December, 1907: Questions 77,735 to 88,666.

APPENDIX VOL. VIII. A.—INDEX.

Index to Appendix Vol. VIII.

APPENDIX VOL. IX.—UNEMPLOYMENT.

Minutes of Evidence (with Appendices) containing the oral and written evidence of further witnesses relating to the subject of Unemployment, etc. 140th to 148th Days: 150th to 156th Days, and 158th Day: 14th January, 1908, to 11th May, 1908. Questions 89,048 to 94,628; 95,324 to 99,350; 100,020 to 100,590.

APPENDIX VOL. IX. A.—INDEX.

Index to Appendix Vol. IX.

APPENDIX VOL. X.—IRELAND.

Minutes of Evidence (with Appendices) relating to Ireland. 157th and 159th Days: 25th April and 12th May, 1908: Questions 99,351 to 100,019; 100,591 to 100,928.

APPENDIX VOL. X. A.—INDEX.

Index to Appendix Vol. X.

APPENDIX VOL. XI.—MISCELLANEOUS.

Miscellaneous Papers. Communications from Boards of Guardians and Others, etc., etc.

APPENDIX VOL. XII.—COMMISSIONERS' MEMORANDA.

Reports, Memoranda, and Tables prepared by certain of the Commissioners.

APPENDIX VOL. XIII.—DIOCESAN REPORTS.

Diocesan Reports on the Methods of administering Charitable Assistance and the extent and intensity of Poverty in England and Wales.

APPENDIX VOL. XIV.—INVESTIGATORS' REPORTS.—MEDICAL RELIEF.

Report on the Methods and Results of the present system of administering Indoor and Outdoor Poor Law Medical Relief in certain Unions in England and Wales, by Dr. McVail.

APPENDIX VOL. XV.—INVESTIGATORS' REPORTS.—CHARITY.

Report on the Administrative Relation of Charity and the Poor Law, and the extent and the actual and potential utility of Endowed and Voluntary Charities in England and Scotland, by Mr. A. C. Kay and Mr. H. V. Toynbee.

APPENDIX VOL. XVI.—INVESTIGATORS' REPORTS.—INDUSTRIAL AND SANITARY CONDITIONS.

Reports on the Relation of Industrial and Sanitary Conditions to Pauperism, by Mr. Steel Maitland and Miss R. E. Squire.

APPENDIX VOL. XVII.—INVESTIGATORS' REPORTS.—OUT-RELIEF AND WAGES.

Reports on the effect of Outdoor Relief on Wages, and the Conditions of Employment, by Mr. Thomas Jones and Miss Williams.

APPENDIX VOL. XVIII.—INVESTIGATORS' REPORTS.—CHILDREN : ENGLAND AND WALES.

Report on the condition of the Children who are in receipt of the various forms of Poor Law Relief in certain Unions in London and in the Provinces, by Dr. Ethel Williams and Miss Longman and Miss Phillips.

APPENDIX VOL. XIX.—INVESTIGATORS' REPORTS.—UNEMPLOYMENT : ENGLAND AND WALES.

Report on the Effects of Employment or Assistance given to the Unemployed since 1886 as a means of relieving Distress outside the Poor Law in London, and generally throughout England and Wales, by Mr. Cyril Jackson and the Rev. J. C. Pringle.

APPENDIX VOL. XIX. A.—INVESTIGATORS' REPORTS.—UNEMPLOYMENT : SCOTLAND.

Report on the Effects of Employment or Assistance given to the Unemployed since 1886 as a means of relieving Distress outside the Poor Law in Scotland, by the Rev. J. C. Pringle.

APPENDIX VOL. XIX. B.—INVESTIGATORS' REPORTS.—UNEMPLOYMENT : IRELAND.

Report on the Effects of Employment or Assistance given to the Unemployed since 1886 as a means of relieving Distress outside the Poor Law in Ireland, by Mr. Cyril Jackson.

APPENDIX VOL. XX.—INVESTIGATORS' REPORTS.—BOY LABOUR.

Report on Boy Labour in London and certain other Typical Towns, by Mr. Cyril Jackson, with a Memorandum from the General Post Office on the Conditions of Employment of Telegraph Messengers.

APPENDIX VOL. XXI.—INVESTIGATORS' REPORTS.—REFUSAL OF OUT-RELIEF.

Reports on the Effect of the Refusal of Out-relief on the Applicants for such Relief, by Miss G. Harlock.

APPENDIX VOL. XXII.—INVESTIGATORS' REPORTS.—OVERLAPPING OF MEDICAL RELIEF IN LONDON.

Report on the Overlapping of the Work of the Voluntary General Hospitals with that of Poor Law Medical Relief in certain districts of London, by Miss N. B. Roberts.

APPENDIX VOL. XXIII.—INVESTIGATORS' REPORTS.—CHILDREN : SCOTLAND.

Report on the Condition of the Children who are in receipt of the various forms of Poor Law Relief in certain parishes in Scotland, by Dr. C. T. Parsons and Miss Longman and Miss Phillips.

APPENDIX VOL. XXIV.—INVESTIGATORS' REPORTS.—ABLE-BODIED AND "ORDINARY" PAUPERS IN ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

Report on a Comparison of the Physical Condition of "Ordinary" Paupers in certain Scottish Poorhouses with that of the Able-bodied Paupers in certain English Workhouses and Labour Yards, by Dr. C. T. Parsons.

APPENDIX VOL. XXV.—STATISTICAL.

Statistical Memoranda and Tables relating to England and Wales, prepared by the Staff of the Commission and by Government Departments, and Others, and Actuarial Reports.

APPENDIX VOL. XXVI.—CHARITIES.

Documents relating more especially to the Administration of Charities.

APPENDIX VOL. XXVII.—REPLIES OF DISTRESS COMMITTEES.

Replies by Distress Committees in England and Wales to Questions circulated on the subject of the Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905.

APPENDIX VOL. XXVIII.—VISITS.

Reports of Visits to Poor Law and Charitable Institutions and to Meetings of Local Authorities in the United Kingdom.

APPENDIX VOL. XXIX.—REPORT BY GENERAL ASSEMBLY OF CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.

Report on the Methods of Administering Charitable Assistance and the extent and intensity of Poverty in Scotland, prepared by the Committee on Church Interests appointed by the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland.

APPENDIX VOL. XXX.—SCOTLAND.

Documents relating specially to Scotland.

APPENDIX VOL. XXXI.—IRELAND.

Statistical Memoranda and Tables relating to Ireland, etc.

APPENDIX VOL. XXXII.—FOREIGN LABOUR COLONIES COMMITTEE.

Report on Visits paid by the Foreign Labour Colonies Committee of the Commission to certain Institutions in Holland, Belgium, Germany, and Switzerland.

APPENDIX VOL. XXXIII.—FOREIGN POOR RELIEF SYSTEMS.

Foreign and Colonial Systems of Poor Relief, with a Memorandum on the Relief of Famines in India.

APPENDIX VOL. XXXIV.—LIST OF WITNESSES.

Alphabetical Lists of Oral and Non-oral Witnesses.



